

To my family

**Cross-linguistic comparison of social interaction in
promotional texts written in English and Spanish**

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Abstract

This thesis is concerned with a cross-linguistic comparison of social interaction in the context of business promotion/publicity in English and Colombian Spanish. It discusses the similarities and differences in the discourse resources that the writers in the two languages and from different cultural backgrounds have available to achieve similar communicative purposes.

Within a comparative framework the analysis focuses on the identification of lexicogrammatical patterns of interpersonal meanings used in the discourse of promotion across subgenres in both languages. Contextual factors such as generic constraints, overall communicative purpose of the texts and the status of expertise associated with the target audience have been explored in order to explain the linguistic choices identified in the analysis. It is argued that the similarities in the choice of interpersonal meanings across text types in both languages can be linked to both the overall communicative purpose and the status of audience. Discourse conventions typically associated with the nature of each text type were identified through the differences in the choice of interpersonal meanings across text types, which were found to construct an information-oriented or a reader-oriented interaction in different sub-genres in contextually predictable ways. For example, the more reader-oriented interaction identified in sales letters in both languages is related to the highly individualised nature associated with this type of promotional texts. However, certain differences in the patterns of interpersonal meanings were identified in the two languages across text types. For example, the higher choice of values related to the efficiency and/or the trustworthiness of the company observed in Spanish, but not in English, may be related to inherent socio-economical features of the particular Caribbean Colombian social group investigated.

Interpersonal meanings are mostly expressed through relatively similar lexicogrammatical choices in the two languages; but there are a few differences. For example, modality in Spanish is expressed in some cases through different language choices. In some cases, these differences do not appear to impact significantly on the way the interaction is constructed. However, in other cases the differences do have an impact. The most salient differences in the choice of lexicogrammatical resources can be seen in the wider scope of pronominal resources in Spanish than in English, which can be related to an increase in the frequency of use of direct offers in Spanish.

The implications for language training are discussed. It is argued that a corpus based comparative approach to the teaching of English and Spanish non-native speakers in the two cultural settings will help raise awareness of how the choice of language is dictated not simply by differences in the language system, but, perhaps more importantly, by the contextual factors such as audience, generic constraints and the pragmatic purpose of the genre itself and by values inherent in the culture.

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1 Introduction

The view that language is a social phenomenon has been central to most work conducted in discourse analysis by scholars from various languages and cultural backgrounds during the last few decades. Studies of written or spoken discourse developed within the systemic grammar tradition have dealt with the study of language as a semiotic phenomenon (e.g. Eggins and Slade, 1997; Martin, 1993) where language is seen as the result of social interactions. Similarly, motivated by political aims and drawing on the French tradition of a social view of discourse (Foucault, Bourdieu, to name a few) work has been carried out under the label of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). Supporters of CDA with a diverse set of concerns in various fields (e.g. the role of politics in education and the media, racism and sexism) claim that the socio-political structures of power/domination of any given culture can be seen as the source of explanatory categories for textual characteristics. Kress (1990), for instance, argues that 'speakers and writers operate with relative degrees of possibilities of choice always within structurings of power/domination' (p 86).

The view of language as a social phenomenon has also been recognised as essential in the study of institutional genres. Swales and Rodgers (1994) state that 'a useful understanding of the role of genres in institutional and community affairs requires more sociocognitive input than the texts themselves provide' (p 237). Similarly, other researchers maintain that a descriptive analysis of language in organisational communication involves the understanding of communicative practices within an organisation and socio-cultural aspects of text construction (Teh, 1986; Yates and Orlikowski, 1992; Bhatia, 1993).

Despite the broad acceptance of the view which regards language as a social phenomenon and the steady progress of understanding of the relationship between form, function and socio-cultural aspects of the study of discourse, the issue of how context and language relate to each other is still under discussion. One main concern among scholars seems to be with why certain meanings are articulated at particular moments (Ball, 1990, 1993; Fairclough, 1992; Kress, 1990; Luke et al., 1990; Pennycook, 1994). Attempts to answer this question have not gone beyond analysts' intuition. Contributions made to this problem are not satisfactory enough for the understanding of the relationship between language and society. There seem to be several issues to be solved before finding an answer to this question.

One of these issues is related to the question of whether communicative purposes that are common in different cultures and languages are expressed with the same conventions. That is, to what extent there are similarities and differences in the conventions that have developed to fulfil those purposes and to what extent such differences are motivated by cultural or language factors.

In this work, the main objective is to find out how language is used to construct and maintain social relations in texts used to achieve similar purposes in different social contexts and written in different languages, and to investigate the extent to which cultural and/or language factors present in the texts can motivate choices of language patterns. It is hoped that findings from this study will contribute to a better understanding of some aspects of the interdependency between language and society. To achieve the main goal of this work, an analysis of business texts written in Spanish and English which are used by companies to promote their products to other companies in Britain and Colombia (Caribbean coast) was carried out.

Research on business communication has been the focus of interest of many language studies in recent years. This interest, in most cases, emerged out of the demands for the design of English courses for business as a result of trends in market globalisation. The teaching of business through traditional general English failed to provide the target students with the necessary skills to perform successfully within the demands of a given business context. It has been acknowledged that mastering the grammatical rules and technical vocabulary has not prevented cross-cultural miscommunication in business from happening. Using the foreign language effectively requires awareness raising of how language resources are deployed in a particular context.

The impact of the internationalisation of markets in our society can be a debatable topic. Within the globalisation tendency of marketing there are different positions regarding this issue. Robertson (1970) says that many marketers believe that 'international markets are moving closer to one another' (p 112) and this process of internationalisation minimises cultural differences. In this respect, we could argue that conventions and internalised resources used in the discourse practice of promotion are likely to be very much the same.

However, others may take this view with scepticism. They would probably support Weissman's (1961) view that 'until we achieve one world, there is no such a thing as international marketing, only local marketing around the world' (p 229). Therefore, the introduction of products and services needs strategies in which such items do not conflict with established cultural patterns not only in international, but also in local marketing.

Keeping our research goal in mind, one of the questions which this work seeks to answer is to find out the extent to which the choice of strategies developed by writers to

persuade other companies to buy their products and services in the two languages can be associated with socio-economic and cultural values underlying social interaction in two different cultures. However, before we can answer this question we will need to go through a series of steps. Firstly, the patterns of interpersonal meanings constructed in the target texts in each language have to be identified. Further, we need to explore the relationship between contextual factors and language patterns, which are used to construct social relations in the texts. And finally, we will have to find out whether the pattern of interpersonal meanings relate to contextual factors, cultural values or whether they are the result of inherent characteristics of the language system.

This work is structured as follows. In the second chapter, a general account of the theoretical foundations underlying this study is presented. The main purpose of this section is to show why a socio-functional grammar approach to the study of interaction is appropriate in the cross-linguistic comparison of promotional texts. Chapter 3 deals with the methodological framework of the analysis. Chapters 4, 5, 6 and 7 provide a description of the categories for the lexico-grammatical analysis of interpersonal meanings. It also describes the results of the statistical analysis and provides plausible explanations for the overall tendencies in the choice of interpersonal meanings in the discourse of promotion across subgenres in the two languages. Chapter 8 attempts to summarise all features, which describe the orientation of the interaction as well as the type of relation developed in the texts. The last chapter outlines the general conclusion and discusses the pedagogical implications.

2 A social view of language in the study of interaction

This chapter deals with the theoretical foundations which underlie the analysis of interaction in written texts used to promote goods and services. It provides an overall view of the relevant concepts and fundamental principles concerning the study of interaction in written texts from a socio-functional grammar perspective. Since the study of grammar from a social perspective is seen as the study of language in use, the concepts of discourse, text, text types and genre are included in the discussion. As part of the cross-cultural and cross language comparative component, this review of literature also introduces the concepts of language, culture and contrastive rhetoric, in order to show how the study fits in the overall wider social context in which the activity of promoting goods and services takes place.

The theoretical background concerning concepts and principles supporting the study is organised in four main areas. The first one is related to key concepts and principles which are relevant to a study of language in different cultural settings, namely language, culture and contrastive analysis. The second area reviews the principles underlying the functional- semantic grammar perspective and its applications to the study of language in various fields. The third theoretical input is related to the principles and concepts related to the focus of the study: the study of social interaction in written texts. It discusses the concept of interaction and provides an overview of the most salient approaches, a brief review of management of interaction in written texts and an outline of the typology of interaction. Finally, the fourth main area of theory will consist of principles and concepts related to the analytical tools used in the study of interpersonal meanings. Here, an account of the various categories for the analysis of interpersonal meanings will be introduced.

2.1 Language, culture and contrastive rhetoric

For many years, the exploration of the role of language as a way of expressing culture has been of great concern among scholars from various fields. They have been interested to know whether the same rhetorical strategies, discourse types and language choices used within a given discourse community (e.g. academic or business discourse) belong to the specific cultural setting or, on the contrary, have a universal character. The concept of culture used here is understood as the set of values, objectives, norms, expressed by the individuals or groups within a given society (Herskovist, 1969).

Although the analysis focuses mainly on the lexico-grammatical patterns of interpersonal meanings, it is useful to take the concept of culture as described above into account in this study, because choices in the language can be attributed to differences not only in the way people in a given community view the world around them, but also in the way they act on others. If language is the result of social processes (Kress, 1990: 86) in which language users bring in a set of cultural values, it can be argued that in two different cultures and languages the type of social meanings developed in the interaction as well as the set of language resources used to express them may be different. Therefore, it is possible to say that in the social activity of promoting goods and services through written texts, writers of two different cultural and language backgrounds may resort to different strategies to influence their customers.

One way to identify cultural characteristics realised in texts is by contrasting the ways in which writers or speakers organise their messages across languages. This method of identifying cultural differences through language is defined as contrastive rhetoric. The study of contrastive rhetoric introduced by Kaplan (1966) has been the focus of interest in many language studies in many educational and professional settings across

languages: e.g. Clyne (1987, 1991), Soter (1988), Mauranen (1993), Williams (1994) and Valero-Garcés (1996).

Rhetoric is used here, as in Valero-Garcés (1996: 281), to refer to persuasive discourse. It can be defined as the set of strategies used by speakers or writers to convince readers of their claims. The use of those strategies is constrained not only by the generic nature, but also by contextual factors such as values underlying the social environment in which texts are produced. How those strategies change in the culture is the focus of contrastive rhetoric.

Studies on contrastive rhetoric have focussed on various topics such as cohesion, predication, sequences, relation with the reader, clause-type frequencies, lexical density and argument structure (Purves, 1988). For instance, Connor (1987) looked at how arguments are organised across cultures. In pragmatic research, Cohen and Olshtain (1981) identified that apologizing is less frequently used in some cultures than in others.

More recently, studies on contrastive rhetoric have concentrated on the analysis of metatextual functions (e.g. Mauranen, 1993; Valero-Garcés, 1996; Nash, 1992). The term 'metatext' has been interpreted in many ways and includes a wide variety of resources that can be classified according to 'their form, meaning and function' (Valero-Garcés, 1996: 283). Nash (1992: 100) states that the concept of metatext seems to be a broad one. The main function of these language resources is to relate one part of the text with the others. Since there are many ways in which one part of the text can relate to the others, it is said that it is quite difficult to limit the boundaries of the definition. Some attempts to categorise metatextual resources are based on Halliday's metafunctions of language (van de Kopple, 1985; Crismore and Farnsworth, 1990; Nash, 1992). Metatext is seen as a group of discourse markers broadly organised into two main categories:

textual and interpersonal. Examples of metatextual resources with a textual function are: connectives of various types (e.g. indicating sequencing: 'first', 'then'; or conclusion: 'to conclude', 'in short'). Among those conveying interpersonal meanings are modality markers (e.g. 'obviously', 'clearly', 'surprisingly') and hedges (e.g. 'as far as I know'). For a detailed description see Crismore and Farnsworth, (1990: 123), Nash (1992: 114) and Valero-Garcés (1996: 283).

However, in contrast to many studies carried out in this field of analysis, the present work does not focus, for instance, on the analysis of metatextual functions as described above. Though in some respects the categories used here may overlap with some of those used in the study of metatext, the present study is centred on the identification of linguistic patterns of interpersonal meaning as a way to find out how social relations are established in the texts.

Contrastive analysis within the systemic functional tradition seems to have been somehow overlooked. Chesterman (1998) maintains that

although Halliday's general theory of language has been applied in a great many ways, relatively little use appears to have been made of his general approach on contrastive analysis. (Chesterman, 1998: 64)

Since the analysis of interpersonal relations in the context of promotion involves the study of two languages, the concept of contrastive rhetoric is seen here as a useful one to explore the extent to which different tendencies in the choice of interpersonal meanings may be related not only to inherent characteristics of the two language systems, but also to differences in the way society in each of the two geographical settings (Colombia and Britain) values relationships. It is believed that a comparative component can provide a better understanding of the relationship between values underlying social relations and language choices established in the texts.

2.2 The study of language from a systemic functional perspective

The introduction of the concept of language as social semiotic within the systemic functional tradition brought in a new interpretation of language related concepts such as grammar, text and discourse as well as other fields of the study of language. For instance, language seen as the result of social needs motivated the development of the concept of genre and raised interest in the study of the relationship between language and culture and/or society. This view of language found its basis in the contribution of other schools of thought to the study of human interaction such as anthropological studies, sociology and communication studies. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that within systemic functional linguistics the various issues related to the study of language as social phenomenon are based on insights from those fields of thought.

The study of social interaction in the present study is also situated in the systemic functional tradition. That is, the approach is based on a socio-functional semantic view of grammar. One of the fundamental principles of this approach is that it involves the analysis of language in use. As part of the study of language in professional settings, it presupposes the use of key concepts such as text, genre and discourse. It is therefore important to see how these concepts are interpreted within a functional-semantic grammar approach. The concept of text, text types, genre, discourse and context are central to this study, since it deals with language used in the particular social activity of promoting goods and services.

In a functional semantic view of language, the concept of grammar is one which interweaves all the other concepts, because meaning and form cannot be separated and meaning depends upon its context of use (Halliday, 1994). However, for methodological

reasons, the discussion starts with notions of text, genre, text types and discourse, while grammar and context are discussed separately.

2.2.1 The notion of text, text types, genre and discourse in the present study

In reviewing the literature on these concepts the terms *text*, *discourse*, *genre* and *text types* are often inconsistently defined or used interchangeably. In some cases, the differences are so subtle that they sometimes appear to be almost indistinguishable. Indeed, the task of determining similarities and differences among various ways of defining the terms provided in the literature would require a study in itself. It is for this reason that only a brief account of the broadest definitions, focussing on aspects which are relevant to the present work, is provided here.

In general, it seems that the definition of text largely depends on whether it is regarded as a process or a product, placed within the social or linguistic realm or even classified according to the medium (oral/written). As a product, text is viewed as a 'category which derives from the linguistic domain' (Kress, 1985: 27); and in Kress (1990: 86), text as a product is seen as 'the result of the actions of socially situated speakers and writers'. Like Kress, Fairclough (1995) seems to favour the linguistic notion in his survey of the word text: 'text is regarded as one dimension of discourse: the written or spoken product of the process of text production' (p 4).

Within the systemic tradition, text involves both the notion of product and process. Halliday and Hasan (1985) view text as 'an instance of the process and product in a particular context of situation' (p 11). The product allows us to see how a text as a process operates, but it is only possible to get access to the text as a process by looking at the way it is constructed from the system. In the present study, text is seen as the

product from which we can learn how the process of developing social relations is constructed through the grammar of interpersonal meanings.

Although the concept of text can have more than one interpretation, it is relatively more stable and easy to grasp than that of text types and genre. Fairclough (1995: 14) argues that a text type is 'situationally and historically quite particular, a genre is more abstract, though particular text types may be more or less generically complex, closer to or more distant from genres'. However, the emphasis on 'particular' and 'abstract' used by Fairclough to differentiate text types from genre does not provide a clear demarcation of boundaries between the two concepts. The comparison also suggests that to a certain point one can overlap the other. Although the distinction lies mainly in the levels of abstraction, the connection between higher and lower levels is not well defined. The particular type of social activity at a more abstract level where the genre operates is not related to the various levels of particularity in which one can specify text types at a lower level. For instance, there is no explanation as to how text types specified as 'news interviews, T.V. interviews, Channel 4 interviews and so forth' (p 14) relate to the more abstract social activity under the heading of 'interview'.

For the purpose of the present study, the concept of genre used here draws on Martin's (1997: 13) view of genres as 'goal-oriented social processes'. Thus, genre is here seen as the overall term, which covers the very widely recognised social activity of promoting goods and services. This involves the pragmatic goal of persuading people to buy products and services. However, there are various ways in which this more or less abstract activity and goal can be realised in terms of the lexico-grammatical choices used to express (among other things) interpersonal meanings. These ways have been grouped

here as *sales letters*, *company literature* and *catalogues*, which in this work are seen as text types (or subgenres) used to achieve the pragmatic goal of persuading.

The last concept to review in this section is related to discourse analysis. Among all the above terms, discourse seems to be the most difficult one to define. In the literature, several different approaches to discourse analysis have been developed in the last decades. Thus, it is not surprising that a generally accepted definition of the term itself does not exist. Very often, discourse is used interchangeably with texts or language, thus making the comparison of schools even more complicated.

Since the present study is concerned with how language is used to construct social relations, the main purpose is to look at developments in linguistics relevant to the study of discourse from a social point of view. This involves the description of approaches whose main objective has been the understanding of socio-cultural aspects of text construction and/or the structure and function of language used to communicate meanings. An overview of some of the approaches in applied linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) within the Anglo-Saxon tradition is introduced below.

In general, there seem to be basically two ways of regarding discourse. Pennycook (1994: 115) makes the following distinction between the two positions. One group of linguists, who view language as a formal system, uses discourse to explain how cultural factors affect language use. Conversely, the other group regards discourse as the condition which explains why certain language choices are made at particular moments. This group claims that such condition operates at a higher level of language and is the result of socio-cultural relationships.

The first view of discourse is seen as ‘the predominant one in applied linguistics’ (p 116). In this group discourse is regarded as a product and as a process. As a product, it is seen as a ‘continuous stretch of (specifically spoken) language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit, such as a sermon, argument, joke or narrative’ (Crystal, 1992: 25). As a process, it is defined as the interaction between reader and speaker, the process of producing and interpreting both speech and writing as well as the situational context of language use (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975).

At a more abstract level, discourse is regarded as socially constitutive. Drawing on Foucault’s (1972) view of the different ways of structuring areas of knowledge and social practice, we can find various definitions in the literature of the term. For example, it is defined as ‘language use as a form of social practice’ (Fairclough, 1995: 135); or as ‘a category that belongs to and derives from a social domain’ (Kress, 1985: 27), i.e. a mode of talking which is characteristic of a particular group within the society (e.g. legal discourse, racist discourse, medical discourse, business discourse). Discourse does not just represent social entities and relations, it constructs or constitutes them. It constitutes key entities (such as mental illness, citizenship, literacy) in different ways and positions people in different ways as social subjects, e.g. patients and doctors (Fairclough, 1992).

The above views of discourse are reflected in the description of the approaches to discourse analysis introduced below.

Approaches to the study of discourse have been classified according to various criteria ranging from different disciplinary perspectives (e.g. linguistics, sociology and anthropology) to a particular orientation within a discipline (e.g. theoretical orientation, and application to teaching within linguistics) (see Ball, 1990; Brown and Yule, 1983; Bhatia, 1993; Eggins, 1997; Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Macdonnell, 1986; Luke et al.

1990). The list below provides a summary of approaches to discourse analysis outlined in the literature.

(a) Grammatical rhetorical analysis

The main objective of study is the relationship between grammatical choice and rhetorical function in written English. In this approach to discourse analysis, choices of tense and articles are thought to depend on syntactic and semantic considerations as well as rhetorical judgements, including the knowledge of the subject matter and its conventions (Selinker et al., 1973; Trimble, 1985).

(b) Description of varieties of language use

This approach rests on the postulate that language varies as its function varies (Halliday et al., 1964). Following Halliday and Hasan's (1985) approach to the study of language, the analysis of discourse is based on the three situational and contextual dimensions of field, mode and tenor to identify 'registral' characteristics.

(c) Interactional analysis

This approach lies in the notion of interpretation of discourse by the reader or listener. That is, it is interactive in nature, being created as a result of the reader's interpretation of the text. It is assumed that speakers/writers adjust their speaking/writing to the listener/reader they are supposed to be talking/writing for (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Winter, 1977; Hoey, 1979; Widdowson, 1979).

(d) Genre analysis

The main objective in this approach is to provide socio-cultural institutional and organisational explanations of the nature of a particular discourse genre (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990; Swales and Rodgers, 1994). Most work done in this area is based on Swales' concept of genre:

A recognisable communicative event characterised by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. (Swales, 1990: 46)

(e) Critical discourse analysis

This approach aims not only at providing socio-cultural explanatory categories of texts, but also a critical dimension in its theoretical and descriptive accounts of texts (Kress, 1990; Fairclough, 1992, 1995; van Dijk, 1988; Fowler et al., 1979). Motivated by political aims, it focuses on the identification of socio-political structures of power/domination of any given culture as the source for explanatory categories for contextual characteristics. Discourse is seen as the condition by which society exists.

The above approaches have been subject to various criticisms. The following points highlight some of those criticisms made by scholars (Pennycook, 1994; Bhatia, 1993; Fairclough, 1992) to approaches to discourse analysis in applied linguistics (a-d, above) and CDA (e, above).

The applied linguistic approaches have been criticised for restricting their analysis to the relationship between form and function, where meanings arise from the relationship between lexico-grammatical forms and their context. The context is reduced to the context of utterance: speakers' intentions, background knowledge and text structure.

There is no exploration of the 'wider context of contexts', and why or how people come to say things. The language-using subject is seen as an autonomous actor who establishes meaning by intention and inference. Pragmatics as an ideology in itself strongly influences this view.

The CDA approach has been criticised for the fact that all is determined by socio-economic relations: the reduction of all power relations to class relations, and that the emphasis is put on socio-economic inequalities, while other sites of inequalities (e.g. gender) are neglected. The assumption that 'anything that is said or written about the world is articulated from a particular ideological position' (Fowler, 1991: 10) is questionable, since space for human agency, interpretation or change is not allowed. It is also argued that in this group discourse is still seen as a linguistic phenomenon, although 'socially embedded'.

The above criticisms suggest that attempts to move the study of discourse from a descriptive analysis of language use to socio-cultural explanations and 'critical dimension' of textual characteristics have not yet provided a satisfactory answer to why people choose to say certain things. Despite the steady progress in the understanding of the relationship between form, function and socio-cultural aspects of the study of discourse, there are still some unsolved questions. Critical discourse analysts, for instance, still face three basic questions: if language reflects an ideology, how was that ideology brought into existence? If discourse is the condition, which enables society, how can that condition be defined, described and explained? And what creates such a condition? What is the role of language in defining such a condition?

Attempts to answer those questions have not gone beyond the analyst's intuition. Within CDA, typically, the discussion of linguistic findings is backed by issues on socio-

cultural values related to the context in which the texts are used. Those social-cultural values are taken to explain particular choices of language. Nevertheless, a model to identify the relationship between language and society is under discussion. Fairclough (1992) maintains that the analysis of the wider social context in which texts are produced is still in its infant stage. Therefore, analysts can choose between alternatives for analysing discourse as long as they can validate them.

Since the present study is concerned with the study of language use, the approach to the analysis of interaction should be based on a social view of language. As Halliday (1994:xxii) says, 'discourse analysis has to be founded on a study of the system of the language'. However, in order to carry out this task we have to employ a well-defined linguistic method which allows us to explore not only how the texts construe the context, but also how the context creates the texts.

It seems that the systemic functional tradition provides a very stable method for the analysis of social interaction. The advantage of this approach is that the discourse features can be explained from the dimensions of the context. Through register analysis, it allows us to relate how the choice of interpersonal meanings draws upon some contextual factors such as the generic purpose and audience as well as the socio-cultural values in which the text unfolds.

In the next section, I shall discuss the fundamental principles of the systemic functional grammar which allow us to explore interpersonal meanings in the context of promotion.

2.2.2 The systemic functional-semantic grammar perspective in the study of interaction

As said earlier, the study of interaction in written promotional texts is based on a grammatical approach. However, the concept of grammar here differs from that of the traditional formal view, a view which sees language as a mere list of structures. The approach to grammar that will be taken here in the analysis of promotional texts is one which views language as social semiotic (Halliday and Hasan, 1985). The discussion on the basic principles of the systemic approach draws on accounts of this topic provided in Halliday (1994), Eggins (1994), Thompson (1996) and Eggins and Slade (1997).

2.2.2.1 The three kinds of meaning

The systemic functional model is seen as a functional-semantic theory of language. It is functional because it is concerned with how language is used in particular contexts. The interpretation of the system is based on the two general purposes we want to achieve in using language: to express our views of the world and to interact with others. However, these two main kinds of meanings are combined with a third one in the functional approach to the study of grammar.

The three kinds of meanings or functional components also called metafunctions are referred to as *ideational*, *interpersonal* and *textual*. The three meanings are defined in the literature (Halliday, 1994; Thompson, 1996; Eggins and Slade, 1997) as follows. Ideational meaning is seen as the meanings relating to our experiences about the world, 'including the worlds in our own minds' (Thompson, 1996: 28). It is the 'representation of reality (e.g. topics, subject matter)' (Eggins and Slade, 1997). Interpersonal meaning is defined as the meanings relating to social relationships: that is, the language we use 'to interact with other people: to establish and maintain relations with them, to influence

their behaviour, to express our own viewpoints' (Thompson, 1996: 28). The third metafunction, the textual meaning, is seen as the meanings relating to the organisation of the message: that is, the language we use to interconnect messages in such a way that they sound coherent with other messages around and with the context in which they are being used.

Within the systemic approach, each of the above meanings has its own way of relating to the context. This relationship is explained below.

2.2.2.2 The role of the context in the construction of meaning

As stated above, the conceptual framework is also functional-semantic because it is designed to identify how the language is used in particular contexts. The choice of a particular grammatical resource is also determined by its context of use. For instance, the function of demanding goods and services can be expressed with various grammatical choices. Between friends, it is possible to use just imperative forms to demand water: 'bring me a glass of water'. In another context, e.g. in a restaurant, we may address the waiter: 'Could you please bring me a glass of water?' Turning the imperative into a modulated command implies a certain degree of formality.

In systemic functional linguistics context is in text and the concern of systemic linguists is with the question of 'how context gets into text' (Eggins 1994: 47). According to Halliday, text and context should be treated as a semiotic phenomenon, as modes of meaning. Based on Firthian tradition, systemic functional linguists maintain that we can see how people exchange meanings and interact with each other in particular types of contexts in a dialectical predictability: 'text creates a context as much as context creates text' and therefore 'meanings arise from the friction of the two' (Eggins 1994: 47).

This view implies that the relationship between language and context is reciprocal rather than one-way: a particular context will encourage, or even determine, the use of particular wordings; but equally, the use of particular wordings will reflect the speaker/writer's view of what the context is, and will contribute to constructing a particular context. A clear example of this is the choice of form of address: if the writer chooses 'Dear (first name)', he is constructing a personalised context which is closer than 'Dear Mr (surname)'. Both cases might be possible in a particular letter, and the writer's choice indicates what s/he thinks the relationship is or should be.

2.2.2.3 Context and register

The concept of context is relatively well defined in the literature. It is frequently used in the Hallidayan sense: 'the total environment in which a text unfolds', 'beyond what is said or written' (Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 5). In systemic functional linguistics the concept is differentiated into context of situation and context of culture (Eggins, 1994). Context of situation is the specific context where the text unfolds and is interpreted. It involves the features of tenor, field and mode. By context of culture is meant the 'cultural background in which the text is interpreted and produced in the ways the system intends' (p 47). Eggins (1994) notes that it is more general or abstract than the context of situation. She points out that

Context of situation and context of culture constitute the non-verbal environment of a text. C of S is encapsulated in the text neither in a kind of piecemeal fashion, or in a mechanical way, but through a systematic relationship: the social environment on one side and the functional organisation of language on the other (Eggins, 1994: 49).

Despite the apparent clarity of the above distinction between CS and CC, the relationship between the two is not well established. There is a linguistic method to study CS through the analysis of register (Halliday, 1985), whereas CC is typically treated as

something working at a more abstract level than CS. However, scholars do not explain how this abstract level is connected to the more concrete one (CS). Therefore, the relation between the wider social environment at a more abstract level, on one side, and the functional organisation of language, on the other, is rather unclear. In this way, this case is similar to the relationship between genre and text types explained by Fairclough (1995) and discussed before.

The way in which context is systematically related to text is through register analysis. As stated before, register analysis is a linguistic method used to study the context of situation. The concept of register is based on Halliday's (1973; 1994) view that the relationship between language and its semiotic environment is natural. It is natural because 'language has evolved to satisfy human needs' (Halliday, 1994: xiii). Thus, the three meanings, namely ideational, interpersonal and textual represented in language as described above, are associated with the basic purposes for which we use language to communicate with others. As Eggins and Slade (1997: 50) explain, our social life requires not only the negotiation of our ideational experiences of the world, but also the place we occupy within that world. That is, we need to express the way we relate to each other in terms of identity or sense of belonging to a particular group as well as the feelings we develop during our daily interaction with the outside world. However, in order to express those experiences and emotions we need to negotiate ways of communicating them with others.

A way to relate the above three meanings or metafunctions of language with its context of use or context of situation is proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1985). In their view, each context of situation relates to those meanings in three ways: 'field' encodes our ideational experiences; 'tenor', our roles and relationship in the society; and 'mode',

ways of channelling our views and relationships with others. The concept of register analysis introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1985) is illustrated in Table 2.1.

Situation	Realised by	Text
Feature of the context	⇒	Functional component of semantic system
Field of discourse (what is going on)	⇒	Experiential meaning (transitivity, naming)
----- Tenor of discourse (role assigned to language)	⇒	----- Interpersonal meaning (mood, modality, person)
----- Mode of discourse (role assigned to language)	⇒	----- Textual meaning (theme, information, cohesive relations)

Table 2.1: The concept of register analysis (after Halliday and Hasan, 1985: 26)

Since the present study is concerned with the type of social relations developed through language in the context of promotion, the analysis focuses on the tenor variable of the register analysis. The tenor variable has increasingly become the topic of research among systemic functional linguists in recent years (e.g. Martin, 1997, 2000; Eggins and Slade, 1997) through various aspects of the grammar of interpersonal meanings. Based on Halliday's (1978) concept of tenor as the structure of socially meaningful relationships within a particular context of situation, those linguists have sub-classified role relations into four categories: 'status relations', 'affective involvement', 'contact' and 'orientation to affiliation'.

Each of the above categories of role relations is outlined in Eggins and Slade (1997: 52). Drawing on Poynton (1985) they provide a list of sources of 'unequal status' which include 'force', 'authority', 'expertise' and 'status symbol' (wealth, education, location of residence, etc.). 'Affective involvement' is associated with ways in which interactants

show close or distant concern with each other. According to these authors, a relationship can be built upon various degrees of emotional investment. It ranges from high proportion of affective input (e.g. lovers, close friends and family) to nil (e.g. interactants who meet for the first time). 'Contact' refers to the level of familiarity or frequency with which interactants meet each other. Finally, 'affiliation' is related to our sense of belonging with a particular social group, i.e. the kind of values and beliefs the interactants share within a group.

There are various ways in which the above types of social identities are enacted. Some of those ways can be found in the lexico-grammar of interpersonal meanings. For example, role relations can be enacted in texts through the systems of modality, evaluation, speech functions and ways used by interactants to name each other as demonstrated by Eggins and Slade (1997) in the study of casual conversation. The lexico-grammatical resources used to identify interpersonal meanings in this work are discussed in detail in section 2.4.

Focussing on the context as register and, in particular, on the analysis of the tenor through the lexico-grammar of interpersonal meanings enables us to identify the type of role relations developed in the target texts and the implications that those roles can have for the type of interaction favoured during the relation. In other words, it will help us to see whether writers favour a socially-oriented interaction and the extent to which linguistic resources are used to construe a more distant or closer relation. The analysis of the register is also relevant to this work because it allows us to relate contextual factors such as generic purpose and the characteristic of the audience to the choices of interpersonal meanings in the context of promotion. For instance, through the analysis of the tenor we can see how 'status' as originated in the 'expertise' of the interactants in the

target texts relates to the choice of involvement favoured in the interaction. (Chapter 3 provides a detailed discussion on the contextualisation of texts used in this study.)

2.2.2.4 Applications and usefulness

Systemic functional grammar has been largely applied in various fields to language studies. It has found its wide application not only in the traditional field of text linguistics but also in CDA (Fairclough, 1992, 1995; Kress 1990), educational research and computational linguistics. Its usefulness lies in the fact that it offers a 'multi-semantic and multi-analytical perspective on language' (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 48). It is because of this characteristic that scholars within the tradition of CDA find the systemic functional model a fruitful tool to identify the interconnection between language, relations and social structures (Fairclough, 1992, 1995). The fact the three components of meaning can be simultaneously found in all linguistic units (word, phrase, clause, sentence and phrase) is thought to be one of the most powerful aspects of this approach (Eggins and Slade, 1997). It suggests that a text is a simultaneous exchange of the three meanings. Thompson (1996) refers to the advantage of using a systemic approach by saying that:

The three categories [of meanings] ... are used as the basis for exploring how meanings are created and understood, because they allow the matching of particular types of functions/meanings with particular types of wordings to an extent that other categorisations generally do not. (Thompson, 1996: 28)

Above all, because it is designed to investigate how language is used in a particular context, it constitutes an important analytical linguistic tool to explore social meanings in a systematic way. This is particularly the case of the study of interaction, which has drawn on the principles of this approach, as in e.g. the study of pragmatic interaction (Ventola, 1987, 1995), the management of written interaction in advertising (Thompson

and Thetela, 1995) and the analysis of casual conversation (Eggins and Slade, 1997). In the study of casual conversation, Eggins and Slade (1997) base their analysis on this approach to describe the link between patterns of interpersonal meanings and the context. These authors found a functional approach useful because:

It offers an integrated, comprehensive and systemic model of language which enables conversational patterns to be described and quantified at different levels and in different degrees of detail.

It theorises the links between language and social life so that conversation can be approached as a way of doing life. More specifically, casual conversation can be analysed as involving different linguistic patterns which both enact and construct dimensions of social identity and interpersonal relations. (Eggins and Slade 1997: 47)

The fact that the approach offers a multi-semantic and multi-analytical perspective on language, as stated earlier, does not mean that one has to study all the three types of meaning at a time. One can focus on any particular type of meaning, namely the ideational, interpersonal or textual. Eggins and Slade (1997) suggest that researchers can focus on those aspects which are most relevant to specific data and their research interests. In their analysis of social conversation, for instance, they focussed on the analysis of interpersonal meanings. They argue that the reason for focussing on this particular meaning is that 'the primary task of casual conversation is the negotiation of social identity and social relations' (p 49).

Drawing on the above theoretical underpinning, we can summarise in the following items the main advantages recognised among linguists for the application of a functional approach to the study of language in use. These points have implications for the analysis of written interaction in the context of promoting goods and services. First of all, because language is seen as a network of interconnecting systems, this offers us a comprehensive and integrated set of analytical tools to identify how meanings are created and understood as writers of promotional texts try to fulfil their pragmatic goal

of selling their products and services. Secondly, it allows us to quantify discourse patterns at different levels and different degrees of detail which enable us to identify the tendency in the choice of interpersonal relationships in two cultural settings and two languages. Thirdly, since the concern of functional linguistics is to see how context gets into text, it allows us to explore the extent to which tendencies in the choice of interpersonal meanings is the result of differences in the language systems or, on the contrary, it is rather due to contextual constraints inherent in the activity of promoting goods and services or in the culture.

2.3 The study of interaction

The concept, approaches and typologies of interaction have evolved parallel to the study of language in relation to its role in society and the various ways in which human relations have been described. Like many other aspects or concepts related to the study of language (e.g. discourse analysis), research in this field has borrowed insights from many other fields of thoughts such as philosophy, anthropology, sociology and psychology.

Any social activity involves human interaction. Every process of human interaction consists of three main factors: firstly, human beings who think, act and react as subjects in the interaction; secondly, meanings, values and norms as motivators of individual interaction and exchange during the on-going process; and thirdly, external actions and material phenomena through which meanings, values and norms are objectivised and socialised (Sorokim, 1956: 38). Therefore, the concept of interaction should be one which incorporates an interpretation of human behaviour within a particular social environment.

2.3.1 Definition

Broadly speaking, the term interaction is typically associated with the main purpose of communication: to establish and maintain social links with others (Thompson, 1996: 38). However, it is argued that a 'straightforward inclusive definition of interaction is not possible' (Al-Sharief, 1988: 7), if we take into account the effects which contribute to the interactional nature of texts (see discussion below).

As said before, the term interaction is usually associated with oral discourse (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Diez, 1986). However, recent studies have shifted towards the exploration of interaction in written discourse. Viewing interaction as an 'exchange of meaning' through the study of role relationships (Halliday, 1985, 1994) or as a 'transfusion of shared knowledge' (Nystrand, 1986: 40), scholars have set out to explore the term beyond the oral mode. Nystrand (1986) says that 'writers and readers interact every time readers understand a written text. Conversely, the failure to comprehend means an absence of interaction' (p 40). Nystrand's view of interaction is seen as 'information-oriented' since the emphasis is placed on the reader's needs as influencing the writer's behaviour (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 106). In contrast, Halliday's view of interaction is seen as 'function-oriented' and it is said to focus on the writer attempting to influence the reader's reactions and behaviour (p 106).

For the purpose of the present study, the term interaction is rather seen as the ways in which writers try to influence the reader's behaviour to achieve their pragmatic purpose of selling goods and services. In other words, Halliday's definition of interaction allows us to explore the kind of interpersonal meanings writers of promotional texts in each language try to deploy in the interaction.

2.3.2 Approaches

It has been argued that most studies on written interaction have been based upon approaches to the study of oral texts, which in most cases may be applicable to a 'limited set of texts, like personal letters and popular writings' (Al-Sharief, 1998: 4), but not for most types of writing (Thompson, 1995; Al-Sharief, 1998). However, because social-interactive nature is also associated with written texts (written texts not only serve transactional purposes, i.e. transmission of information as described below, but also interactional purposes, i.e. establishing and maintaining the relationship of the interactants) insights from the analysis of oral texts can also be used to explore ways in which human relationships are constructed in written texts. After all, interaction is inherently part of any social activity, thus it is possible to find in both types of mode similar ways to convey socio-interactive purposes. Taking the view that interaction in written texts is basically the negotiation of interactants' purposes and expectations (Nystrand, 1989) and also that the difference between interaction in the two modes can be understood in terms of overtness (Widdowson, 1984), it is clear that analytical tools used in the analysis of oral interaction may also be useful to explore the various ways writers try to negotiate interpersonal meanings and relate to others in written texts.

As in the case of discourse analysis, the study of interaction has been approached from different perspectives. It has largely drawn upon fundamental principles of various disciplines as mentioned above. Table 2.2 adapted from Eggins and Slade (1997: 24) provides a typology of approaches upon which scholars have based their analysis. Although insights from other disciplines have primarily been applied to the study of oral texts (e.g. the analysis of casual conversation, narratives), most of the work developed in the study of written interaction, i.e. typology, approaches and analytical tools, also come

from those perspectives, some of which constitute the framework of the analysis in the present work.

Perspective	School tradition
Sociological	Ethnomethodology and Conversation Analysis
Sociolinguistic	Ethnography of Speaking Interactional Sociolinguistics Variation Theory
Logico-philosophic	Speech Act Theory Pragmatics
Structural-functional	Birmingham School Systemic Functional Linguistics
Social-semiotic	Systemic Functional Linguistics ¹ Critical Discourse Analysis Critical Linguistics

Table 2.2: Typology of approaches to the analysis of interaction (after Eggins and Slade, 1997: 24)

Within the study of oral interaction, insights from conversational analysis as a branch of ethnomethodology (e.g. Atkinson and Heritage, 1984), provided scholars with the necessary tools to see how people carried out everyday interaction in naturally occurring encounters (e.g. Eggins and Slade, 1997). However, conversational analysis has also been used as a tool to supplement studies of interaction in written educational discourse.

Various contributions from the ethnography of communication (Hymes, 1972a, 1972b) and from interactional socio-linguistics (Goffman, 1981; Gumperz, 1982a, 1982b) have also illuminated the study of interaction. Hymes's (1972a, 1972b) grid for the analysis of speaking has inspired researchers to incorporate contextual dimensions in their studies.

Variables such as 'temporal and physical circumstances', 'speaker/hearer', 'purpose',

¹ Halliday's development of the functional systemic perspective has moved towards the semiotic orientation.

'channel', etc., for the analysis of contextual features and 'message form and content' and 'genre', for the textual ones have been the grounds of studies in which language choices are explained in terms of features of the context. In particular, this influence can be seen within the systemic functional tradition in the concept of register analysis developed by Halliday and Hasan (1985), such as e.g. the study of social identity carried out by Martin (2000) and Eggins and Slade (1997). Eggins and Slade (1997: 52) demonstrated how the four dimensions of social identity ('status', 'affective involvement', 'contact' and 'orientation to affiliation') involved in the analysis of the tenor are enacted through four main types of linguistic patterns (grammatical, semantic, discourse and generic patterns).

Within the same tradition, variation theory (Labov and Waletzky, 1972) centred the analysis of narrative texts on the staged stretches of the spoken discourse. This insight has led to further developments on story-telling genres (e.g. joke telling, gossip: see Eggins and Slade, 1997: 265). To a certain extent, the analysis of genre in written texts also owed its inspiration to this approach. The view of genre as a staged activity has been applied in the study of academic written texts, e.g. by the Australian educational linguists (Martin, 1997).

Within the logical philosophical perspective, insights from speech acts and pragmatics developed by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) were borrowed to develop an approach concerned with the interpretation of utterances according to the speaker's intention to achieve a purpose. The concept of performing certain speech acts by the use of non-congruent structural choices, i.e. indirect speech acts, in the study of interpersonal meanings comes from this tradition. Research on reference is also rooted in speech act theory through the assumption that reference is essentially a system of use (Searle, 1969:

28). This particular feature allows us to use reference as an ‘interactional resource’ to identify aspects of the contexts in which it is used (Al-Sharief, 1998: 19). Similarly, from pragmatic, interpersonal rhetoric, the co-operative principle and the politeness principle have guided research work on both oral and written interaction. For example, Grice’s use of maxims principle (Grice, 1975) has been used as a heuristic technique to describe casual conversation (Eggins and Slade, 1997). Eggins and Slade affirm that the interpretation of casual conversation in terms of maxims such as:

“in casual conversations in specific contexts interactants try to be provocative” and “in other casual conversations they try to be consensual”, ... could then provide a useful means of characterizing different varieties of conversation. (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 42, emphasis in original)

Such socio-pragmatic insights (e.g. Brown and Levinson, 1987) have been used in studies on politeness in scientific written texts (e.g. Myers, 1989).

From structural functional approaches based on the semantic theory of Firth (Palmer, 1968), the analysis of interaction has focussed on offering ‘functional interpretations of discourse structure as the expression of dimensions of the social and cultural context’ (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 43). Two main approaches derive from this perspective. The first one focuses on discourse structure. It is concerned with conversational structure analysis. This functional approach to conversation provided the notion of ‘turn-taking’ (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Coulthard and Brazil, 1979; Taylor and Cameron, 1987). Although the analysis of turn taking is only applied to spoken discourse, the structural view has also influenced the analysis of discourse organisation in written texts: e.g. Hoey’s (1988, 1994) problem solution pattern and Nystrand’s (1989) informational-oriented notion of interaction. The second approach within this tradition is related to Halliday’s development of the systemic perspective which has led to the semiotic orientation in his work (Halliday, 1978). The systemic approach has been applied to the

analysis of pragmatic interaction (Ventola, 1987, 1995), and Eggins and Slade (1997) analysed interpersonal meanings in casual conversation by exploring the register variable of tenor.

Finally, another influence on the notion of interaction, as it is envisaged in this thesis, comes from critical discourse analysts (e.g. Kress, 1985, 1990; Fowler, 1987, 1991; Fairclough, 1992, 1995). However, their work points to the relationship between interaction and social structure: the structure of power relations. Within CDA, language is the result of ideological position (Kress, 1990: 86). Fairclough (1992, 1995) incorporates the ideology concept as underlying the knowledge of the participants about norms, rights and obligations which serve the interests of a social group in a particular situation. Within the struggle of power domination which characterises the view of discourse in this approach, whatever is said or is written is ideologically invested.

The notion of power relations has been applied to studies on oral and written interaction, in particular through the analysis of terms of address. In the study of casual conversation, for instance, Eggins and Slade (1997: 147) identify through the analysis of naming how humour is a resource to exercise power. In written texts, interactant positioning has been the focus of research. In the analysis of discourse in advertising, Hodge and Kress (1988: 9) identify the ways readers are expected to respond in their role of consumers. The analysis of pronominal choice has also been used to identify the speaker's positioning with regard to the group they represent (Gardin, 1976; Lavandera, 1985; De Fina, 1995). However, in some of these studies, pronominal choices reflect solidarity and not a power relationship (De Fina, 1995; Zupnik, 1994). (See also discussion in section 2.4.2)

The approach followed in the analysis of written interaction in promotional texts also incorporates insights from various perspectives. Through the choice of a socio-functional approach, this study deals with how language is used in context, a concern derived from social disciplines as described above. In particular, the study of tenor in the analysis of register allows the exploration of the various social roles assigned to interactants in the activity of promoting goods and services.

2.3.3 The management of interaction in written texts

It is generally agreed that written interaction serves both transactional (information-oriented) and interactional (interactant-relationship) purposes. Therefore, written interaction has been broadly distinguished as 'interactive and interactional' (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 105; Thompson 2001a: 59). The primary orientation of the interactive type is with 'the management of the flow of information' and the main purpose is 'to guide the reader through the content of the text' (Thompson 2001a: 59). Writers attempt to guide the reader through signalling (Hoey, 1988, 1994; Tadros, 1994; Francis, 1994). The second type, the interactional one, focuses on 'the writer attempting to influence the reader's reactions and behaviour' (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 104). The aim is here to establish role relations in the interaction more or less overtly through the choice of interpersonal meanings realised in the lexico-grammatical items related to modality, speech functions, reference and evaluation (Halliday, 1994; Martin, 1997, 2000; Eggins and Slade, 1997).

The above concepts have been expanded in the framework of analysis for the study of written interaction proposed by Al-Sharief (1998). In his work, the interactional nature of written texts is typically associated with three interactional effects: that is,

'orientation', 'negotiation' and 'involvement' (p 5). Drawing on various sources, he describes the three categories of effects as follows. The orientation effect is related to the addressee's knowledge and is thus information-oriented. Because of this orientation, writers organise their message in a way that 'the addressee's expectations are met and his/her questions are answered' (p 6). The negotiation effect developed out of the notion that interaction involves having a purpose for saying things to others. This effect is related to the basic purpose of communication: to exchange information or to exchange goods and services. In this case, the exchange is verbal (information) or non-verbal (actions). Finally, the involvement effect is related to how interactants develop a close or distant relationship.

These three effects are the foundation of the three types of interaction: 'informational, lexico-grammatical and pragmatic' (p 8) respectively. Each type has its own set of language resources through which writers can realize the various interactional effects discussed above.

The information-oriented type, as seen in Thompson and Thetela (1995) and Thompson (2001a), is concerned with both 'the structuring and the signalling of such informational structures and of the text as a whole' (Al-Sharief, 1998: 8). Signalling is seen as the strategy through which writers convert their knowledge so that the needs of the readers are satisfied (p 9). Signalling can be realised through deictic forms, e.g. 'this', 'that', 'you' and 'me' (p 10). It can also draw on the resources of prediction (Tadros, 1994) and labelling (Francis, 1994). The role of these linguistic resources is to provide advanced or retrospective orientation through which the writer tells the reader what should be expected and how the current bit of information is to be interpreted (Francis, 1994: 85). The concern with answering the reader's informational questions can also be conveyed

through the choice of lexical items which indicate a discourse pattern. For example, in the problem solution pattern (Hoey, 1988, 1994) words such as 'problem' and 'question' are used by writers to guide their readers to identify the relations between stretches of information in the text.

The second type of interaction, which is associated with the negotiation effect in Al-Sharief (1998), is expressed in the lexico-grammatical choices in the clause. It corresponds to the interactional type discussed in Thompson and Thetela (1995) and Thompson (2001a). Negotiation can be achieved through various aspects of the lexico-grammatical system of interpersonal meanings. One of these is related to the role-relationship expressed in the grammar of the clause associated with statements, questions, offers and commands (Halliday, 1994; Thompson, 1996). Negotiation can also be conveyed through lexico-grammatical choices associated with modality and evaluation (Halliday, 1994; Thompson and Thetela, 1995; Thompson, 2001a; Martin, 1997, 2000).

Finally, the third type of interaction proposed in Al-Sharief (1998) concerned with interactant involvement is seen as pragmatic interaction. Pragmatic interaction tells us how interactants relate to each other and the degree of involvement with which they are projected in the relation. It is realised through referential forms used to name interactants in the relation (terms of address, pronouns) and politeness (see discussion on pronominal choice below).

Since the present study is concerned with ways in which writers attempt to persuade their readers to buy their products/services, the study of lexico-grammatical and pragmatic interaction seems to be more appropriate in the present work than the information-oriented one. The two functions or interactional-oriented types of

interaction (lexico-grammatical and pragmatic) described above allow us to explore the type of interpersonal meanings used by writers to achieve their persuasive goals in the context of promotion.

2.4 Aspects of the grammar of interpersonal meanings examined in this study

Within systemic functional linguistics, the study of interpersonal relationships as the negotiation of meanings has been mainly based on structural considerations. The study of negotiation of meanings in the exchange of goods and services has been dealt with under mood and modality. More recently, however, research in this area has included the analysis of lexical items related to feelings (Martin, 1997, 2000). The analytical tools used here are based on a model which incorporates both the grammar and lexical items. It is then the study of interpersonal meanings realized through lexico-grammatical forms.

The function-oriented model of interaction used here derives from the lexico-grammatical analysis of the interpersonal meaning/function of the clause. The interpersonal function of the language is usually referred to in the literature as being

concerned with the social, expressive and cognitive functions of language, with expressing the speaker's [or *writer's*] angle: his attitudes and judgments, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation, and his motive in saying anything at all. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 26, my emphasis).

The choice of a function-oriented approach is therefore favoured here, because it allows for the study of socio-cultural values that may influence the choice of patterns of interaction realised in texts used in companies in two different cultures to promote their products or/and services to other companies.

The framework for the analysis of interaction, in terms of ways in which the writer attempts to influence the reader's behaviour in promotional texts, is based on the model

provided by Thompson and Thetela (1995) for the study of the interpersonal management in advertising. It derives from their experience in analysing several approaches to a wide range of texts of different genres and was applied to the study of interpersonal management in advertising texts. This framework involves the analysis of the lexico-grammatical choices of the personal and interactional aspects of the interpersonal meanings under the headings of modality, evaluation, enacted roles and projected roles (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 107).

Since the above model was applied to the analysis of interaction between the writer and the reader in some advertisement texts, it seems plausible that the categories borrowed from the above model can be applied to other types of texts in the area of business. Drawing on this framework, the categories for the analysis of the text dimension in the present work are grouped as follows: reference, speech functions, evaluation and modality. The major contributions to the study of each of these categories are outlined in the next section.

2.4.1 Mood choice and speech functions

In the grammar of interpersonal relations, the fundamental speech roles of a clause, namely giving information, giving goods and services, demanding information and demanding goods and services, are expressed through the mood. Those roles, labelled as 'statements', 'offers', 'commands' and 'questions', are typically associated with one of the three main choices in the mood system of the clause. In the unmarked case, statements are realised through 'declaratives', questions through 'interrogatives' and commands through 'imperatives'. Offers are not matched with any mood choice, though Thompson (1996: 40) states that 'they are strongly associated with modality'. According

to Halliday (1994: 70), 'languages do not develop special resources for offers and commands because in these contexts language is functioning as a means to achieve a non-linguistic end' (though, as stated above, a command is associated with imperative forms).

It is generally accepted that there are many cases in which the correlation between form (e.g. declarative) and function (e.g. statement) is not straightforward and recognition of functions always needs to take context into account. That is particularly true of offers which are not associated with any specific mood form. As stated above, in some cases the grammatical choice within the mood element of a clause does not match the speech function with which it is normally associated (Thompson, 1996) and therefore an analysis of both congruent and non-congruent meaning (Halliday, 1994) is required to determine the actual meaning of the clause. In the example, 'you'd better come in' (Thompson, 1996: 40), the clause carries both the function of a declarative and a command; both role categories, giving information and demanding services, are blended in the clause. Therefore, one has to refer to both meanings, of a command 'disguised' in the form of a declarative, in order to understand the reasons for the writer's choice of wording.

2.4.1.1 Direct vs. indirect speech functions

The problem of the correlation between form and function has been discussed at length in the literature of speech acts (e.g. Searle, 1979; Ervin-Tripp, 1976; Coulthard, 1977; Levinson, 1983). Such discussion has led to the categorisation of speech acts into 'direct' or 'indirect acts'. By direct acts is meant those utterances in which form and force/function match, i.e. if they conform to their 'rule-associated force/function as their

literal force/function’ (Levinson, 1983: 264). Their function/force can be recognised through the realization of the three sentence-types, or grammatical choices in the mood system, namely the imperative, declarative and interrogative, which, as noted above, are associated with the traditional force/functions of ‘commands’, ‘statements’ and ‘questions’, respectively. The analysis can be confirmed by paraphrasing the given utterance with the performative verb associated with its corresponding mood choice in the simple present indicative active i.e.:

- Statement: I inform you that ...
- Question: I ask you whether/why ...
- Command: I order you to ...
- Offer: I offer to ... (for you)

For instance, an utterance like ‘Where is the book?’ is typically assigned the role of a question realized through the interrogative form. By paraphrasing with its corresponding performative: ‘I ask you where the book is’, one can confirm its function; that is, the speaker is demanding information.

Declaratives	I want you to close the door.
	I’d be much obliged if you’d close the door.
	You ought to close the door.
	It might help to close the door.
Interrogatives	Can you close the door?
	Would you close the door?
	Would you mind closing the door?

Table 2.3: Ways of requesting the addressee to ‘shut the door’

In contrast, ‘indirect speech acts’ refer to those usages which apart from their associated force/function ‘simply have in addition an inferred indirect force’ (Levinson, 1983: 264). For example, the use of sentences which do requesting indirectly is a well-studied case

in English. A list of ways of indirectly requesting the addressee to 'shut the door' is given in Table 2.3.

2.4.1.2 The role of the context in recognising the function of a clause

As stated above, the recognition of the kind of function being conveyed in an indirect speech act is not straightforward. On the whole, scholars agree that what people do with words seems not to be wholly determined by the surface form. The possibility of identifying by means of systematic rules of use which performative is being realised in an indirect utterance is still in doubt. Even attempts made by scholars to categorise possible realisations or ways of expressing some types of indirect speech acts (see Searle, 1979) have not provided a full explanation of how it is that we can decide whether an utterance is performing this or that function. For instance, how can one explain that the indirect force of a sentence whose form is typically associated with a question as in 'can you pass the salt?' is intended by the speaker as a request, not just as demanding information regarding the ability of the listener to perform the action. Similarly, how can we explain that a declarative like 'I will be the first' may be a prediction (a kind of statement), a promise (related to offers) or a threat (related to commands)?

From the above argument, one can conclude that the answers to the questions ought to be found elsewhere. The role of the context in the identification of the function of a clause is then seen as a useful source. That is, we can only get access to the speaker's intention through contextual clues. Strawson (1964) says that if a speaker uses an indirect speech act,

it is because he is confident that clues in the context or preceding text will make his intention clear and if he is in doubt he can add a force-elucidating

comment like ‘this is only a suggestion’ or ‘I am warning you’. (Strawson, 1964: 447; emphasis in original)

In written texts (as in the case of promotional texts), the chances for the reader or the analyst to get access to the writer’s intention through contextual clues or even through elucidating comments, as mentioned above, may not be always or easily in reach; it is even possible that in some cases such situational clues are not at all available.

However, it has long been argued in the literature of genre analysis that contextual clues such as the background knowledge of the communicative purposes and goals of the genre under study can facilitate the unfolding of the writer’s private intentions (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993). Since the overall purpose of the texts that I am interested in is to persuade the readers to buy their products or services, it is likely that many, if not most, of the propositions can be seen as somehow conveying the indirect force associated with offers. In many contexts the default interpretation of a declarative is a statement; but contextual factors in promotional texts may override that, at least to some extent.

2.4.2 Reference

The question of how interactants refer to each other in the world has long been an issue in the literature. Studies of both oral and written interaction have borrowed insights from different disciplines to explain how speakers and writers make certain choices to refer to participants in the interaction.

From the Philosophy of Language, speech act theory has contributed to the issues with the idea that reference is essentially a system of use (Searle, 1969). Based on this concept, researchers have emphasised the importance of looking at referring expression as an interactional resource. It is generally agreed ‘referential forms are only truly

meaningful in an interactional context, and thus their use reflects various important aspects of that context' (Al-Sharief 1998: 19).

Research on reference to interactants has also benefited from findings on the study of social issues and the ethnography of communication (Gumperz and Hymes, 1972). Studies on 'terms of address' and 'personal reference' have been discussed in relation to social variables such as 'status' and 'distance' (Murphy, 1988; Eggins and Slade 1997) and 'power' and 'solidarity' (Brown and Gilman, 1960; De Fina, 1995).

In the literature on reference particular attention has been given to the study of the nature of pronouns from either a socio-linguistic or pragmatic orientation. Pronominal reference is one of the mechanisms through which the speaker expresses 'both his own presence in discourse, the presence of others and the relationship that he/she entertains with these others.' (De Fina 1995: 384)

Sociologically oriented studies have looked at pronouns as social deixis: 'the social identities of participants or the social relationship between them, or between one of them and persons and/or other entities referred to' (Levinson, 1983: 89). Among studies in the same field, we can find the work carried out by Brown and Gilman (1960), Silverstein (1976), Wallace and Tucker (1976) and Muhlhausler and Harre (1990). Brown and Gilman (1960), for instance, found that the evolution in the structure and use of a pronominal system reflected a shift in society from more rigid and asymmetrical models towards more solidarity and flexibility.

Pragmatic studies have been more concerned with showing how these items can encode different aspects of the communicative intentions of speakers (Maitland and Wilson, 1987; Wilson, 1990). The pragmatic orientation in these studies is seen in that

the meaning associated with pronominal usage is not systematically related to variables such as formality, status, class, sex or the like, but it is more dependent on the specific context of utterance and the roles and goals of the speaker(s). (Wilson, 1990: 47)

Though it is said that pragmatic studies of this kind are less systematic and more context dependent, this does not mean that the pragmatic meanings are 'idiosyncratic and totally unpredictable' (De Fina, 1995: 380). The same author argues that:

In fact, pronominal forms can be manipulated to convey implicit meanings based on their structural semantic properties. For example, the pronoun 'we' can convey empathy because of its structural property of encoding the meaning: [speaker + addressee]. Similarly the pronoun 'you' can convey a meaning of deresponsabilization of the speaker because of its structural ability to encode indefinite reference. (De Fina, 1995: 380; emphasis in original)

2.4.2.1 Interactant involvement through referential forms

Because of their interactive nature, referential forms have been found to be important linguistic tools to identify aspects of the context in which they are used. Though studies in this area have had slight variations in aims, emphasis and discourse domains (e.g. political, media, educational and business), they have shared a common interest, in particular, with regard to identifying levels of intimacy constructed in the relation (close, distant) and the degree of involvement with which speakers/writers identify themselves with the group they represent (solidarity, affiliation). (See e.g. Gardin, 1976; Lavandera, 1985; De Fina, 1995; Wilson, 1997; Martin, 1994; Eggins and Slade, 1996; Thompson and Thetela, 1995).

Within the discourse of politics for instance, the analysis of pronominal choice has been used to identify speaker's signalling responsibility (e.g. Gardin, 1976; Lavandera, 1985). Gardin (1976) found that the choice of pronouns is associated with the speaker's strategy to escape social responsibility in the discourse of trade unionists. Within the political and

ideological arena, Lavandera (1985) has reported the same strategy in the study of discourse in 'Argentine desaparecidos'. Though the aim of these studies is to find out how speakers identify themselves with the group they represent, it is argued that these studies 'have failed to include the analysis of interactional dynamics, partly because individuals are seen as representatives of more general social voices' (De Fina, 1995: 382). In contrast, De Fina is interested in reconstructing the way individual speakers represent themselves in relation to others. Her study of political speech involves an understanding of the position of the speaker with respect to other 'social actors, entities and events in the outer world' (p 383). In doing so, she looks at the number of times a particular pronominal choice is used and consistency of reference in order to understand its contribution to the meanings and objectives conveyed by speakers. However, De Fina argues that it is important to distinguish tactical identification of the speaker, which is used to reach certain persuasive goals (Zupnik, 1994) with other groups or individuals, from solidarity. De Fina proposes to define solidarity as

a consistent indication by the speaker of the existence of another agent as a principal² of the speech, and a principal with whom he/she signals (through pronominal choice and continuity of reference) an organic (as opposed to a tactical) identification. (De Fina, 1995: 384; my foot note)

Among systemic functional linguists, the study of reference has also been concerned with writers' ways of establishing relationship with others. Naming, one of the language resources within the semantic system of involvement, has been used to identify how interactants construct levels of intimacy (Martin, 1994; Thompson and Thetela, 1995; Eggins and Slade, 1997). The use of nicknames, for instance, may indicate that the relationship between the speaker and the person being referred to is a close one (Eggins and Slade, 1997). In the study of casual conversation, 'naming involves the use of

² Based on Goffman's (1981) classification of participant framework, the principal is an individual, group or social category represented in the speech event.

vocatives (an addressee's name or other terms of address) to get attention, and to target an utterance' (Eggins and Slade, 1997: 144). The same authors maintain that the analysis of vocatives is central, because it allows us to explore ways in which speakers control, manipulate, divide and align the other interactants.

2.4.2.2 Reference in written texts

For a long time, the issue of reference to interactants largely focused on interaction in oral texts. Recent studies on interaction in written language have incorporated insights from the literature of reference in the spoken language into their framework of analysis (e.g. Martin, 1994; Thompson and Thetela, 1995; Al-Sharief, 1998). In the study of management of interaction in advertising in written texts, for instance, Thompson and Thetela (1995) included in their work the analysis of aspects associated with 'terms of address' which have been largely discussed in research related to spoken texts (e.g. Brown and Gilman, 1960; Murphy, 1988; Ervin-Tripp, 1972; Gumperz, 1982).

Nevertheless, it has been argued that reference to interactants in written texts is mediated by other linguistic resources that may not be present in the interaction in oral encounters. For instance, in oral texts, the relationship between speaker and hearer can be indicated through the use of vocatives, e.g. '*Honey*, can I have that book?' (Murphy, 1988; Thompson, 1996; Eggins and Slade 1997). As Thompson (1996: 69) states, the message conveyed in such cases is: 'this is the kind of person I want you to be'. However, it is unlikely that the same type of reference will be found in all kinds of written texts. Writers will probably resort to other ways of indicating 'how s/he thinks of the other person'.

In written advertising, for instance, it has been found that writers switch from the normal way of referring to the reader 'you' to a 'third person' or vice versa, e.g. '*All chairman love being in the driving seat. So you'll relish Saab's*' (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 119; emphasis in the original). These authors argue that 'this technique can be used when the writer wishes to project ... the type of reader-in-the-text that the advertisement is aimed at' (p 119) and it is only hoped that the reader accepts this projection at least for the time the interaction takes place.

Within systemic functional linguistics, the study of how interactants relate to each other has been supported by resources from other semantic systems. For example, in Thompson and Thetela (1995) the study of the ways in which writers project themselves and others in the interaction also includes analysis of transitivity roles (Halliday, 1994). This approach proposed by Thompson and Thetela (1995) is based on Halliday's description of participant roles in the grammar of experiential meanings. Thompson and Thetela (1995) argue that the study of the meanings attached to the interactants through the transitivity roles helps indicate the type of person the writer thinks and hopes the reader is, as well as the type of person the writer wants to be seen as.

In the light of the above theoretical background, the study of reference in the present work is also used to explore the type of relationship between writers and reader, by looking at the kind of interpersonal meanings that are encoded in the ways in which writers refer to themselves and customers in the interaction. Given the pragmatic goal of promotional texts, namely to persuade customers to buy their products or services, the use of semantic resources in the form of pronouns and other terms of address enables us to see how close or distant the writer appears to interact in order to achieve their purpose. It also enables us to find out the extent to which writers project themselves

directly or indirectly as the provider of support to help the customers to fulfil their needs. Experiential roles assigned to writers and customers also allow us to explore ways in which writers identify themselves with the actual needs of the customers. For example, the projection of the writer as ‘involved in the production of the product and providing it for the reader’ (Thompson and Thetela, 1995: 122) may be interpreted as the writer aiming at being seen as the ‘benefactor source’ that can solve the needs of the customers who are projected in the ‘beneficiary position’. This interpretation could lead us to uncovering two possible dimensions in the social relations developed in the texts: the power-relation dimension (manipulation) or the co-operative-relation dimension (solidarity, affiliation).

2.4.3 Evaluation

In general, evaluation can be defined as a set of language resources that writers use to attach positive or negative values to people, things, objects and events. Within the systemic functional tradition, evaluation is seen in terms of systems, i.e. ‘sets of options which are available to the speaker or writer covering the meanings that can be and are typically expressed in particular contexts, and the linguistic means of expressing them’ (Hunston and Thompson, 2000: 142). In functional linguistics, the phenomenon has been studied under the term ‘appraisal’, which is defined as ‘the semantic resources used to negotiate emotions, judgements, and valuations, alongside resources for amplifying and engaging with these evaluations’ (Martin, 2000: 145).

This set of semantic resources developed out of research work on evaluation conducted on a number of spoken and written texts in various fields. The analytical framework of appraisal used in this work and in other studies of interpersonal meanings (e.g. Eggins

and Slade, 1997; see discussion below) evolved out of work carried out on the analysis of social process in the secondary school and workplace literacy conducted by Martin. Within this research project, Iedema et al. (1994) categorised the systems of values related to judgement under social esteem and social sanction from the study of the role of interpersonal meaning in media literacy. A systematic and comprehensive map of appraisal resources is found in Martin and Christie (1997), who examine the use of appraisal resources in institutional genres, and in Martin (2000).

The study of evaluation in this work draws on Martin's model of appraisal. This model is viewed by Hunston and Thompson (2000) as a systematic organisation of diverse groups of lexical items. The same authors suggest that appraisal viewed in lexical terms does not imply that it should be regarded in the traditional way of attitudinal vocabulary, a mere way of commenting on the world. Instead, 'it is a vital part of the meaning negotiation' (p 143). Such view is supported by the definition of appraisal given in White (2001):

The term 'Appraisal' is used as a cover-all term to encompass all evaluative uses of language, including those by which speakers/writers adopt particular value positions or stances and by which they negotiate these stances with either actual or potential respondents. (White 2001: overview: 1, emphasis in original)

The two functions that appraisal is said to perform, i.e. attitudinal and dialogistic positioning, are defined by White as follows. By attitudinal positioning is meant positive or negative values that speakers and writers attach to people, things, events, and states of affairs. The underlined words of the following example, taken from a tourist guidebook, convey the writer's attitudinal feelings to highlight the beauty of the place.

- [2.1] Yet perhaps the true jewels of Val Badia are to be sought in the small and lesser known side valleys of Longiaru (Campitall), Spessa (Wengental), Marebbe and other, where the pace of life is unhurried even during the high seasons and where one can still hear the echoes of the past among people who hold true to the spirit of those times. (Todischini, C. 2001, *Dolomites*. Cortina d'Ampezzo, Italy: Light Hunter Publications, p 86, my emphasis).

The second function, dialogistic positioning, is defined by the same author as the function whereby evaluative resources are used by the speaker or the writer to negotiate interpersonal meanings with the listener or reader. This dialogistic function draws on the Bakhtinian/Voloshinovian approach in which the primary function of language is not that of 'self expression' (provide information), but to enact the process of communication between participants (process of interaction). White argues that within the Bakhtinian/Voloshinovian tradition,

utterances, even in monologic, written texts, do not operate in isolation but are always conditioned to some degree by the verbal give-and-take, action-and-reaction of communicative interaction ... Thus many utterances, even in monologic written texts, will contain elements which play a 'responsive' and/or 'anticipatory' role. (White, 2001: overview 3, emphasis in original)

To illustrate this concept, White provides the following example taken from a radio interview, in which the interviewer questions the Australian Prime Minister about the behaviour of the Australian banks. According to White, the extract represents the interviewer as conveying community concerns rather than his own views.

There is an argument, though, is there, the banks have been a bit greedy I mean, the profits are high and good on them, they're entitled to have high profits, but at the same time the fees are bordering on the unreasonable now. (White, 2001: overview 4, emphasis in original)

White explains that the responsive and anticipatory roles can be seen in the interviewer's introduction of the proposition as arguable and in projecting himself as not personally committed. In this way, the interviewer signals readiness to engage into debate on the issue.

Both attitudinal and dialogical positioning associated with evaluative resources are seen as designated to promote involvement. Martin (2000) highlights the role of appraisal resources in negotiating solidarity. He argues that ‘just as it is impossible to include without also excluding, so it is impossible to appraise without running the gauntlet of empathy and alienation’ (p 166).

2.4.3.1 Ways of expressing appraisal

Appraisal can be expressed in the use of individual words or phrases. It is very straightforward to identify positive or negative feelings in the use of ‘beautiful’ and ‘ugly’, for instance. That is, these terms can be checked against ‘the simplest and basic good/bad scale’ (Thompson, 1996) upon which people’s feelings can be measured. However, people’s attitude or feelings are not always conveyed in such forms. Such ways involve not only the use of individual words as explained above, but also ‘complete utterances, stretches of language’ (White, 2001: stage 2) which make the reader evoke positive or negative feelings. Jordan (2001) argues that evoked evaluation is ‘basis’ with implied assessment. Very often when we give an assessment, e.g. ‘He is cruel’ (inscribed appraisal), we also give a basis, e.g. ‘He likes torturing cats’ (the reason why we make the assessment). However, we can give the basis in a way that evokes the assessment. If we just say ‘He likes torturing cats.’ then the hearer is expected to evaluate him as ‘cruel’ because of the evidence.

However, the evocation of positive or negative feelings provided in the basis is not always so straightforward as in ‘He likes torturing cats’. Not only is ‘torturing’ per se regarded in our society as bad, but also the fact that it is done on ‘cats’ reinforces the already raised negative feeling, in particular, in these times of increasing awareness of

animals' rights. In example [2.1] though we can agree that the positive assessment of the place brought in 'true jewels' is also supported by the basis provided in the text: 'where the pace of life is unhurried', the term 'unhurried' may sound positive or negative depending on the reader's beliefs, interests or just ways of conceiving the world. For some (e.g. those having preference for a noisy or exciting type of life) that sort of environment may be regarded as boring, whereas for others (e.g. those thinking that all past times are better) it might be ideal. Thus, this raises the issue that implicit or evoked evaluation depends on the values which the speaker/writer and the hearer/reader share. Each particular social group or social activity may have its own particular ways to establish values. Using White's (2001) example, we can see how appraisal feelings are constructed by a particular set of beliefs and expectations brought in by the reader.

- [2.2] The Aussies ... are asked to believe that, before the white man stole their land, Australia was a paradise inhabited by gentle, trusting, children of nature living on the fat of the land. In fact, the Aboriginals were treacherous and brutal. They had acquired none of the skills or the arts of civilisation. They were nomads who in 40,000 years left no permanent settlements. (*The Sun* [UK], January 1988; quoted in: White, 2001: stage 1:3; emphasis in original)

If we analyse the underlined parts of the text in isolation, he says, it may appear open-ended in its interpretation. For example, for 'ecological minded readers', he explains, it may convey positive assessment 'since it shows the Aborigines minimising their impact on the natural world' (stage 1:3), whereas, those having a 'pro-development ideology' (stage 1:3) may interpret it negatively. However, it is clear that the excerpt as a whole is intended to raise negative assessment, thus projecting the assumption that the reader belongs to the pro-development minded. We could add that the evocation of negative assessment towards the aborigines is also triggered by the choice of explicit or inscribed negative evaluation through the words 'treacherous' and 'brutal', in contrast to explicit or inscribed positive one conveyed in the adjectives 'gentle' and 'trusting' used at the beginning of the paragraph. It is significant in this respect that the positive terms are

attributed to someone other than the writer ('asked to believe'), while the negative ones are averred by the writer ('in fact'). The underlined sentence is brought in as a basis for the negative evaluation in the preceding sentence.

In short, the above discussion suggests that the interdependency between context and attitudinal assessment is very strong. Therefore, 'the unit of analysis ... is the proposition or proposal, or a sequence of interconnected propositions or proposals, analysed in the context of the larger text in which they operate' (White, 2001: stage 1:4). This way of looking at appraisal is central in the study of promotional texts. Within the specific social activity of selling goods and services writers may employ language resources beyond the level of the word that may not be straightforward to identify but which can be used to trigger the beliefs and expectations of customers.

2.4.3.2 The typology of appraisal

This study is concerned with the three semantic systems of appraisal proposed by Martin, namely 'AFFECT', 'JUDGEMENT' and 'APPRECIATION' (Martin, 1997:18; see also Martin 2000: 145).³ In the literature, affect is contrasted with the other two systems, namely judgement and appreciation. This contrast is established according to the orientation or target of the appraisal in each system. Affect is seen as a human response in a specific emotional state, whereas judgement and appreciation 'is not located in the subjectivity or consciousness of the human participant' (White, 2001: stage 3:1). Appreciation and judgement are attributed to external factors; the orientation is towards the 'appraised', the recipient of the feeling: objects, things, events and people, rather than the 'appraiser' or the human person doing the evaluation as in the case of emotions

³ Martin uses small capitals to highlight the labels for the three systems. However, this emphasis will not be followed here.

(Martin, 2000; White 2001). However, since evaluation or appraisal, in principle, is related to feelings which are expressed by human beings, affect is taken as the basic system. Within the negotiation of meanings, 'judgement institutionalises feelings as proposals (about behaviour), whereas appreciation institutionalises feelings as propositions (about things)' (Martin, 2000: 147).

These three major semantic resources of appraisal as they are applied in the present work are described below. The discussion provides an overall definition of each semantic system as well as a brief summary of the description of the typology of categories for each semantic system as proposed by Martin (1997: 22-25).

Affect

This type of appraisal is defined as the evaluative language resources for construing emotions: 'feelings construed by the culture as good vibes that are enjoyable to experience or bad that are better avoided' (Martin, 1997: 20). The typology of affect categorises emotions into various groups: *security/insecurity*, *satisfaction/dissatisfaction* and *happiness/unhappiness*.

The *security/insecurity* group involves emotions concerned with eco-social well-being: anxiety, fear, confidence and trust, e.g. 'restless', 'fearful' and 'tremble'. The *dissatisfaction* variable is made up of emotions concerned with telos (including frustration): ennui, anger, curiosity and respect, e.g. 'bored' and 'fed-up'. The *happiness/unhappiness* set covers emotions concerned with sadness, antipathy, happiness and love, e.g. 'cheerful', 'cry', 'hate' and 'rubbish'.

Judgement

This type of appraisal is related to language resources for judging human behaviour. This category is referred to as ‘the institutionalisation of feelings in the context of proposals (norms about how people should and should not behave)’ (Martin, 1997: 24). Judgement resources can be classified into two major groups: social esteem and social sanction. The typology of judgement includes the following variables:

Judgements of social esteem (language resources involving admiration and criticism) have to do with *normality* (how unusual someone is), e.g. ‘lucky’, ‘fashionable’ or ‘peculiar’, *capacity* (how capable they are), e.g. ‘robust’ or ‘vigorous’ and *tenacity* (how resolute they are), e.g. ‘reliable’, ‘brave’ or ‘weak’.

Judgements of social sanction (language resources expressing praise and condemnation) have to do with *veracity* (how truthful someone is), e.g. ‘honest’, ‘authentic’ or ‘genuine’, and *propriety* (how ethical someone is), e.g. ‘fair’, ‘caring’ or ‘good’.

Appreciation

This category refers to resources for valuing objects and processes aesthetically. Appreciation can perhaps be thought of as the institutionalisation of feelings in the context of propositions (norms about how products and performances are valued) (Martin, 1997: 24). It also takes negative and positive values. Appreciation is arranged around the three sub-categories *reaction*, *composition* and *valuation*.

Reaction refers to the degree to which the text/process in question captures our attention and the emotional impact it has on us, e.g. ‘fantastic’, ‘fascinating’ or ‘lovely’.

Composition has to do with the perception of *proportionality* (composition: balance), e.g. ‘harmonious’ or ‘unified’, and *detail* (composition: complexity), e.g. ‘simple’ or

'intricate'. *Valuation* refers to our assessment of the social significance of the text/process, e.g. 'challenging', 'unique' or 'innovative'.

2.4.3.3 Applications

The application of the appraisal systems has been found rewarding as a linguistic tool in the analysis of interpersonal meanings by scholars within systemic functional linguistics. For example, in the analysis of casual conversation, Eggins and Slade (1997) demonstrate how appraisal resources are used to express solidarity, create and signal equal power and exclusion. Similarly, through the analysis of ways in which group members judge the behaviour of others, they identify the social role of gossip in our society, i.e. 'to establish and reinforce membership and exercise social control' (p 154).

It is generally recognised that the study of appraisal enables us, on the one hand, to explore how speakers and writers pass judgements on people, material objects, happenings and states of affairs: that is, the extent to which emotions, judgements and values are explicitly expressed or whether they are indirectly implied presupposed or assumed. On the other hand, it allows us to explore the management of interpersonal meanings. That is, it enables us to see how affiliation is created among those who share the same values and how they distance themselves from those who do not. It also allows us to explore how evaluation is managed to avoid confrontation with those holding different views.

In the light of the above theoretical concepts, the appraisal system is included in the study of promotional texts because it enables us to investigate two main aspects: first, how different text types or subgenres may conventionally employ different evaluative resources. That is, whether they exploit more emotions or are more centred on judging

the behaviour of others. Secondly, it enables us to investigate the extent to which the assumptions which writers make about the value and belief systems are different in two given cultural settings and languages.

2.4.4 Modality

Modality is an area which has been widely researched in many languages with various emphases from the philosophical point of view to the most applied studies of language. In modal logic, a branch of the philosophy of language, modality is classified into deontic modality and epistemic modality. Epistemic modality is concerned with the 'possibility and necessity of the truth of the proposition' (Lyons, 1977: 793), thus it is involved with 'knowledge and belief' (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 4). Deontic modality is concerned with 'necessity and or possibility of acts' (Lyons, 1977: 823) and thus it is associated with the 'social function of permission and obligation' (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 4).

Most of the approaches used in the study of modality in linguistics and applied linguistics (e.g. Halliday, 1994; Bybee, 1985; Bybee and Fleischman, 1995) have their roots in the traditional division of epistemic and deontic modality. Within systemic functional linguistics, modalisation is based on epistemic modality (semantic probability) and modulation on deontic modality (obligation) (Halliday, 1994: 357). Halliday relates this division to the semantic distinction of the clause as propositions and proposals.

Similarly, the taxonomy of modality into 'agent-oriented', 'speaker-oriented' and 'epistemic' proposed by Bybee (1985) and also described in Bybee and Fleischman (1995: 6) is also rooted in the traditional divisions of the concept in modal logic.

However, they argue that, unlike deontic modality, Bybee's taxonomy allows for inclusion of a wider range of meanings that we encounter in language in use and which have developed during the evolution of deontic into epistemic modality. For instance, Bybee's categories include semantically related notions such as 'ability (physical and mental) and desire that have linguistic expression similar to that of permission and obligation', and categories developing epistemic meanings such as 'verbs indicating desire and obligation evolving into future agent-oriented modality' (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 5). Such meanings are not covered under the term 'deontic' in the traditional classification.

The three categories in Bybee's taxonomy are defined as follows: agent-oriented modality includes all modal meanings that 'predicate conditions on an agent with regard to the completion of an action referred to by the main predicate e.g. obligation, desire, ability, permission and root possibility' (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 6). Epistemic modality remains with its traditional definition as 'the speaker commitment to the truth of proposition' (p 6). Speaker-oriented modality refers to markers of directives such as 'imperatives, optatives and permissives, which represents speech acts through which a speaker attempts to move an addressee to action' (p 6).

Since the analysis of interaction is placed within the systemic functional approach, the analysis is mainly guided by the concept and taxonomy of modality as introduced by Halliday (1994). However, the cross-cultural comparison involves in certain cases the use of modality as an umbrella term which covers a wider range of meanings. This is because there is certain difference in the way the Spanish language system operates to convey modal meanings from that used in English. These differences are described in detail in chapter 7.

2.4.4.1 Definition

The term 'modality' belongs to the semantic domain. The scope of its definition seems to depend on the research tradition and field in which it has been used. From a broadest perspective, it has been said that it covers a wide range of semantic nuances:

Jussive, desiderative, intentive, hypothetical, potential, obligative, dubitative, hortory, exclamative, etc., whose common denominator is the addition of a supplement or overlay of meaning to the most neutral semantic value of the proposition of an utterance, namely factual or declarative. (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 2)

In the study of interpersonal functions, modality is typically defined as the semantic area made up of intermediate degrees or stages between positive and negative polarity, i.e. the area between 'yes' and 'no' (Halliday, 1994; Thompson, 1996). As indicated by Thompson (1996: 57) between the negative and positive polarity in 'She *teaches* Latin' or 'She does *not teach* Latin', lies a set of intermediate possibilities as illustrated in Table 2.4.

Within this definition, it is important to highlight the function of those intermediate possibilities. They can be found in those language resources which are used by speakers to express their views with various degrees of certainty about the validity of the proposition as well as in those resources representing degrees of pressure to carry out commands and degrees of inclination to fulfil promises.

Possibility	Meaning
She might teach Latin.	May be yes, maybe no.
She usually teaches Latin.	Sometimes yes, sometimes no.
She will teach Latin.	At present no, but in the future yes if you want.
She can teach Latin well.	In principle yes, maybe yes or no.

Table 2.4: Set of intermediate degrees between positive and negative polarity (after Thompson, 1996: 57)

As stated earlier, in the study of interpersonal meanings in promotional texts I set out the analysis within the Hallidayan definition, but leaving space for a broader range of meanings that may be encountered in the cross-language analysis and which are not covered within the systemic functional view of modality in English. It is for this reason that modality as an overall term is taken to include modal meanings arising from linguistic forms such as the subjunctive in Spanish. For a detailed discussion, see chapter 7.

2.4.4.2 Typology

Within the systemic functional approach, as mentioned in 2.4.4, the typology of modality includes two main categories known as ‘modalisation’ and ‘modulation’ (Halliday, 1994: 356; Thompson, 1996: 57). Each type is associated with two subsets of more delicate possibilities. With *modalisation*, these possibilities relate to degrees of *probability* (e.g. ‘possibly’, ‘probably’, ‘certainly’) and *usuality* (e.g. ‘sometimes’, ‘usually’, ‘always’). With *modulation*, the points represent degrees of *obligation* (e.g. ‘permissible’, ‘advisable’, ‘obligatory’) and inclination or *willingness* (e.g. ‘ability’, ‘willingness’, ‘determination’).

This typology is based on the underlying speech functions of the clause (Halliday, 1994). If the function is to exchange information (statements and questions) the intermediateness expresses either some degree of probability (e.g. 'maybe yes', 'maybe no') or usuality (e.g. 'sometimes yes', 'sometimes no'). In other words, in this case, the modality relates to either 'how likely the information is true' or 'how frequently it is true' (Thompson, 1996: 57)

However, if the function of the clause is to exchange goods and services (offers and commands), the intermediateness expresses either some degree of obligation (is wanted to) or inclination (wants to) (Halliday, 1994: 356). In commands, the intermediate points represent degrees of 'obligation' on the other person to carry out an order. In offers, they relate to degrees of 'inclination or willingness' of the speaker to fulfil the offer.

2.4.4.3 Ways of expressing modality

Congruent forms

There are various ways of expressing the above intermediate possibilities. According to Halliday (1994), probability and usuality may both be expressed by (a) modal operators and (b) modal adjuncts (see Table 2.5). Obligation and inclination may be conveyed by (a) modal operators and (b) an expansion of the predicator: as an adjective or as a passive verb (see Table 2.5).

For a list of modal operators and examples of modal adjuncts see also Table 2.6 and Table 2.7.

Types of intermediacy		Typical realisation	Examples
Modalisation	Probability	Modal operator	The child might be there.
		Modal adjunct	Mary probably comes at 6 o'clock.
		Both	It can always be adjusted.
	Usuality	Modal operator	She'll read for hours.
		Modal adjunct	He rarely watches t. v.
		Both	He'll be often seen sitting all day in that corner.
Modulation	Obligation	Modal operator	You ought to invite her.
		Expanded predicator: (passive verb)	You are supposed to know that.
	Inclination	Modal operator	I will give you a hand.
		Expanded predicator (adjective)	She is anxious to see you.
Ability		Modal operator	She can keep the audience entertained all night.

Table 2.5: Modalisation and modulation (after Halliday, 1994: 91)

Polarity \ Value	Low	Median	High
	Positive	can, may, could, might (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to
Negative	needn't, doesn't/didn't, need to, have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, isn't/wasn't to	mustn't, oughtn't, can't, couldn't, mayn't mightn't hasn't/hadn't to

Table 2.6: Modal operators (after Halliday, 1994: 76)

Type	Meaning	Examples
Probability	how likely	probably, possibly, certainly, perhaps, maybe
Usuality	how often	usually, sometimes, always, (n)ever, often, seldom

Table 2.7: Modal adjuncts (after Halliday, 1994: 49)

Metaphors of modality

One issue raised in the literature is concerned with the various possibilities that speakers may use to express the validity of their opinions (modalisation) or/and confidence in the eventual success of the exchange (modulation). Halliday (1994) argues that in many cases, modality is not encoded as a modal element (modal operator, modal adjunct) in the clause, the congruent forms of modality. There seems to be a wide range of variants of the congruent forms, many of which involve the modality being expressed in a separate clause. In a clause complex, modality is typically being recognised by identifying which bit of the clause takes the tag. In the example, 'I think it is going to rain' (Halliday, 1994: 324) the tag is 'isn't it?' and not 'don't I?' which suggests that 'I think' is a variant of the more congruent form 'it is probably going to rain'. It is the primary clause within a semantic relationship of projection which encodes this type of interpersonal metaphor.

However, it is also recognised that it is not always possible to identify exactly what is and what is not a metaphorical representation of modality. In the case of modalisation, this is probably due to the fact speakers/writers have indefinitely many ways of hiding the fact that they are expressing their opinions (Halliday, 1994). The following are examples of projecting clauses functioning as metaphors of modality.

It is obvious that ...
 Everyone admits that ...
 It stands to reason that ...
 It would be foolish to deny that ...
 The conclusion can hardly be avoided that ...
 No sane person would pretend that ... not ...
 Common sense determines that ... (Halliday, 1994: 355)

Other types of metaphor of modality can be found in modulated hypotactic verbal groups (see Table 2.8). According to Halliday (1994), the basic notion here is that of 'be

(circumstantial) + do’, e.g. ‘venture to ask’ or ‘ask tentatively’. The primary verb ‘venture’ is not a separate process, but a circumstantial element in the process expressed by the secondary verb ‘ask’. In the example provided by Halliday (1994: 281), ‘Alice ventured to ask something’, he explains that this means that ‘she did ask it; but she did so tentatively’.

Circumstance	Example	Meaning
Time	begin by, end up (by) doing tend to do	do first, last do typically
Manner:quality	insist on doing hasten to do it venture to hesitate to do regret to do	do perversely do quickly do tentatively do it reluctantly do sadly
Cause: reason	happen to do remember/forget to	do by chance do/not do according to intention
Cause: purpose	try doing	do as means to end
Accompaniment	help (to) do/ (in, with) doing	do together with someone

Table 2.8: Modal adjuncts (after Halliday, 1994: 282)

2.4.4.4 Modal values and orientation

Another area of modality which is also central in the study of interpersonal meanings is related to modal values and orientation (Halliday, 1994). Modal value or ‘modal commitment’ as labelled by Thompson (1996: 59) refers to ‘the value that is attached to the modal judgement’ (Halliday, 1994: 358). In other words, ‘the higher or lower degree of certainty of a proposition’ or ‘a higher or lower degree of pressure on others to carry a command’ (Thompson, 1996: 59). According to Thompson, this is a useful label in the analysis, since it allows us to find out the extent to which speakers or writers commit themselves to what they say. Such commitment can be seen in whether, on the one hand, the claim made by the speaker or writer is introduced as certain or, on the contrary, it is open to doubt. On the other hand, it can also be seen in the high or low degree of

pressure that the speakers or writers apply to impose their demands on others and to fulfil their promises. Table 2.9 introduces examples of modal commitment given in Thompson (1996).

Degree	Modalisation	Modulation
High	I shall never be happy again.	You must ask someone.
Median	They should be back by now.	You ought to invite her.
Low	I may be quite wrong.	You can help yourself to a drink.

Table 2.9: Examples of modal commitment (after Thompson, 1996: 59)

Modal orientation or 'modal responsibility' as labelled by Thompson (1996) can be defined as the extent to which speakers or writers accept that whatever they say is their own view point or on the contrary, they may distance themselves from accepting responsibility by expressing the point of view as a quality of the event itself (p 60). Thus, modal responsibility is subcategorised as subjectivised (ways of expressing that it is the speaker's or writer's view point) and objectivised (the point of view is presented as a quality of the event itself). Table 2.10 illustrates both concepts. The examples are taken from Halliday (1994: 358) and Thompson (1966: 60).

	Modal subjectivity	Modal objectivity
Explicit	I think Mary knows.	It is likely that Mary knows.
	I insist that John goes.	It is important for John to go.
Implicit	He may be ill.	There is a possibility that he is ill.
	John should go.	It is expected that John should go.

Table 2.10: Examples of modal responsibility (after Halliday, 1994: 358)

As can be seen, in the examples under modal objectivity the writer or speaker distances himself or herself from the proposition (e.g. 'Mary knows') or proposal (e.g. 'John

goes') to avoid accepting that the view is theirs. One way of doing this is by preceding the description of event with a separate clause such as 'it is likely', 'it is possible', 'there is a possibility', 'it is expected' etc., thus making the view more objective. In contrast, in the examples of modal subjectivity the speaker or writer admits more openly that it is her/his view. For example, by involving herself/himself in the proposition 'I think', he/she fully accepts that the idea that 'Mary knows' is in fact her/his view. Similarly, in 'I insist that John goes' s/he admits responsibility for the command as opposed to 'it is expected that John goes'. In the latter, the responsibility is being shifted to others or is represented as a feature of the event itself.

2.4.4.5 Modality in context: interactional basis.

It is generally agreed that modal expressions can be viewed as strategic linguistic tools for the construction of social reality. Although the study of modality across languages has been a difficult task because the semantic functional domain is so broad, it is said that it lends itself best to investigation in social interactive contexts (Bybee and Fleischman 1995). Guo (1995) argues that in Mandarin the children's command of a modality marker is strongly associated with the context of interaction. Similarly, Silva-Corvalan (1995) stresses that the actual interpretations of particular meanings of 'poder' (*can*) and 'deber' (*must*) in Spanish require supplementation from context. In their study of interactive function of obligation across different languages (Chinese, English, biblical Hebrew) in several genres, Myhill and Smith (1995) argue that a definition of obligation as dictionary entry cannot be applied to naturally occurring data. They found the definition across languages 'differs not only in the way it is used, but also in the frequency of use' (p 240). Based on a context driven analysis, they studied the interactive dimension associated with modality and concluded that obligations 'do not simply

objectively report actions. Rather they are devices used by speakers to evaluate and justify actions' (p 284).

A crucial aspect which makes modality an interactional resource is related to its role in the negotiation of meanings. Its dialogistic dimension (Thompson, 2001a) allows us to identify the extent to which the negotiation in the text is overt or restricted, how much space is given for 'the reader-in-the-text' (Thompson and Thetela, 1995). To illustrate this point, we could use an example given in Thompson, 2001a):

Literally translated 'Landeskunde' means 'knowledge about the county'. This is misleading in that the geographical notions might be expected. (Thompson, 2001a: 46, emphasis in original)

According to Thompson, the use of the modal verb in the above example prevents the writer from making a categorical statement about the reader's state of knowledge. In this way, the reader is given the opportunity to confirm or deny the writer's assertion during the interaction.

Taking the view that modality lends itself best to investigation in social interactive contexts, the analysis of modality is seen as a useful linguistic tool to identify interpersonal meanings in the context of promoting goods and services. It allows us to explore the extent to which writers are ready to negotiate the validity of the information regarding their products or services as well as the demands and expectations placed on the customers in each language and cultural setting.

3 The research methodology: from a contrastive functional perspective

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the theoretical and methodological framework within which the study was carried out. It includes information regarding the overall research approach, the process of collecting data and the procedures involved in resolving the fundamental problem of the research methodology: the contrastive analysis across languages and text types or subgenres. The subsequent sections describe how this exploratory study is organised. First, the fundamental concepts underpinning the research paradigm are introduced. This is followed by the description of how the process of data collection fits into the overall approach. Here a description of the sources of information is provided. It then introduces the theoretical methodological framework of the contrastive analysis and provides a description of how all parts of the analysis are interconnected.

3.2 Research approach

As stated earlier, the question of how interpersonal meanings are constructed in two languages in two different cultural settings is approached here from a socially-oriented research perspective, i.e. one which views language as the result of the interaction of human beings within a specific social activity. In other words, the orientation here is to see 'language as social rather than as individual phenomenon' (Halliday, 1994: xxx).

There seem to be two ways of looking at the relationship between social context and language. Thompson (1996: 8) maintains that these two ways are complementary. One

way is to look from context to wording: 'top down approach'; conversely, the other one is to look from wording to context: the 'bottom up view'. A top down approach involves a more overtly socially situated study of language, i.e. one that requires the analyst to explore the activities which lead to the production of the texts (Halliday, 1994: xxii; Kress, 1990: 86; Fairclough, 1992: 232). This also means that the analysis should be based on socio-cognitive input of the environment in which the texts unfold, its values and beliefs, as discussed elsewhere in the previous chapters. A bottom up perspective, on the other hand, starts by analysing the product in terms of language used in a given social activity. This applies in particular to the analysis of written texts. A written text is presented to us as a product. Halliday states that only as writers can we have access to written texts as a process; thus, 'the natural tendency is to think of a written text as a product' (Halliday, 1994: xxii). From the product we can construe features of the social context: its norms, values and beliefs encoded in the language, which may explain features of the text.

The research approach followed in this study is text-based. From a bottom up perspective, this work sets out to explore how society is revealed in the texts, i.e. the various strategies writers adopt to interact with the reader during the specific social activity of promoting their products and/or services, and the socio-cultural factors which those strategies reflect. As stated above, a written text is presented to us naturally as a product from which social processes in the form of strategies used by writers to influence reader's behaviour can be explored. If context is in texts as much as text creates context, a text-based approach will enable us to identify how text as a product reflects features of its context. More precisely, from the product, we can explore or at least suggest a plausible interpretation of the relationship between social context and choices of language in the process of building interpersonal meanings.

3.2.1 Motivation

This research initiative emerged from a survey on business communication skill needs carried out in Barranquilla and Cartagena, Colombia (Martinez et al., 1998). Insights obtained from business representatives during the survey motivated the choice of the sample of texts and to a certain extent, the focus of the analysis as discussed in the subsequent sections. However, the idea of a more overtly socially situated analysis was not viable, since company confidentiality policies restricted access to sources of information.

The results from the survey of communication skills needs carried out in Colombia, pointed out to problems related to the writing of the texts in English produced by non-native speakers. Although the emphasis seemed to be rather placed on vocabulary disadvantages, the respondents also showed concern with the lack of language appropriacy to deal with written communications in English and which could raise certain social misunderstandings. Hence, the analysis of interpersonal meanings was seen as worth exploring within the overall research aims of the larger scale project.

Motivated by findings from this survey, more systematic data collection was carried out in Barranquilla and Cartagena in Colombia and in Britain. Keeping the writing concern in mind, the search for texts aimed at a set of promotional texts in each language which allowed me to explore interpersonal meanings typical of each cultural setting. The choice of promotional texts was motivated by two factors. The first one is related to availability. The kind of promotional texts used in this work are of easier access than other business texts such as 'technical reports' to exchange assistance between two companies. The second factor, and perhaps the most influential one, is associated with the national policies of joining globalisation trends. Local companies are faced with the

challenge of competing with foreign companies and probably learning to promote their products and services in the international arena. Thus, the choice of promotional texts to raise awareness of preferences for choosing certain ways of expressing meanings in two different cultural settings seemed to be relevant for the non-native speaker of English in business contexts. Thus, the data collection aims in general at getting access to a set of promotional texts of various types: self-promotional letters, catalogues, leaflets and new products magazines and the like. This choice was narrowed down to those texts which had been specifically addressed to business representatives of other companies. Among those texts were sales promotional letters, catalogues, leaflets and brochures. Leaflets and brochures were finally grouped according to their functions under the name company literature following the usage of business representatives.

3.2.2 Sources of data

As stated above, the study of the social interaction is text-driven. The sources of data for the grammatical analysis and for the contextual factors (the generic purpose, and features related to the audience) that may be influencing the choice of language are the texts themselves. However, information regarding some features of the context in which the texts are used was also gathered from a couple of interviews with some business representatives. This type of information is only used here for the purpose of contextualising the texts.

The main source of information consists of a set of written texts in English and Spanish, which are used to promote company's products and services to other companies. They are categorised as: sales promotional letters, company literature and catalogues. This set of texts is intended to be used not only to identify lexico-grammatical features, but, to a

certain extent, it will also be the basis for identifying features of the context involved in the analysis as said earlier. With the assumption that a text is the result of a social process, the analysis of text features will be employed to reconstruct features of the context. In other words, the use of this source of information allows us to describe how context is reflected and constructed in the texts as well as how the context determines choices of interpersonal meanings in each language.

3.2.3 The nature of the texts

This section deals with two main aspects: the contextualisation of the texts and the physical properties of the target texts. The first one provides a general account of some contextual features of the social activity in which the texts are produced. The second one describes some physical properties identified in the texts. This type of information is used in this study to explore plausible explanations for the linguistic findings.

3.2.3.1 The contextualisation of the texts

The contextualisation of the target texts involves three main aspects. They are: the stage in the business relation in which the texts are used, the purpose of the activity of promoting goods and services and some features related to the audience of the texts.

Promotion as phase within the business relation

Insights into this contextual aspect were obtained from interviews carried out with business representatives both in Colombia and in England. These interviews were also supplemented with the information provided by scientists from an Interdisciplinary Research Centre in England who maintain business relations with companies in order to get technical assistance and buy materials and equipment to run their experiments.

Two main points from the interviews which concern this work are discussed here: The activity of promotion within the process of establishing business relations between companies and the relationship between the type of text and the phase in the relation.

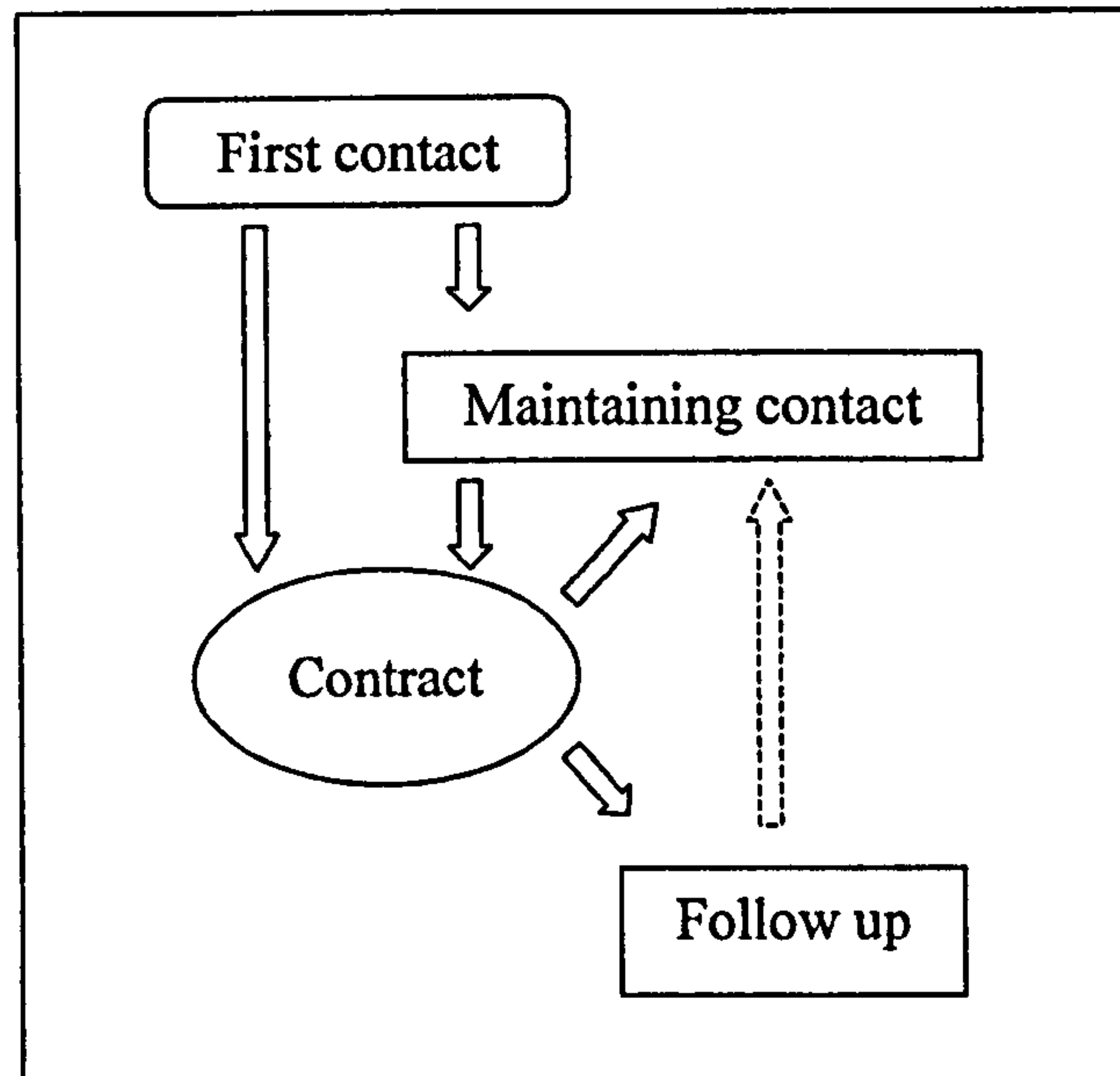


Figure 3.1: Phases in a business relation

The interviews with sales representatives revealed that there are four distinctive phases in a business relation. Those phases, namely ‘first contact’, ‘maintaining contact’, ‘contract phase’ and ‘follow up’ develop in a highly interactive way which is illustrated in Figure 3.1. However, the business relation can be interrupted at any point, either by the customer or the company which provides the product or service.

First, a business relation has to be established. After having initiated the business contact (phase ‘first contact’), the relation may evolve directly to the contract phase in which details of the contract are finalised and the sale/purchase is concluded. However, the contract phase is not reached in many cases, e.g. if the customer is not satisfied with the specification of the product or service being offered. Nevertheless, the company is typically interested in maintaining the contact in order to facilitate a sale of other

products or services to the customer. In the case of a problem regarding the purchased product, the customer will contact the supplier: the 'follow up' phase is entered. This phase is seen by companies almost as a part of the 'maintaining contact' phase, since the technical assistance or service provided influences the customer's perception of the company.

The promotional texts within the phases

In principle, promotional texts are part of the initiating business contact phase according to the interviews. Letters and company literature are mainly sent to companies to establish a contact. Product catalogues are typically sent on request or to maintain the already established relation. Although the types of promotional texts used here are typically delivered during the first encounter, they can also be given at any stage in the relation as new products appear. Since these types of texts are expected to be distributed to a larger number of companies, this particular contextual feature may be associated with the fact that most of the content tends to be standardised. They cannot be spontaneously produced as it is in the case of a letter of complaint, quotation or a letter requesting assistance which are part of a later stage within the relation. The overall purpose of these texts at any stage is to persuade the customers to buy their products or services. However, letters are more oriented towards establishing the social contact, whereas the other two are more related to providing information on the product and services.

The audience

As stated before, the texts are used to promote products from company to company. Both the addresser and addressee have similar profiles. They are regarded as experts

with similar status within the organisational hierarchy. Status is here associated with the position that interactants hold within the institution. Typically, the audience are managers of a given department, mostly sales or technical departments. This can be verified by the fact that the actual recipients of the texts are identified by using names of individuals or names associated with institutional settings and jobs, as can be seen in the text themselves and envelopes. Another feature which characterises the profile of the interactants in this particular case is the expertise which both seem to share within the field.

3.2.3.2 Some textual properties of promotional texts

An overall description of the most salient physical properties of the target texts in both languages is provided below. A sample of each type of promotional text used in this study is given in the appendix.

Sales promotion letters

A sales promotion letter is defined as an ‘unsolicited letter addressed to a selected group of prospective customers, individuals or company in order to persuade them to buy a product or service’ (Bhatia, 1993: 45). As part of the generic features associated with letters, its individualised nature can be seen in the provision of clear signalling of the addressee and addresser and other textual interpersonal clues such as ‘salutation’ and ‘closing’.

Company literature

As said before, the name company literature is typically used by business representatives to refer to leaflets, brochures and various types of forms that companies use to promote

its image and products. Reference to this name is commonly found in covering letters where the writers openly refer to them as 'the enclosure of some literature'. The layout of this type of text varies; it may range from a single slip to an entire booklet. In contrast to letters, there is no specific addressee or addresser within the text itself, thus interpersonal clues such as salutations and closing are absent in this type of text. Leaflets and order forms are rarely signalled as such. However, it is possible to find brochures labelled as, for example, Electrochemistry brochure.

Catalogues

Catalogues, in general, can be described as colony texts (Hoey, 1986). The primary purpose is to deliver information on the same type of features: e.g. properties, availability, applications and advantages concerning a series of product ranges. In catalogues the information is fully standardised. Specific reference to the addressee is not given in the text as it is with the case of letters. However, as with the other text types they have a specialised audience in the sense that only experts in the field can make sense of the information provided.

3.2.3.3 The corpora

The corpora analysed in this work consist of 51 Spanish and 61 English texts which have been produced by companies in Colombia and England. Statistics regarding the number of texts and clauses in the corpora is provided in Table 3.1

Type of text	Number of texts in		Number of clauses in	
	Spanish	English	Spanish	English
Sales letters	33	28	404	413
Company literature	11	19	245	270
Catalogues	7	16	98	319
Total	51	63	747	1001

Table 3.1: Number of texts and clauses in the corpora

3.3 The theoretical methodological framework of the study

The cross-linguistic comparison in the study of the interrelationship between language and social context is here approached through a contrastive functional analysis. This type of analysis is seen in the literature as a research methodology (Chesterman, 1998). It is based on the systemic functional approach to the study of language. The research methodology here involves theoretical concepts regarding contrastive analysis within the functional approach to language and the analytical framework of categories used in the analysis.

3.3.1 The comparative component

As stated before, the main research question which this study seeks to answer is whether writers of two languages and different cultural backgrounds, having similar purposes and audience, realise similar interpersonal meanings through similar language choices to interact with the reader. In order to answer this question, the study is constructed around a comparative/contrastive component, which involves a cross-linguistic analysis of three types of promotional texts written in English and Spanish used in different cultural settings.

The choice of a contrastive analysis in two languages, as explained earlier, is based on the assumption that, if language reflects the context in which it is produced, the choice of interpersonal meanings in the two languages should be associated with values and beliefs inherent in the culture. The context of culture in Malinowskian terms determines the nature of the code.

Since English and Spanish are said to share a common code as part of the 'Standard average European' (Whorf, quoted in Halliday, 1994: xxx) as the result of historical fusion, the cultural closeness suggests that there will be many similarities. However, it could be argued that over 500 hundred years Colombian society may have undergone changes in its values and beliefs so that there may be small, but significant differences in the choice of language to express interpersonal meanings in each culture. Halliday (1994) argues that 'as a language is manifested through its texts, a culture is manifested through its situations' (p xxxi). Although the study in both languages is situated in the context of promoting, it is possible that the social activity of promoting goods and services follows conventions that may be influenced by cultural features, which may have evolved differently. Therefore, the contrastive analysis in the two languages will allow us to explore the extent to which patterns of interpersonal meanings may be associated with specific features inherent in each cultural setting or in the system of each language.

Moreover, the choice of a comparative analysis of the discourse of promotion across text types in both languages allows us to investigate the extent to which the choice of interpersonal meanings may also be the result of generic constraints associated with each particular text type within the overall persuasive goal of the discourse of promotion. The interpersonal strategies in sales promotional letters used by writers to convince their

customers may vary from those used in catalogues and company literature. This can be seen as the result of factors such as the individualised vs. generalised audiences to which letters and the other text types are respectively addressed. Thus, we have two potential dimensions of difference: from text type to text type within promotional discourse, and between a text type in each language.

3.3.2 The analytical framework

A central question in the study of language in a particular context is related to how language is used to establish and maintain social relations with others. Considering the persuasive goal of the discourse of promotion, the focus of the analysis within the comparative component is centred on the kind of strategies writers adopt to attain their goals. Thus, the lexico-grammatical analysis of interpersonal meanings within a systemic functional approach is central here, because it allows us to explore the writer's attempts to influence the reader's behaviour when promoting goods and services. It is also central because it allows us to explore social values in different cultural backgrounds encoded in the patterns of interpersonal meanings.

3.3.2.1 Categories of the analysis of interpersonal meanings

Within the contrastive functional analysis, the interconnection between language and social context is examined here by exploring interpersonal meanings realised through lexico-grammatical choices within similar contextually defined parameters (e.g. generic purpose, audience, and generic constraints) in the three text types in both languages. The set of lexico-grammatical resources that this study employs to identify interpersonal meanings in the two languages are grouped into four main areas as introduced in chapter two: reference, speech functions, appraisal or evaluation, and modality.

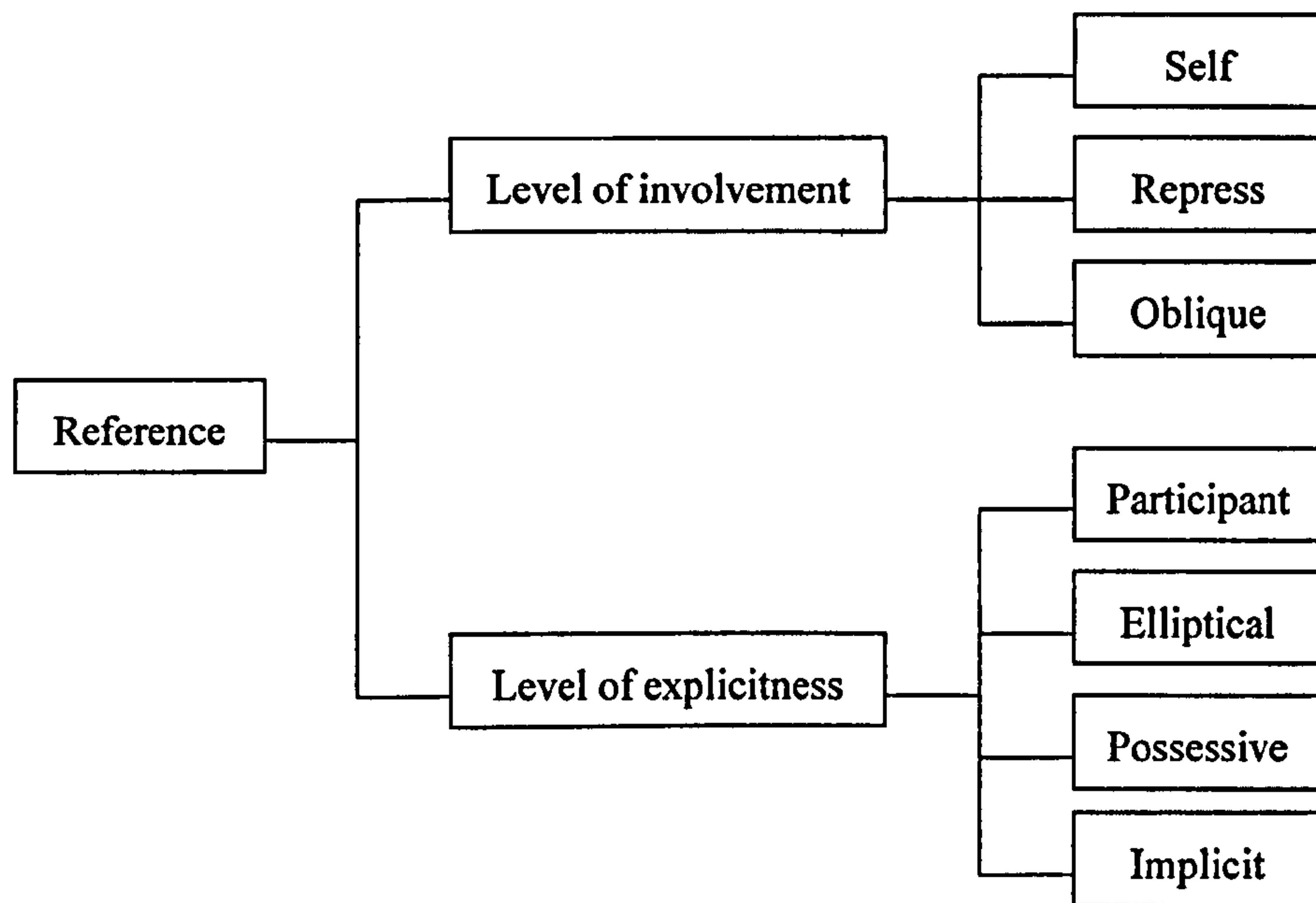


Figure 3.2: Categories of the reference system

The categories for the comparison of interpersonal meanings across languages and across text types are derived from the existing categories in the literature. However, in the analysis of language in context it is common to find that linguistic models do not always conform to all types of language resources and meanings realised in all texts types. Therefore, the starting point in the analysis was to explore the viability of the existing categories provided in the literature to identify and classify the various language resources used by writers of promotional texts to interact with the reader. The outcomes of this process, including details regarding the problems and changes made to the categories, are outlined at the start of the analytical chapters 4 to 7.

The first part of the analysis deals with reference. It is concerned with one important set of language resources used by writers to involve themselves and others in the interaction, and with the degree of explicitness with which they appear involved in it. The analysis is based on the identification of language resources referred to in the

literature as 'terms of address'. In this work, the study of terms of address involves both names and pronominal choices writers use to refer to themselves and others in the interaction, as explained in chapter 2. However, the system of categories used in the analysis of promotional texts is largely context-driven (see Figure 3.2). A detailed analysis of this system is provided in chapter 4.

The second part of the study is related to analysis of speech functions. It is based on Halliday's (1994) model of the analysis of the clause as an exchange (see also Thompson, 1996). This analysis is concerned with the identification of the fundamental speech roles of giving information, giving goods and services, demanding information and demanding goods and services, which are labelled as 'offers', 'statements', 'questions' and 'commands' respectively. The choices through which these roles are enacted can typically be found within the mood element of a clause (Halliday, 1994; Thompson, 1996). Thus, in order to identify the above functional labels, the analysis involves two aspects: the identification of the mood choice and of the enacted roles realised in the mood choice. For instance, 'statements are most naturally expressed by **declarative** clauses; questions by **interrogative** clauses; and commands by **imperative** clauses' (Thompson, 1996: 40, emphasis in original). Offers are not associated with any mood choice, since they require a non-verbal action; in this case, it is said that 'language is functioning to achieve a non-linguistic end' (40). It should be noted that although the analysis is guided by the categories of speech functions provided in Halliday (1994:40), the final set of categories used in the statistical analysis is context-driven. It is generally agreed that mood choice and speech functions do not always match in a simple one-to-one relationship. In most cases, it is the context which ultimately determines the function of the clause. Table 3.2 shows the aspects considered in the analysis. See chapter 5 for further details of categories used in the comparative analysis.

Speech Functions		
Purpose/function	Enacted role	Typical Mood choice
Statement	Providing information	Declaratives
Offer	Providing goods and services	—
Questions	Demanding information	Interrogatives
Command	Demanding goods and services	Imperatives

Table 3.2: Categories of speech functions (after Halliday, 1994: 69 and Thompson, 1996: 40)

The third part of the study refers to evaluation or appraisal. The analysis is based on Martin's categories as described in chapter 2. That is, it involves language resources grouped under three major categories: 'AFFECT, JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION' (Martin, 2000: 145, emphasis in original) (see Figure 3.3).

In principle, Martin's categories were largely applicable in the analysis in both languages. However, as Martin (2000: 161) argues, evaluation is field dependent. Therefore, it is inevitable to find that some of the appraisal resources need to be adapted in the model. A detailed description of the categories used in the comparative analysis is provided in chapter 6.

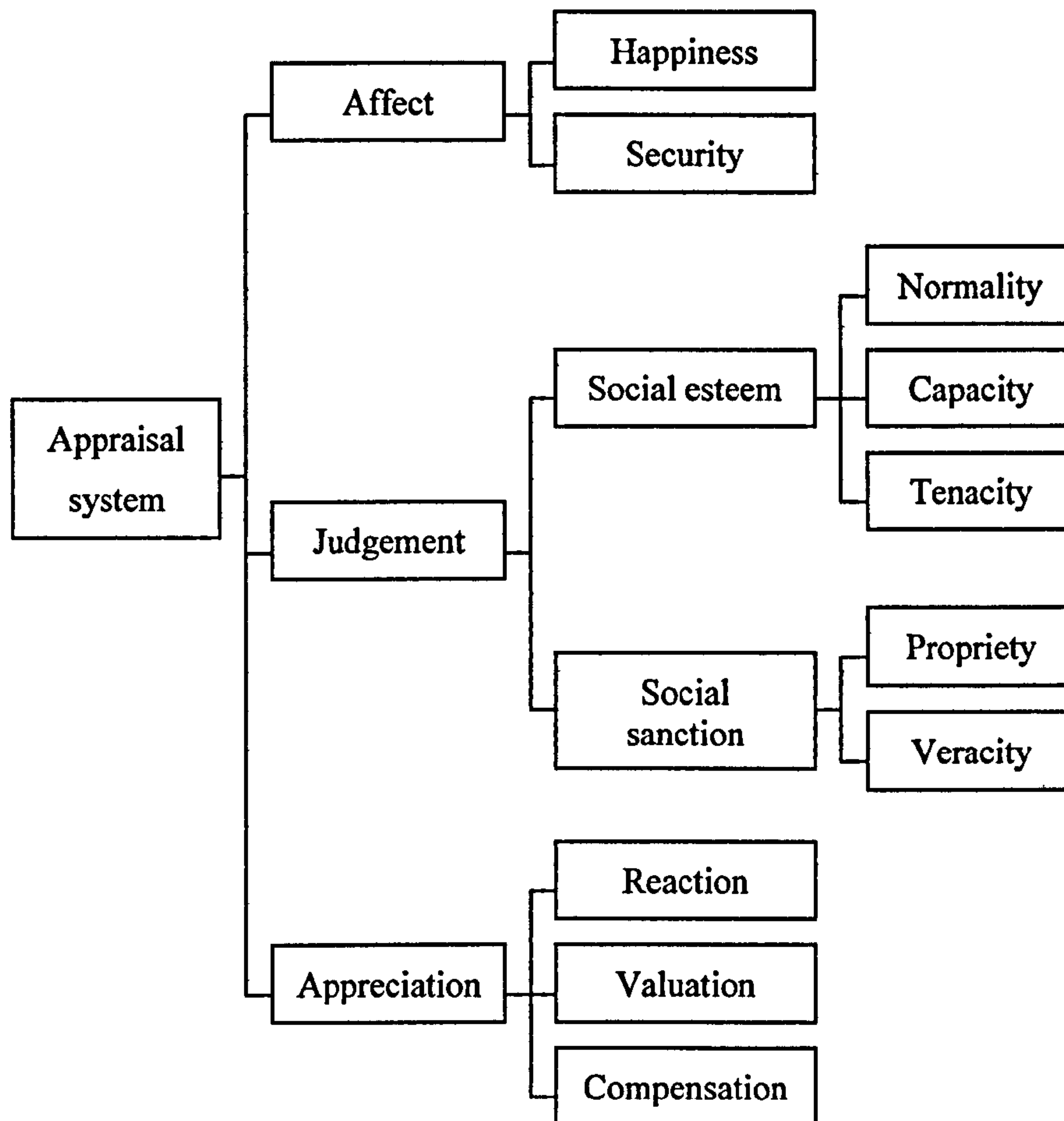


Figure 3.3: Categories in the appraisal system

The last part of the analysis refers to modality. The analysis is based on Halliday's systems of modality and involves the analysis of modalisation and modulation as well as the study of modal value and modal responsibility (see Figure 3.4). Nevertheless, as stated in chapter 2, in order to facilitate the comparison the system of modality has been extended to other syntactic forms in Spanish which convey modal meanings similar to those ones conveyed through modal expressions in English. For further detail of the categories used in the comparative analysis see chapter 7.

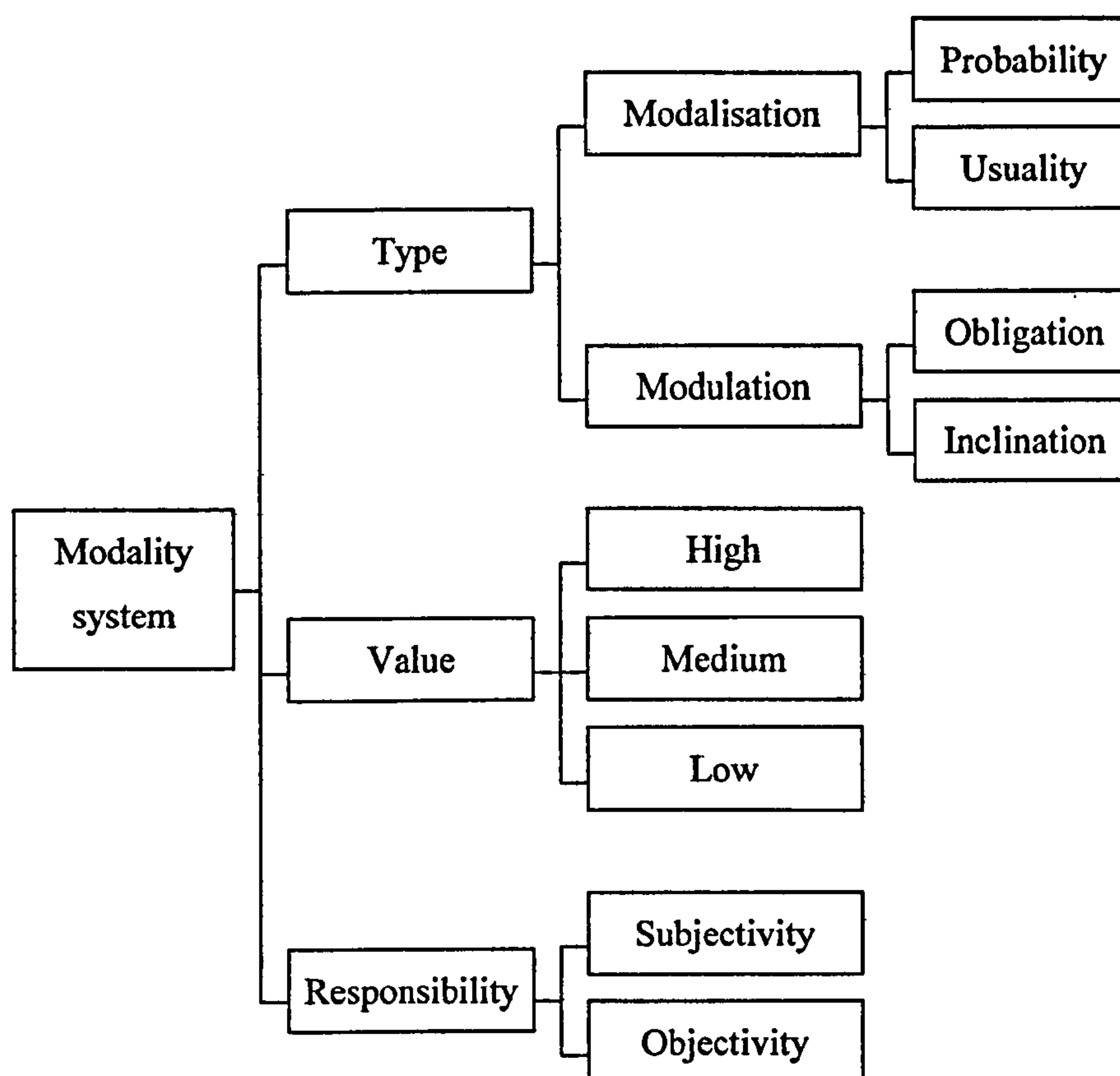


Figure 3.4: Categories in the modality system

3.4 Procedures followed in the analysis of data

3.4.1 The unit of analysis

In this work, the unit of the analysis is the clause. All types of clauses, i.e. independent, dependent, embedded, finite and non-finite were counted. This procedure will ease the identification of the various possibilities in which interactants are placed within the clause. It should be noted that in the analysis of mood, it is the main clause which bears the grammatical choice. Thus, the counting of occurrences is typically based on the number of main clauses. However, in the present work, the mood choice identified in the main clause was also counted as a grammatical choice for the other types of clause.

3.4.2 The statistical analysis

3.4.2.1 Rationale

Although promotional texts, which are composed by different writers, show variations in their textual properties, e.g. text length, they serve a similar purpose, to persuade customers to buy their services or products. In this study, the main research question is to find out the extent to which writers of promotional texts, which have been written in Spanish and English, use the same conventions to achieve their pragmatic purpose. Therefore, we are confronted with the task of identifying common features or significant differences in the two groups of texts. That task becomes complex by the inherent variation of text properties with regard to length mentioned above.

The following examples may shed some light on the difficulties that will have to be faced. Let us assume first that the corpus consists only of two texts, one Spanish and one English. It seems plausible that we can discuss straightforwardly the linguistic properties of the two texts by a direct qualitative analysis. However, if more texts are added to the corpus, we shall see that the text length can vary significantly from text to text in the sample. In that case, the occurrence of a linguistic feature, e.g. the usage of the word 'we', is clearly influenced by the property of text length or more precisely, the number of clauses. That is, we may observe that the word 'we' is more often used in a long text than in a short one. The calculation of the frequency of linguistic features (i.e. dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in a text) provides us with a practical tool which allows for the comparison between individual texts in the corpus irrespective of the number of clauses.

However, at this stage we are still unable to identify general features found in a group of texts, e.g. Spanish promotional texts, which is essential to answer the main research question stated above. Therefore, we will have to carry out a quantitative analysis, in which the mean or average of frequencies of specific features in each group of texts is being calculated. But how reliable are the calculated frequency means, in particular in the case of a small number of texts? When will we be justified in saying that frequency x is larger than frequency y ? These important questions can be answered with the application of the statistical treatment of errors, in which the spread of individual frequencies and the number of samples are taken into account. In the following section, an introduction to the statistical methods and criteria used in this work will be given.

3.4.2.2 Statistical method

In the analysis, the frequency of each category and subcategory has been calculated by dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in each text. Then, the frequency mean for each language and text type has been obtained. In order to be able to establish similarities and differences in the tendency in the frequency of use of each category and subcategory per text type in each language, the standard error of each frequency value has also been calculated. The standard error of the mean Δx is defined in the literature as

$$\Delta x = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where n is the number of values, i.e. number of texts, and σ the standard deviation. It should be noted that in order, for example, to halve the standard error, the number of texts would have to be increased fourfold, which means that the larger the sample, the more reliable the frequency value will be. Thus, the standard error allows us to find out

how closely the mean value is a measure of the true value. Taking two standard errors on each side of the mean provides us with a confidence limit of 95 % probability to find the real mean (Yates, 1997). For example, given the frequency value of 73% and standard error $\pm 4\%$, we can say with 95% probability that the real value of the frequency lies between 81% and 65 %.

In this work, a difference between mean frequencies is regarded as not being clearly resolved if at least one of the two means lies within the confidence limit of the other. Conversely, two means are taken as different, only if both means lies outside the confidence limit of the other one. The following example illustrates the above concept. The frequency values of statements in text type 1 (catalogues), text type 2 (company literature) and 3 (letters) are given in Table 2.3. At first glance, we could say that statements occur at a higher frequency in text type 2 than in text type 3. However, if we take twice the standard error ($\pm 8\%$) of the frequency value of statements in text type 3, (47%), we see that the mean frequency value (54%) lies between 39% and 55%.

Statements	Calculations	Values
Text type 1	Mean	73%
	$2 \Delta x$	$\pm 8\%$
	Confidence limit	65% - 81%
Text type 2	Mean	54%
	$2 \Delta x$	$\pm 10\%$
	Confidence limit	44% - 64%
Text type 3	Mean	47%
	$2 \Delta x$	$\pm 8\%$
	Confidence limit	39% - 55%

Table 3.3: Example of standard errors and confidence limits

What this means is that, in this example, a difference in the frequency of use cannot be straightforwardly resolved, since the mean frequency of statements in text type 2 lies

within the confidence limit of the mean frequency of statements in text type 3. If we take the confidence limit of text type 1, on the other hand, we can see that a difference between text type 1 and the other two can be resolved, since the mean value in text type 1 is not found within the confidence limits of text type 2 and 3. Similarly, none of the two mean values of text types 2 and 3 is found within the confidence limit of text type 1.

In brief, knowing the standard error of the frequency values of categories and subcategories in the data allows us to assess more accurately the likelihood of their frequency values being similar or different. For clarity, the double standard errors are also given in the tables in the statistical analysis.

4 The analysis of reference

4.1 Introduction

The analysis of reference in this work involves the identification of the language resources used by writers to refer to themselves and to the reader in the interaction. The use of semantic resources in the form of pronouns and other terms of address enables us to see the extent to which interactants are committed in the relation and the implications that such involvement can have in the relation.

As stated in chapter 3, the categories used in the analysis of reference are context driven. This section provides a description of the various categories derived from the context driven analysis. It also provides the results from the statistical analysis which allows us to compare the various types of involvement across languages and text types in the discourse of promotion. A discussion of findings is provided at the end of the chapter.

4.2 Categories

According to the analysis, the ways in which the writer and the reader can be referred to appear to be foregrounded or backgrounded along two clines, one moving from the most direct to indirect references and the other covering various degrees of explicitness. Thus, the language resources used by the writers of the target texts to refer to both interactants have been grouped according to the level of involvement projected onto each interactant and the degree of explicitness with which each level of involvement is mentioned or implied in the text. Figure 4.1 shows the main categories derived from the above criteria.

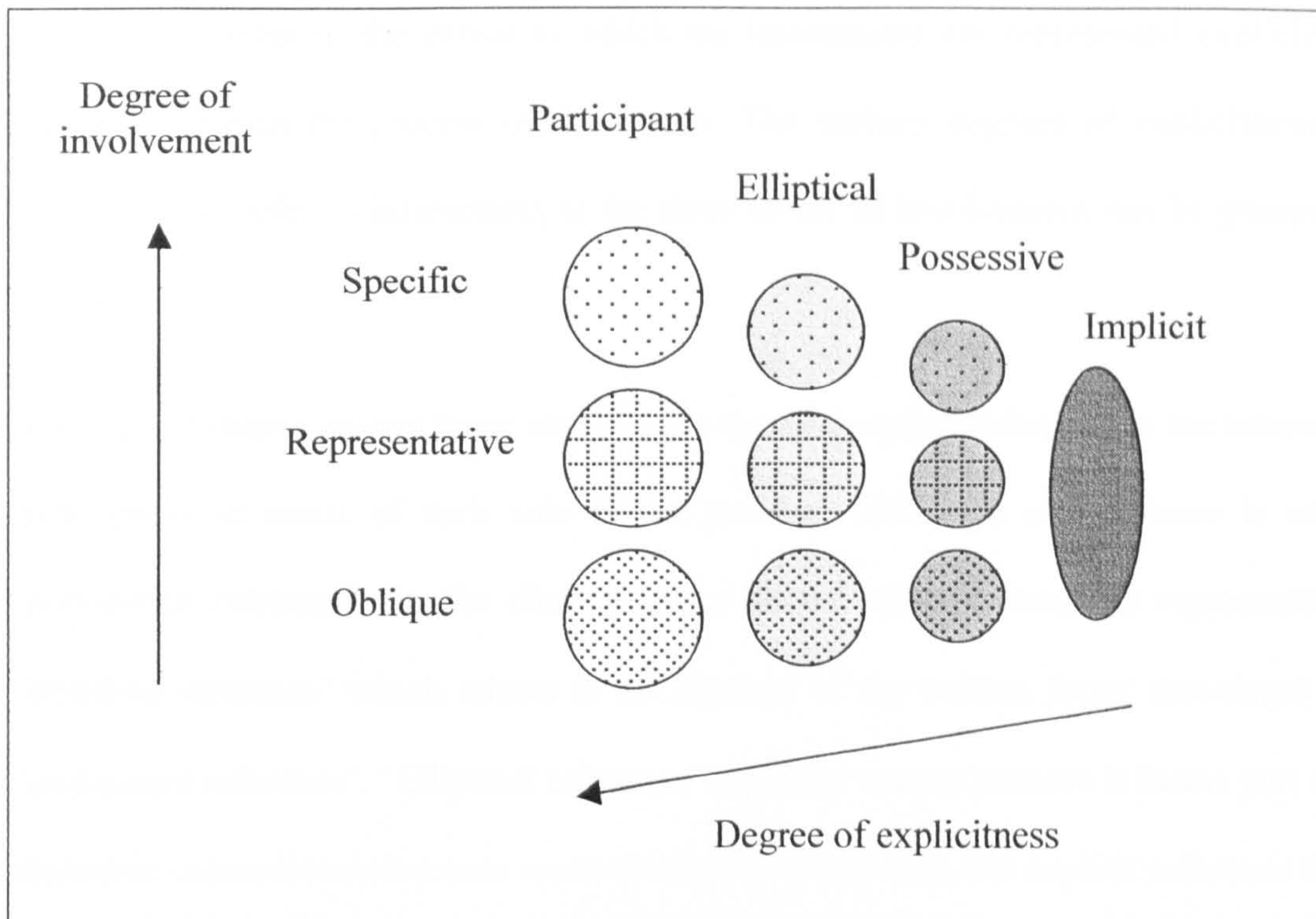


Figure 4.1: Clines of involvement and explicitness

The degree of involvement comprises categories indicating three levels of involvement: direct, less direct and indirect. Direct involvement is associated with those forms which project the interactant as personally or individually committed in the interaction through the first and second person singular pronouns. Such forms are referred to here as ‘specific reference’. Less direct involvement is seen through those expressions which portray the writer or the reader as part of a group through the first and second person plural pronouns. These cases are covered under the name ‘representative reference’. Finally, indirect involvement is related to those cases in which a third person entity can be used to ‘stand in for’ the writer or the reader. This type of reference is labelled as ‘oblique reference’.

The above three forms of indicating degrees of involvement can be expressed at the same time with various degrees of explicitness. It should be noted that ‘explicitness’ is

here used to refer to the extent to which the interactants are represented explicitly as playing a role in the process of the clause. The various degrees of explicitness that writers use to refer to interactants at the three levels of involvement can be grouped as follows.

The highest degree covers those cases where there is explicit reference to the interacting participants in terms of their role in the process. This type of reference is named 'participant reference'. In the cline, a lower degree of explicitness is represented by 'elliptical reference' which relates to the absence of the written forms associated with 'participant reference'. 'Elliptical reference' typically occurs because it forms part of an idiomatic expression or because syntactically or stylistically, the explicit reference to the interacting participants can be omitted. This happens with ellipsis where the explicit reference has been previously given. In such cases, the referring expression can, in principle, be recovered from the co-text. Further down the explicit continuum a third degree of interactant involvement can be seen in the use of possessive adjectives in a nominal group. In this case, reference to interacting participants can be recovered through the analysis of transitivity roles not in the clause itself but in an implied process. By construing a more congruent form of the nominal group, the interactant is projected as the carrier of attributes. For example, in a nominal group such as 'our well-proven HREELS Delta 0.5', the implied role of the interactant may be regarded as 'we have the well-proven HREELS Delta 0.5'.

At the end of the explicitness continuum, there is a set of categories which include various forms of implying the presence of the writer and the reader, without any question of the reference being elliptical. This group of categories is labelled as 'implicit reference'. The direct/indirect continuum is normally neutralised in such cases, since the

referring expression is not recoverable. They may, however, suggest various degrees of direct and indirect involvement of the interactants in the sense that the addressee or addresser can be perceived as an 'individual', 'group' or 'institution'. This form of reference typically occurs in the form of 'passivisation' and 'nominalisation', 'attributes' and 'benefactive processes'.

The above categories can, on the whole, be applied reasonably consistently to findings from the analysis of references to both interactants in the target texts. The next sections describe how the above categories work in each case.

4.3 Categories in English

4.3.1 Reference to the writer (self-reference)

Writers of the target texts project themselves in the interaction with various degrees of self reference, ranging from the more personalised expressions 'I', 'me', 'we', 'us' to the 'name of the company'. It should be noted that 'company' is also included here, since the overall purpose of the texts generally requires that 'writer and company' be projected as a whole.

The various ways of expressing self-involvement can be grouped into three basic categories: those concerned with specific self-reference (I), representative self-reference (we) and oblique self-reference (company). Each of these forms of self-involvement or self-reference may also have various degrees of explicitness as mentioned above.

		Degree of explicitness			
		Participant	Elliptical	Attribute possessive attached	Implicit
Degree of involvement	Specific	I/me	[I/me]	my	Passivisation Nominalisation
	Representative	we/us	[we]	our	
	Oblique	company's name	[company's name and related]	company's name and related	

Table 4.1: Reference to the writer in English

Table 4.1 provides the main features of the categories indicating the degrees of explicitness of the three basic forms of writer self-reference found in the analysis as well as the implicit forms.

4.3.1.1 Specific or individual self-reference

This category includes forms such as 'I', 'me', 'my', elliptical self-reference '[...]' and implicit references through nominalisation and passivisation.

Participant specific self-reference

This category comprises those expressions which involve the writer as personally committed. It covers both the highest degree of personal involvement and the most explicit way of writers providing self-reference. It is represented by 'I' and 'me'.

- [4.1] I am pleased to enclose our new price list, effective until the end of March 1999. (Letter E-14, cl. 1)
- [4.2] You should normally be able to get hold of me or Clive McGovern at the Coherent Office. (Letter E-6, cl. 10)

Elliptical specific self-reference

'[I]' represents the second degree of explicitness within the highest level of writer involvement. It occurs in cases where 'I' is not explicitly written in the text, because it forms part of an idiomatic expression as in [4.3]. This also happens with ellipsis where the explicit reference has been previously given, as in [4.4].

[4.3] [I] Looking forward to hearing from you. (Letter E-6, cl. 13)

[4.4] I found the discussion very helpful and [I] very much hope ... (Letter E-26, cl. 2)

Possessive attribute 'attached' specific self-reference

This type of reference represents the third degree of explicitness. It is realised through the possessive form 'my'. Although it refers to the writer's individual involvement, its shade is less visible than in the previous categories of self-reference. In fact, in the case of possessive forms, the writer can be announced through the analysis of transitivity roles. The visibility of the writer as individually involved is projected as the carrier of attributes. In the example below ([4.5]), 'my colleague' can be read as 'I have a colleague', where 'I' refers to writer's individual involvement.

[4.5] ... and returned by the end of this week to my colleague ... at the fax number given. (Letter E-15, cl. 6)

4.3.1.2 Representative self-reference

In this type of self-reference, the writer and the company appear to be as one entity. It also takes various degrees of explicitness.

Participant representative self-reference

This constitutes the most explicit type of reference of the intermediate level of the writer's involvement. Such reference is given through 'we' and 'us':

- [4.6] As the leader in vacuum technology, we take the pride ... (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 1)
 [4.7] This agreement allows us to offer EELS as part of our complete system solutions. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 15)

Elliptical representative self-reference

This reference corresponds to the omission of 'we' in the clause. In some cases, the interpretation of the writer as being explicitly involved in the interaction may not be greatly affected by the omission of 'we', as in [4.8]. The omission occurs in a clause in which 'we' (as subject) is shared with a previous clause in a paratactic relationship. In contrast, the interpretation of the understood 'subject' of a non-finite clause as '[we]' in [4.9] represents a less explicit degree of involvement than in [4.8].

- [4.8] We have extensive experience ... and [we] are now the second largest pontoon manufacturer development and customer service. (Letter E-13, cl. 5)
 [4.9] We are now expanding our business activities in order to [we] offer an even better service to our customers. (Letter E-21, cls. 7-8)

Possessive attribute 'attached' representative self-reference

This reference is made up of the possessive adjective 'our' plus an attached entity associated with the addresser or company. The use of this reference projects the reader as the 'carrier of attributes', e.g. 'our venture with Alcatel' can be read as 'we have a venture with Alcatel', where the writer in the form of 'we', as a representative of the company, is the carrier of the attribute 'venture with Alcatel'. For this reason, this case is also considered as a form of conveying writer self-reference. Similarly, 'we have skilled

technicians’, ‘we have a specialist Licensing Department’ and ‘we have a sales office’ are plausible paraphrases of the underlined expressions in the examples below.

- [4.10] ... our highly skilled technicians have been trained by Alcatel senior engineers. (Letter E-21, cl. 26)
- [4.11] Our specialist Licensing Department on 01923 471351 will in addition be able to help. (Letter E-20, cl. 9)
- [4.12] ... please contact our sales office immediately. (Letter E-7, cl. 4)

4.3.1.3 Oblique self-reference

This is given through third person reference such as the company name and company related entities such as personnel and other entities. These forms could plausibly be replaced by ‘we’ without affecting the entity being referred to. Since the categories have been explained above, here I will simply give illustrative examples of each.

Participant oblique self-reference

- [4.13] In July 1994 Omicron celebrated its 10th birthday. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 1)
- [4.14] In North America Omicron Associates opened a western regional office in Denver, Colorado. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 6)

Elliptical oblique self-reference

- [4.15] Russell pH is based in Auchtermuchty, Scotland, where the company has a purpose-built manufacturing plant [Russel] providing top-quality electrochemical sensors to Europe, the U.S.A. and the rest of the world. (Comp. lit. E-19, cls. 3-5)

Attribute possessive attached oblique self-reference

- [4.16] Since then he has been responsible for training both customers and Leybold's own personnel in vacuum technology. (Comp. lit. E-14, cl. 21)

4.3.1.4 Implicit forms of self-reference

Implicit self-reference takes place through passivisation and nominalisation.

Passivisation

This is the case where the writer/company can be seen as the potential ‘actor’, ‘senser’, etc. of the process. Based on Thompson’s (1998) concept of resonance, which he illustrates with cases which imply the reader as having a beneficiary role in particular types of texts even in wordings where this implication is not made explicit, it could be similarly argued that this type of implicit reference is an example of the writer being projected typically as the benefactor source within a benefactive process. The global pragmatic goal pursued in the texts, of offering services to the reader, both allows writers to project themselves in the interaction indirectly and justifies analysing the cases as implicit self-reference. Passive processes seem to occur more frequently within a benefactive process as in [4.17], but it is also relatively common to find passivation within non-benefactive processes as in [4.18].

[4.17] Inventory items are offered for sale subject to availability. (Letter E-2, cl. 5)

[4.18] Our manufacturing process and site installation works are carried out in accordance with British Standards and codes of practice. (Letter E-13, cl. 11)

Nominalisation

As a resource to appear less visible in the interaction, the writer as an individual, a group or an institution will typically be seen as the filler of certain kinds of implicit roles, because of the macro-function of the texts allows the writer to use implicit self-reference without being concerned that the reader will identify the role-bearer wrongly; and it also allows the presence of the writer to pervade the text even when not explicitly referred to.

Within the nominalised forms, the presence of the writer can be recognised when we reconstruct their congruent forms, e.g. [4.19] can be understood as an action to be undertaken by the writer himself, a section of company, or a group of people within the

institution. The reconstruction of a more congruent form 'we/the company will not change the prices' allows us to uncover the writer in the interaction.

[4.19] ... that there will be no changes in the prices. (Letter E-30, cl. 7)

4.3.2 Reference to the reader

The same clines can basically be applied to the projection of the reader in the interaction in the target text (see Table 4.2). Within the direct-indirect orientation, readers may be referred to as being personally involved. However, there is a morpho-syntactic difference which affects this cline. In English, it is not possible to identify who is 'you' on a purely linguistic basis, i.e. whether the writer is referring to an individual or a group. In Spanish, on the other hand, the distinction is made through the use of 'tu' and 'usted' for singular, 'ustedes' and 'vosotros' for plural. In English, the interpretation of the addressee as being projected as an individual or group can only be accessed through contextual clues, and it may not always be possible to decide which is intended. More indirect reference to the reader is given through third person forms, which can be used to 'stand in for' the reader. These two basic forms of involvement can also be expressed with various degrees of explicitness.

A further group of reader references can be found at the end of the explicit-implicit orientation. As with the writer, implicit reference to the addressee can be made through passivisation and nominalisation, but it can also be recognised in other linguistic forms expressing attributes or benefactive processes.

		Degree of explicitness			
		Participant	Elliptical	Attribute possessive attached	Implicit
Degree of involvement	Specific	you	[you] imperatives	your + reader related	Nominalisation
	Representative	Third person reader related	Third person reader related	their+ reader related	Passivisation
	Oblique	customer's, reader's name	[customer's, reader's name]	[company's related]	Benefactive processes Attributes

Table 4.2: Reference to the reader in English

The various ways used by the writer to refer to the reader can thus be grouped as follows:

4.3.2.1 Specific or personal reader reference

Participant specific reader reference

This reference is conveyed through the second singular personal pronoun form: 'you'.

[4.20] ... we hope you find this book useful and would ask you to pass it when you have finished with it. (Comp. lit. E-1, cls. 12-16)

As stated above, the distinction of 'you' as referring to one or more addressees in the above sentences needs to be studied in relation to other contextual variables.

Elliptical specific reader reference

This category mainly relates to the ellipsis of 'you' in imperative forms.

[4.21] Please [you] do not hesitate to contact me. (Letter E-26, cl. 26)

Possessive attribute 'attached' specific reader reference

There seem to be two ways of using possessive forms to express a less explicit degree of direct involvement. The first one projects the reader as the carrier of attributes: e.g. 'your company' in [4.22] can be read as 'you have a company', which includes 'you' as carrier and 'company' as the attribute. The second one projects the reader in different transitivity roles, by including possessive reference to the reader within a nominalised form: e.g. by construing a more congruent form of 'your requirement' [4.23] and [4.23] as 'you require something', it is possible to identify the reader as being projected as sayer or senser.

[4.22] Providing saving for you and your company on small as well as larger orders. (Letter E-20, cl. 4)

[4.23] We would be very pleased to tailor such courses to your requirements. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 27)

4.3.2.2 Oblique reader reference

As in the case of oblique self reference to the writer, this type of reference to the reader is expressed in 3rd person forms, i.e. the use of nouns and possessive pronouns which can be used to project the addressee with a lower degree of direct involvement (as less directly involved). The reader in this type of reference can also be expressed with various degree of explicitness.

Participant oblique reader reference

This type of reference is found in those cases where the writer uses nouns which can be interpreted as referring to the reader. As with participant oblique self-reference discussed above, these forms can be replaced by 'you' without affecting the entity being referred to. However, the use of this type of reference projects the reader as less committed in the

interaction. Thompson and Thetela (1995) state that switching from the normal form of referring to the reader ('you') by a third person form is used by the writer 'to project explicitly the reader-in-the-text s/he aims at' (p 119). By referring to the reader as 'companies or institutions' as in [4.24] the writer projects the reader as an institutionalised entity, which implies the reader as being less committed in the interaction.

- [4.24] Companies or institutions may wish to arrange special courses for their staff.
(Comp. lit. 12, cl. 26)

Possessive attribute 'attached' oblique reader reference

This reference probably represents the lowest degree of the reader's involvement found in the analysis. Implicit reference to the reader in this case is given through the use of a possessive form in the third person, e.g. 'their staff' as in [4.24]. As can be seen, the reader's involvement is very weak in this example.

4.3.2.3 Implicit reference to the reader

Implicit reference to the reader is expressed through passive processes, nominalised forms, benefactive processes in the simple present tense and attributes.

Passivisation

The wording in [4.25] implies the reader as the potential actor, senser, etc. of the process.

- [4.25] ... and it is so small that it can be fitted as easy as standard LEED optics. (Letter E-1, cl. 3-4)

Nominalisation

As with the implicit reference to the writer, the presence of the reader can be relatively perceived through a nominalised form. By construing of a more congruent form for [4.26] as ‘you can request a copy’, it can be argued that it is the reader who is represented as expected to make the request.

[4.26] ... copies of which are available on request [you request]. (Letter E-7, cl. 7)

Benefactive processes

This group of implicit reference to the reader mirrors the oblique reference to the writer in the role of an offerer, mentioned above. The wording involves benefactive processes such as ‘offer’, ‘provides’, ‘give’, etc. These are processes which inherently have a beneficiary, but this role is frequently left implicit.

[4.27] As well as basic supply and installation contracts, we offer a full turnkey package. (Letter E-13, cl. 8)

[4.28] This high quality LEED/Auger optic attachment provides a large 104° viewing angle. (Comp. lit. E2, cl. 1)

Attribute in relational processes

This is the case where the use of attributes such as ‘available’, ‘of any further help’ as in [4.29] and [4.30] implies the presence of the reader.

[4.29] ... that there are 4 wafers only of them 1 available. (Letter E-4, cl. 7)

[4.30] In the meantime though, if I can be of any further help ... (Letter E-3, cl. 9)

The sense of involvement tends to be weaker here than with passivisation or even nominalisation; but the reader can be seen when reconstruing a more congruent form of each example: as in ‘You can avail yourself’ for the former, and ‘I can help you’ for the latter. Again, Thompson’s (1998) concept of resonance is relevant. In other contexts, the

implied presence of the reader might be insignificant; but in these texts, given their function as macro-offers, such choices consistently resonate with the many cases of more overt reader reference in the texts and, especially, with the underlying role of the reader as the beneficiary of the offer.

4.4 Categories in Spanish

Similar categories derived from the analysis of reference to the interacting participants in the English corpus have been identified, to a great extent, in the Spanish corpus.

4.4.1 Reference to the writer (self-reference)

From the analysis of the small corpus, it appears that reference to the writer in the Spanish texts can also be analysed in terms of foregrounding and background clines, from the most direct to indirect ways of referring to themselves and with various degrees of explicitness. Instances of specific or individual, representative and oblique self-reference were similarly found under the categories 'participant', 'elliptical', 'possessive attribute attached' as studied in the English corpus. In addition, implicit reference to the writer was also found within 'nominalised forms' 'passivisation' and 'benefactive processes'. Table 4.3 summarises the main characteristics indicating the degree of explicitness and implicitness of the ways Spanish speaking writers use to refer to themselves in the corpus.

		Degree of explicitness			
		Participant	Elliptical	Attribute possessive attached	Implicit
Degree of involvement	Specific	me, -o (verb ending= yo)	[yo, me]	mi (s)	Nominalisation Passivisation
	Representative	nosotros, -mos (verb ending =nosotros), nos	[nosotros, nos]	nuestro (s)	
	Oblique	company	[company's name and related]	company's related	

Table 4.3: Reference to the writer in Spanish

4.4.1.1 Specific or individual self-reference

Participant specific self-reference

The highest degree of directness and the most explicit way of naming the writer in the texts is given through first person reflexive pronoun 'me'. Unlike in the case of English texts ('I'), no instances of the first person subject pronoun 'yo' were found. Perhaps, this could be explained by the fact that in Spanish the personal subject pronoun is embedded in the verb inflection as in 'me permito' in [4.31]. Thus, the use of the pronoun is seen unnecessary unless, for some particular purposes, it needs stressing.

It could be argued that this type of reference should be regarded as 'elliptical reference' instead. However, in my view, this is not the case, since the writer is explicitly signalled in the verb ending. As explained above, the personal pronoun in subject position is normally omitted without affecting the entity being referred to. Hence, the choice of an explicit personal pronoun can be seen as a marked case.

- [4.31] Me permito presentar a uds, mi nombre y el de mi empresa E&I Servicios Ltda.
(Letter S-8, cl. 1)
(I allow myself to introduce my name and the name of my company E&I Servicios Ltda.)

Elliptical specific self-reference

This type of reference corresponds to the absence of the reflexive pronoun [me] and of any marker of person in the verb ending in dependent non-finite clauses. The predicator makes reference to the writer, which is explicitly signalled in the main clause, e.g. 'atendiendo' [4.32] implies 'me'.

- [4.32] [yo] Atendiendo su solicitud, me permito informarle ... (Letter S-2, cls. 1, 2)
(On answering your request, I allow myself to inform you ...)

- [4.33] Me permito presentar a ustedes, mi nombre y el de mi empresa E&I Servicios Ltda, como una opción de [yo] poder trabajar en sus grandes instalaciones. (Letter S-8, cls. 1-2)
(I allow myself to introduce to you my name and the name of my company E&I Services Ltda, as an alternative of [I] being able to work in your big facilities or company)

Possessive attribute attached specific self-reference

With less visibility than in the previous categories, the writer can also project himself as an individual in the interaction through the possessive first person pronoun 'mi' (though this case occurred only once in the corpus).

- [4.34] Me permito presentar a ustedes, mi nombre y el de mi empresa E&I Servicios Ltda, como una opción de poder trabajar en sus grandes instalaciones. Letter S-8, cl. 1, letter 8)
(I allow myself to introduce to you my name and the name of my company E&I Services Ltda, as an alternative of being able to work in your big facilities or company.)

4.4.1.2 Representative self-reference

Sharing the same degree of involvement with the company, the writer projects both himself/herself and the company as one entity. As in English, this group of reference is also expressed with various degrees of explicitness as follows:

Participant representative self-reference

The most explicit type of representative reference is given through morphological devices such as ‘-mos’ and ‘-nos’ which signal the first plural person ‘nosotros’.

- [4.35] Cualquier información adicional con gusto estaremos suministrándosela. (Letter S-2, cl. 8)

(With pleasure [we] will be providing you any additional information.)

- [4.36] ... dénos la oportunidad de de servirle ... (Letter S-5, cl. 14)

(... give us the opportunity to serve you ...)

Elliptical representative self-reference

This reference corresponds to the absence of ‘nosotros’ and/or the morphological devices which signal the first plural person. As with the case of elliptical cases reported above, this type of reference can be found in dependent non-finite clauses whose main verb shares the subject of the main clause.

- [4.37] De la manera más atenta nos dirigimos a usted para [nosotros] ofrecerle todo lo relacionado con la iluminación tanto decorativa como industrial. (Letter S-9, cls. 1, 2)

(In the most cordial way we address to you to offer you everything related to both decorative and industrial illumination.)

Possessive attribute attached representative self-reference

As in English, this type of reference is made up of the possessive adjective ‘nuestra(s)’ or ‘nuestro(s)’ plus an attached entity typically associated with the writer or the

company. The possessive adjective ‘nuestra’ implies both the writer or/and the company as having attributes, e.g. ‘Nuestra Cia [compañía]’ as in [4.38] can be read as ‘nosotros tenemos/poseemos una compañía’ (*we have a company*). In this case, the writer projects himself as part of a group owning the company.

[4.38] Nuestra Cia se complace en ofrecer a Uds, la línea FLOCOM de la Cia FMC especialista en aditivos quimicos, lider no.1 para los procesos de Osmosis Inversa. (Letter S-3, cl. 1)

(Our company is pleased to offer you the FLOCOM line of the FMC Co. specialised in chemical additives, leader No. 1 in reverse osmosis processes.)

[4.39] Este es nuestro lema y también la realidad. (Letter S-6, cl. 2)

(This is our slogan and it is also a fact.)

4.4.1.3 Oblique self-reference

As in English, this reference takes the form of a third person form which typically relates to the name of the company or/and related entities such as personnel or company sections. These entities can be replaced by ‘nosotros’ without affecting the meaning. There are also various degrees of explicitness in which this type of reference can express indirect involvement of the writer. They can be describes as follows:

Participant oblique self-reference

This reference is conveyed through the name of the company. If we replace ‘AWT’ in [4.40] by ‘nosotros’, it will still be understood that it is the company which has the potential to fulfil the promise.

- [4.40] ... de forma que AWT pueda así comprometerse a mantener los productos para Uds. en inventario local. (Letter S-3, cl, 4)
(... so that AWT can in this way be committed to keep the products for you in local stock.)
- [4.41] Conscientes de la importancia del Desarrollo Sostenible como política del Estado Colombiano ante el innegable deterioro del medio ambiente, un grupo de profesionales con vasta experiencia en diferentes disciplinas del conocimiento, ofrece al sector productivo y las entidades ... (Letter S-4, cl. 1)
(Knowing the importance of the sustainable development as a Colombian Policy facing the undeniable deterioration of the environment a group of professionals [experts] with a vast experience in different disciplines of knowledge, offers the manufacturing sector and corporations ...)
- [4.42] Personal altamente calificado y entrenado para poder brindarle una atención integral a sus equipos y a la capacitación de sus operarios en el manejo de los mismos. (Letter S-1, cl. 34)
(Highly qualified and trained staff to offer integral assistance to your equipment and train your workers in handling the equipment.)

Case [4.41] is also considered here as an example of participant oblique reference, although it does not in fact refer to either the name of the company or any other related entity as explained above. However, ‘un grupo profesionales’ could plausibly be read as ‘[nosotros] somos un grupo de profesionales’, that is, reference to the writer is being replaced by a nominal group referring to the group of which he is a part.

Elliptical oblique self-reference

This reference corresponds to the omission of a third person which has been previously referred to. Like other types of elliptical self-reference discussed above, it can be found in non-finite dependent clauses in which the process implies reference to the entity being referred as the subject in the main clause. e.g. ‘responder’ in [4.43] refers back to ‘nuestro Departamento Técnico’.

- [4.43] Así mismo, nuestro Departamento Técnico estará en contacto permanente para [nuestro Departamento Técnico] responder a todas sus preguntas y formular así la dosificación de los productos FMC de acuerdo, al análisis de agua ... (Letter S-3, cl. 5)

(At the same time, our technical department will be in contact [with our Technical Department] to answer all your questions and to formulate in this way the dosage of the products FMC according to the water analysis ...)

- [4.44] ... [Edospina S.A.] suministrando equipo e instalaciones principalmente ... (Letter S-7, cl. 2)

(... [Edospina S.A.] providing equipment and facilities mainly ...)

Possessive attribute attached oblique self-reference

This case can be found in the use of 'su(s)' or 'de' when referring to an entity or feature associated with the company. As any other possessive attribute attached type, it projects the company as having attributes - typically ones that can be of help to meet the customer's needs.

- [4.45] Cualquier información adicional, por favor comunicarse con el Departamento de Ventas industriales de EDOSPINA S.A (Letter S-7, cl. 17)

([For] Any additional information, please get in touch with the Industrial Sales Department of EDOSPINA S. A.)

- [4.46] Desde sus inicios en el año 1991 (DFI de Colombia) ha tenido como premisa fundamental la excelencia en el servicio de sus Clientes. (Comp. Lit. S-1, cl. 24)

(From its foundation in 1991 DFI de Colombia has had as a fundamental principle the excellent service to its customers.)

- [4.47] Los UCON de Unión Carbide son el resultado de 50 años de desarrollo a partir de los polialkilén glicoles para resolver problemas de lubricación industrial. (Comp. lit. S-3, cls. 1-2)

(The Ucons of Unión Carbide are the result of 50 years of development having started with polyalkylene glycols to solve industrial lubrication problems.)

4.4.1.4 Implicit self-reference

Spanish speaking business writers also try to perform implicit roles through various language resources. Such resources appear to be of the same sort as those used by English speaking writers, namely, 'nominalisation' and 'passivisation'.

Passivisation

This reference was found in phrases where the writer can be seen as the potential 'actor', 'senser', 'sayer', etc. By paraphrasing 'Por lo anteriormente explicado' (*as explained above*) ([4.48]) as 'segun [nosotros] hemos explicado anteriormente' (*as [we] have explained above*) the writer can be seen as the sayer in the process.

- [4.48] Por lo anteriormente explicado, los procesos de reacción del fertilizante NUTRIMON 30-6-0 van a conseguir una acción fertilizante inmediata y estable en los cultivos. (Comp. Lit. S-2, cl. 26)

(As explained above, the reactive processes of the fertiliser NUTRIMON 30-6- lead to an immediate and stable fertilising effect on crops.)

Nominalisation

The choice of this type of reference suggests that the writer can be uncovered when reconstruing a more congruent form of nominalised forms, which typically occur as attributes carried by the company or the writer. Such attributes can be seen as offers. The reconstruction of a more congruent form of the underlined nouns could be read as: 'nosotros entregamos los productos enseguida' (*we deliver our product soon after being requested*) ([4.49]); 'nosotros nos comprometemos con nuestros clientes' (*we are committed to our customers*) ([4.50]).

- [4.49] Nuestras existencias permiten la entrega inmediata de los productos solicitados. (Letter S-12, cl. 12)

(Our stock allows us immediate delivery of the requested products.)

[4.50] Este compromiso adquirido con nuestros clientes también nos conlleva al permanente entrenamiento de nuestros ingenieros de Servicio y la cotidiana actualización de conocimientos. (Comp. Lit. S-1, cl. 28)

(This acquired commitment to our customers also leads us to the permanent training of our service engineers and the daily updating of knowledge.)

In some cases, the nominalised forms can be found in phrases which expand or detail the offer as in [4.51] where ‘compromiso’ (*commitment*) and ‘dotación’ (*supplying*) imply the presence of the writer/company as fulfilling the promise.

[4.51] Personal altamente calificado y entrenado para poder brindarle una atención integral a sus equipos y a la capacitación de sus operarios en el manejo de los mismos - Compromiso de existencia de repuestos y Suministros - Dotación de los más modernos instrumentos de laboratorio para el diagnóstico de fallas. - Las mejores Herramientas y los medios más actualizados para la corrección de los problemas y faltas que pueden presentar sus equipos. (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 31-32)

(Highly qualified and trained staff to offer integral assistance to your equipment and train your workers in handling the equipment. - Commitment to the [sufficient] stock of spare parts and supply. - Supplying the most modern instruments of laboratory for the diagnosis of failures. - The best tools and the most updated means for the correction of problems and failures that can present your equipment.)

4.4.2 Reference to the reader

In the Spanish texts, direct reference to the reader was found in two main ways: through specific personal reference and representative reference. Oblique reference is not common in this corpus. That is, indirect ways of expressing reader involvement hardly occurred in this corpus.

The presence of the reader in the text is implied through similar language resources as identified in the analysis of the texts in English, namely, nominalisation, passivisation, benefactive processes and attributes. Table 4.4 summarises the main characteristics indicating the degree of explicitness and implicitness of the ways Spanish writers use to refer to the reader in the interaction.

		Degree of explicitness			
		Participant	Elliptical	Attribute possessive attached	Implicit
Degree of involvement	Specific	tú, te usted, le a/para ti	[tú], [te] [Ud. Uds.] imperatives [a/para ti]	su, sus + reader's related	Nominalisation
	Representative	ustedes, les	[ustedes, les]	sus, su group related	Passivisation
	Oblique	3 rd person reader's related, nouns, se, le, les	[3 rd person reader's related, nouns, se, le, les]	tu(s), su, su(s) + reader's, company's related	Benefactive processes Attributes

Table 4.4: Reference to the reader in Spanish

4.4.2.1 Specific or personal reader reference

Participant specific reader reference

One of the most explicit and direct types of reference to the reader is given through object pronouns 'le' and 'Usted' (UD.) which are formal ways of addressing the reader. Informal ways of addressing the reader, i.e. the personal pronoun 'tú', the object pronoun 'te' or the prepositional group 'a/para ti', were not found.

[4.52] AWT Colombia, le ofrece a UD. una alternativa más económica ... (Letter S-3, cl. 9)

(AWT Colombia, offers you a cost-effective alternative ...)

[4.53] De la manera más atenta nos dirigimos a usted... (Letter S-9, cl. 1)

(In the most cordial way we address to you ...)

Elliptical specific reader reference

There seem to be two ways in which this type of reference occurs. The first one is the omission of 'usted' in imperative sentences. However, the morphology of the verb in the imperative form includes a morphological feature which allows us to identify the entity

being referred to. The endings ‘-e’ and ‘-a’ appear written after the root of the verb depending on whether the infinitive form ends in ‘-ar’, ‘-er’ or ‘-ir’, e.g. ‘dar’ (denos = de usted a nosotros), as in [4.54]; permitir (permítanos = permita usted a nosotros), as in [4.55]. Since the presence of ‘usted’ is somehow explicitly signalled in the verb, it could be argued that this case is not elliptical.

[4.54] ... [Ud.] dénos la oportunidad de servirle ... (Letter S-5, cl. 14)
 (... give us the opportunity to serve you ...)

[4.55] [Ud.] Permítanos demostrar que "Digital sabe de redes" ... (Letter S-6, cl. 15)
 (Allow us to show that "Digital knows about network" ...)

The second type corresponds to the ellipsis of ‘usted’ in non-finite clauses. The ellipsis refers back to an explicit reference to ‘usted’ in the main clause.

[4.56] AWT Colombia, le ofrece a UD. una alternativa más económica para [usted] estar 100% ligados al productor de los aditivos químicos para [usted] obtener la extensión de la garantía del proveedor de las membranas. (Letter S-3, cls. 9-11)
 (AWT Colombia, offers you a cost-effective alternative so that you can be 100% linked to the producer of the chemical additives in order to get the extension of the guarantee of the supplier of the membranes.)

Attribute possessive attached specific reader reference

This type of reference can be found in the use of the possessive form ‘su(s)’. It is also a way of addressing the reader formally. In this case, the object possessed can be seen as an attribute of the reader.

[4.57] Atendiendo su solicitud, me permito informarle ... (Letter S-2, cls. 1-2)
 (On answering your request, I allow myself to inform you ...)

- [4.58] Así mismo, nuestro Departamento Técnico estará en contacto permanente para responder a todas sus preguntas y formular así la dosificación de los productos FMC de acuerdo, al análisis de agua ... (Letter S-3, cl. 5)

(At the same time, our Technical Department will be in contact to answer all your questions and to formulate in this way the dosage of the FMC products according to the water analysis ...)

4.4.2.2 Representative reference

In contrast to English, the Spanish language has developed pronominal ways to distinguish group references from personal references. Hence, unlike in the English texts it is possible to find this category in the Spanish ones.

Participant representative reader reference

This type of reference is expressed through personal pronoun 'ustedes', or the object pronouns 'les'. In Latin American Spanish varieties 'ustedes' can be the plural form to refer to the audience either formally or informally (whereas in Castillian Spanish there is a different form for polite plural address). However, in the absence of informal ways of addressing the reader, it is plausible to argue that 'ustedes' in the texts is the plural form of 'usted'.

- [4.59] Para ustedes tiene una tercera característica: ... (Letter S-1, cl. 8)

(For you it has a third advantage: ...)

- [4.60] ... al análisis de agua que Uds. tengan, mes a mes para su alimentación al Sistema de Osmosis Inversa. (Letter S-3, cl. 8)

(... the water analysis that you have, month by month for your feeding the reverse osmosis system.)

- [4.61] ... que ésta reseña, les dé una imagen rápida de nuestra compañía. (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 34)

(... that this outline, gives you a quick picture of our company.)

Elliptical representative reader reference

This reference corresponds to the omission of 'ustedes'. The wording of the following examples does not include this personal pronoun. Nevertheless, it is signalled in the verb ending '-an'.

- [4.62] Adjunto [ustedes] encontrarán un folleto general y un formulario ... (Letter S-7, cl. 15)

(Attached you will find a general brochure and an application form ...)

Possessive attribute attached representative reader reference

In this case, reference to the reader as a group is indicated through the use of the possessive adjective 'sus'. 'Sus' implies attributes attached to a collective audience.

- [4.63] ... como una opción de poder trabajar en sus grandes instalaciones. (Letter S-8, cl. 2)

(... as a choice to be able to work in your great facilities)

- [4.64] Por medio de la presente, nos permitimos ofrecerles nuestros servicios de elaboración de uniformes, pantalones y camisas para sus secretarias y empleados. (Letter S-10, cl. 1)

(By means of this letter, we allow ourselves to offer you our tailoring services of uniforms, trousers and shirts for your secretaries and employees.)

4.4.2.3 Oblique reader reference

As stated above, this type of reference is rarely seen in the corpus.

Participant oblique reader reference

Example [4.65] shows one of the few instances which could be placed in this category.

The entity being referred to could possibly be replaced by the actual addressee. This is the type of reader that the writer is aiming at.

- [4.65] Conscientes de la importancia del Desarrollo Sostenible como política del Estado Colombiano ante el innegable deterioro del medio ambiente, un grupo de profesionales con vasta experiencia en diferentes disciplinas del conocimiento, ofrece al sector productivo y las entidades ... (Letter S-4, cl. 1)

(Knowing the importance of the sustainable development as a Colombian Policy facing the undeniable deterioration of the environment a group of professionals [experts] with a vast experience in different disciplines of knowledge, offers the manufacturing sector and corporations ...)

Possessive attribute attached oblique reader reference

No instances of this type of reference were found in the corpus.

4.4.2.4 Implicit reader reference

Passivisation

This reference is conveyed through reflexive forms of the verb in the third person or through the past participle.

- [4.66] Con ellos se eliminan muchos de los problemas encontrados. (Comp. Lit. S-3, cl. 6)

(With them many of the problems encountered are eliminated.)

- [4.67] Con su implementación se disminuye los tipos de lubricantes usados. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 19)

(With its implementation the types of lubricants used are fewer.)

Nominalisation

This type of reference typically occurs in nouns which are semantically associated with nominalised processes expected to be undertaken by the reader, e.g. 'ahorro' (*saving*) and 'implementación' (*implementation*):

- [4.68] Con su implementación se disminuye los tipos de libricantes usados. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 19)

(With its implementation, the types of lubricants used are fewer.)

- [4.69] ... lo cual significa un mejor desempeño de las máquinas y un considerado ahorro en mantenimiento. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 8)
(... which means better performance of the machines and a considerable time-savings in maintenance.)

Attribute in relational processes

This reference can be perceived through nominalised ('beneficios') or adjectivised ('necesarios') attributes:

- [4.70] Tanto en sus características como su comportamiento agronómico lo califican como un abono que permite obtener, con un buen manejo, excelente beneficios. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 2-3)
(Both its characteristics and its agronomical/farming behaviour qualify it as a fertilizer that allows to obtain, with good handling, excellent benefits.)
- [4.71] ... sin que sean necesarios procesos bioquímicos complejos, ... (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 24)
(... without complex biochemical processing being necessary, ...)

Benefactive processes

Some processes expressing positive evaluation of the product, at the same time, imply the reader as beneficiary (see also chapter on speech functions) as in 'alcanzar', 'resolver' and 'garantizar' in the following examples:

- [4.72] ... lo cual, desde el punto de vista de los factores agrotécnicos, permitirá alcanzar los siguientes beneficios ... (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 27)
(... which from the point of view of the agrotechnical factors, will allow to achieve the following benefits ...)
- [4.73] Los UCON de Unión Carbide son el resultado de 50 años de desarrollo a partir de los polialkilén glicoles para resolver problemas de lubricación industrial. (Comp. lit. S-3, cls. 1-2)
(The Ucons of Unión Carbide are the result of 50 years of development having started with polyalkylene glycols to solve industrial lubrication problems.)

[4.74] Los resultados de muchas pruebas de desgastes, corrosión, fricción y formación de espuma, permiten garantizar un desempeño superior de la lubricación, con este tipo de aceite. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 12)

(The results of many tests of burn out, corrosion, friction and foam formation, allows to guarantee superior lubrication performance with this type of oil.)

4.5 Statistical analysis

The statistical analysis is concerned with the identification of the frequency of use of various types of involvement with which writers and readers are projected and the degree of explicitness each type of involvement is expressed in the interaction. The analysis seeks to answer these questions:

- (a) To what extent are interactants personally or non-personally committed in the interaction in the relation?
- (b) Are interactants in the discourse of promotion involved in similar ways across languages and across text types and what implications can such involvement have in the relation?

The tables below present the frequencies of categories used in the texts in order to identify personal and non-personal involvement as mentioned in the previous sections. Personal involvement is seen here through the choice of referential forms categorised under specific and representative. Non-personalised involvement is conveyed through oblique and implicit forms. It should be noted that in English the division of specific and representative involvement is not provided and values are asterisked (*) (for further details see discussion below). The various degrees of explicitness with which each form is conveyed in the wording are grouped under 'participant', 'elliptical' and 'possessive'.

As the detailed description of categories above has shown, there is a cline of values within the personal-impersonal and explicit-implicit continuum of interactant involvement and, consequently, a unique assignment of values in all cases is impossible. Thus, it would be not surprising that, although the categorisation has been systematically checked by another expert rater, in some cases other analysts may assign a particular instance to a category other than that to which it is assigned in this study. However, this is an inevitable consequence of investigating the interpersonal metafunction in particular: as Martin (1992: 11) points out, interpersonal meanings tend to be inherently clinal in nature and to be spread non-discretely through the clause.

4.5.1 Sales letters

4.5.1.1 Letters in Spanish

In Spanish letters, the overall pattern of the writer's and reader's involvement is relatively similar in terms of the broad distinction of personalised and non-personalised involvement. As can be seen in Table 4.5, the use of personalised involvement conveyed through specific and representative references is markedly higher than that of non-personalised involvement conveyed through oblique and implicit references in both cases. Personalised involvement conveyed through specific and representative references together constitutes the most prominent choice to refer to writers and readers in these texts. In addition, the personalised orientation in the interaction in both cases is made explicit by the higher frequency of use of participant reference in both specific and representative references. As explained in previous sections, a participant reference is the most explicit way to refer to interactants in any type of involvement. In this degree of explicitness, interactants are clearly signalled by using names or personal pronouns in

the wording. Such choice indicates that personalised involvement appears to be expressed with a high visibility in the interaction, in other words, the writer and the reader are openly involved in the interaction.

The strong visibility of the personalised orientation in the interaction is most likely related to the generic conventions typically associated with letters. A letter is an open dialogue between the two explicitly stated entities within the text: the sender and the recipient. Thus, a highly visible reference of the interactants may be seen as crucial to create the appropriate environment to engage in the negotiation of meanings.

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	5%	0%	0%	37%	0%	13%	8%	1%	1%	15% ±4%
	±4%			±10%		±4%	±4%	±1%	±1%	
	5% ±5%			50% ±11%			10% ±5%			
79% ±10%										
Reader	12%	2%	6%	18%	1%	7%	5%	0%	1%	20% ±5%
	±6%	±2%	±5%	±7%	±1%	±4%	±3%		±1%	
	20% ±9%			25% ±11%			6% ±3%			
70% ±12%										

Table 4.5: Mean frequencies⁴ of references in letters in Spanish

However, looking at the results in more detail, it is apparent that the pattern of referential forms which refer to the writer's involvement differs from that of the reader.

The most typical way to refer to the writer is through a representative form. A

⁴ As outlined in 3.4.2, the frequency of a linguistic feature has been calculated by dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in each text. Then, the mean and standard error of the frequency have been obtained for each language and text type.

representative or group reference, as explained earlier, seems to be used here to express shared responsibility or commitment. It is plausible that the choice of a group reference is more in accordance with institutional goals, where teamwork is regarded as more reliable than the work being carried out by a particular individual. In contrast, in the case of the reader or customer, s/he is typically projected with various types of involvement with a similar frequency of use. It seems that the choice of reference to the reader is closely related to whether the customer is an individual or a group representing the company. This is reflected in the similar frequency of use of specific and representative forms of personalised involvement. Nevertheless, the reader can also be addressed with a similar frequency of use of implicit forms compared with those of specific and representative involvement. In short, there is clearly a preferential choice of the writer's involvement in the interaction, whereas the reader appears to be involved in various ways. The choice of a representative form to refer to the writer or company may be strongly related to the image companies in the given Spanish speaking setting want to project.

4.5.1.2 Letters in English

As observed in Spanish, the pattern of referential forms in English letters indicates that both the writer and the reader are likely to be more frequently involved through personalised forms than non-personalised ones. This can be seen in the prevalent use of both specific and representative forms over oblique and implicit ways of referring to the writer and the reader in the interaction. Similarly, the degree of visibility with which personal involvement appears in the wording is also high in English letters, as can be observed in the higher choice of participant reference in both types of personalised references.

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	18%	4%	1%	15%	3%	6%	2%	0%	0%	11% ±6%
	±8%	±2%	±4%	±4%	±2%	±3%	±4%			
	20% ±8%			25% ±6%			2% ±2%			
	60% ±12%									
Reader	48% ±10% (*)						1%	0%	0%	17% ±6%
							±1%			
							1% ±1%			
	67% ±10%									

(*): non-discrete item

Table 4.6: Mean frequencies of references in letters in English

With regard to personal involvement, individual writer involvement conveyed through a specific reference seems more likely to occur in English letters (20%) than in Spanish ones (5%). As can be seen, the frequency of use of specific and representative references is similar. It could be argued that the choice of individual commitment construes a closer relation in English than in Spanish. From the grammatical point of view, however, such a distinction cannot be straightforwardly made with a personalised reference related to the reader. As noted above, the English language system does not allow to distinguish between 'you' as individual or group reference. In order to identify which reference is intended one would have to resort to either textual clues provided in the text itself (e.g. the actual recipient, being an individual or a group) or through informants, although a number of cases would most likely remain undetermined.

Finally, less personalised forms such as implicit references are more likely to be used to refer to the reader than to the writer. As in Spanish, writers seem to appear more explicitly involved in the interaction than the reader. It could be said that a general concern with projecting their image is crucial in promotional letters.

4.5.1.3 Comparison

In both languages, there is a strong tendency to project the writer and the reader as personally involved in the interaction. This finding confirms the socially-oriented interaction that we would expect to find in letters. Generic conventions of this text type allows for a more open reference to both writer and reader during the interaction. In letters, a sender and a recipient is part of the text itself.

Within the social orientation, however, it is likely that the degree to which the personal involvement of the writer is projected in the interaction has implications for the type of relations developed in each language. It could be argued that the more salient choice of a representative reference to the writer in Spanish construes a more distant relationship. Since representative involvement projects the writer as a member of the institution, it may create a more formal environment. In contrast, in English letters, more space seems to be given to individual writer commitment in the interaction, which may construe a closer relation between the two interactants.

4.5.2 Company literature

4.5.2.1 Company literature in Spanish

In company literature in Spanish, results indicate that both writer (42%) and reader (40%) are less involved in the interaction than in letters (above 60% in both languages).

This finding suggests that company literature in Spanish is less interactive than letters.

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	0%	0%	0%	6%	0%	5%	10%	2%	2%	17% ±9%
				±6%		±6%	±4%	±2%	±3%	
	0%			11% ±11%			13% ±8%			
42% ±22%										
Reader	1%	0%	6%	1%	0%	1%	8%	0%	0%	22% ±9%
	±1%		±8%	±2%		±2%	±7%			
	7% ±9%			2% ±4%			8% ±7%			
40% ±11%										

Table 4.7: Mean frequencies of references in company literature in Spanish

As can be seen in Table 4.7, the overall pattern of referential forms is moving towards the non-personalised end. The frequency of use of personalised references, namely specific and representative, is very low compared to letters and specific involvement of the writer seems not to occur. Apparently, representative involvement of the writer and specific involvement of the reader appear to be the most frequently used types of personalised reference with frequencies of 11% and 7%, respectively. However, those

forms are only frequently used in two texts, which is reflected in the rather large confident limits of both means.

Towards the non-personalised end, the reader is more involved through implicit references (22%) than through any other form (less than 8%). In the case of reference to the writer, due to the rather large confident limits (see chapter 3) such distinction cannot be resolved, although implicit involvement (17%) seems to be slightly more favoured than oblique (13%) and representative (11%) forms. This finding may also indicate that institutionalised involvement is also important in this text type.

Furthermore, the choice of the degree of explicitness, i.e. participant, elliptical and attribute possessive, seems to support the tendency towards a less personalised involvement. Elliptical reference occurs rarely and there seems to be no particular preference between the choice of participant and possessive attribute, except for the choice of participant oblique reference to both interactants. This, once again, may suggest that institutional involvement may be important in this text type, in particular, in the case of reference to the writer.

4.5.2.2 Company literature in English

In company literature in English, results also indicate that the writer and the reader are less frequently referred to than in letters. As observed in Spanish, this suggests that company literature in English is less interactive than letters. However, here, the pattern of reference to the writer differs from that of the reader.

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	0%	1%	0%	5%	1%	2%	5%	2%	0%	5% ±3%
		±1%		±4%	±2%	±2%	±6%	±2%		
	1% ±1%			8% ±6%			7% ±7%			
20% ±12%										
Reader	22% ±12% (*)						4%	1%	1%	27% ±11%
							±4%	±1%	±1%	
							5% ±4%			
53% ±11%										

*non-discrete item

Table 4.8: Mean frequencies of references in company literature in English

As can be seen in Table 4.8, references to the writer occur distinctively less frequently (20%) than references to the reader (53%). This finding clearly suggests that the interaction tends to be more reader-oriented. A plausible explanation for this emphasis may be that the priority of the writer is to introduce the benefits of the product and/or services.

As observed in Spanish, there seems no clear preference in the choice of reference to the writer, though specific reference (1%) is clearly not favoured in this text type. In other words, both institutionalised and (representative and oblique) and implicit involvement are likely to be used with a similar frequency. In the case of reference to the reader, writers prefer to involve the reader either personally (22%) or implicitly (27%) in the interaction. Oblique reference to the reader is less often used in the texts (5%).

The statistical analysis does not indicate a clear preference regarding the choice of degree of explicitness, i.e. participant, elliptical and possessive references, within the personalised/non-personalised continuum.

4.5.2.3 Comparison

In company literature in both languages, the frequency pattern of reference points to a less socially interactive orientation. The frequency of use of references to both interactants is distinctively lower than in letters and individualised involvement is not common in this text type. There is a tendency to involve the reader and the writer in the relation through institutionalised and implicit forms.

The less socially interactive orientation is most likely related to the standardised and institutionalised nature of these texts. In principle, various business representatives within the company can send company literature to interested or potential customers, known or unknown to the sender, to promote the company in the wider social context of business. Thus, in this sense, it could be said that they are designed to be partly context-independent, whereas letters, on the other hand, are typically context-dependent.

However, in Spanish, the institutionalised nature seems to be more emphasised than in English. This is reflected in the choice of writer involvement which is higher in Spanish (42%) than in English (20%). The seemingly institutionalised tendency in Spanish may construe a more formal relation. In English, on the other hand, writers seem to favour a reader-oriented interaction, thus implying a more open negotiation.

4.5.3 Catalogues

4.5.3.1 Catalogues in Spanish

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	0%	0%	0%	7% ±10%	0%	3% ±5%	0%	0%	7% ±6%	16% ±18%
	0%			10% ±15%			7% ±6%			
	32% ±35%									
Reader	0%	0%	0%	1% ±2%	0%	3% ±5%	5% ±10%	0%	0%	19% ±6%
	0%			4% ±5%			5% ±10%			
	28% ±12%									

Table 4.9: Mean frequencies of references in catalogues in Spanish

Table 4.9 shows that the involvement of both interactants is apparently lower (32% and 28%) than in the other text types.⁵ As observed earlier in company literature, the form of involvement seems to move towards the less personalised end of the interaction with the preferred choice of implicit references (16% and 19%), which is expected to be found in the case of an information-oriented interaction associated with this type of text. Within the explicit-implicit continuum, specific reference to both, the writer or the reader, is not found in catalogues which underlines the information-oriented interaction.

⁵ Due to the rather large confidence limit of the writer's involvement in catalogues, differences to the mean frequencies in other text types cannot be straightforwardly resolved (see section 3.4.2.2). However, the data strongly indicate a trend. It should be also noted that the rather large confidence limit is mainly caused by one catalogue, in which participant representative and implicit involvement of the writer are considerably more frequently used than in the other texts.

4.5.3.2 Catalogues in English

	Involvement									
	Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit
Degree of explicitness	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	Participant	Elliptical	Attrib. poss. attached	
Writer	0%	0%	0%	2%	2%	2%	14%	4%	1%	21% ±13%
				±3%	±3%	±2%	±15%	±6%	±1%	
	0%			6% ±5%			19% ±19%			
46% ±21%										
Reader	6% ±6% (*)						4%	0%	0%	25% ±6%
							±3%			
							4% ±3%			
36% ±13%										

(*) Non- discrete item

Table 4.10: Mean frequencies of references in catalogues in English

In English catalogues, the pattern of both interactants seem also to move towards the non-personalised end of the personalised/non-personalised continuum as observed in Spanish. As shown Table 4.10, the frequency of use of personalised references is low and it appears that writers prefer to refer to both writers and readers through implicit forms (21% and 25%, respectively). Apparently, both oblique and implicit references to the writer are used with similar frequencies which would mean that the institutionalised concern is also present in this type of text. However, participant writer oblique involvement is highly frequently used in 25% of the catalogues only, which is also reflected in the rather large confident limit. Disregarding those texts, the frequency of oblique reference would drop to 9% and implicit forms would be clearly the preferred choice.

4.5.3.3 Comparison

In both languages, the pattern of referential forms emphasises a more impersonal relation than in the other text types. The choice of this type of interactant involvement reflects the fact that this type of text is associated with a strong information-oriented interaction. That is, it is likely that the choice of non-personal forms is related to the actual purpose of the texts. Catalogues are mainly produced to provide information on features related to the properties of a product. The involvement of the interactants is blurred by the emphasis on information. This tendency towards involving interactants more implicitly can be seen as creating a distant relation. Generic constraints may be associated with these findings: catalogues studied in this work are produced for a non-specific audience, though highly specialised.

4.6 Conclusion

The analysis of referential forms has enabled us to identify within the personal-impersonal continuum the various degrees of involvement with which interactants are projected in the interaction. The linguistic features revealed in the patterns of referential forms can be used as potential markers not only to identify characteristics of the discourse of promotion in general, but also to define discourse boundaries between text types within the discourse of promotion in both languages. Similarly, the analysis provides discourse features which can be used to distinguish the overall pattern of involvement in the discourse of promotion in each language as well as within the same text type in the two languages. Plausible explanations for the preferred choices of writer and reader involvement can be traced in the overall purpose of the texts and the generic conventions associated with each text type. It is also likely that some of the differences identified in each language may be related to socio-economic features inherent to each

cultural setting in which the texts are produced. Table 4.11 gives an overview of the main findings presented so far, as a basis for highlighting the main similarities and differences that have emerged.

		Interactant involvement											
		Specific			Representative			Oblique			Implicit		
Text type		Letters	Company literature	Catalogues	Letters	Company literature	Catalogues	Letters	Company literature	Catalogues	Letters	Company literature	Catalogues
		Spanish	Writer	5% ±5%	0%	0%	50% ±11%	11% ±11%	10% ±15%	10% ±5%	13% ±8%	7% ±6%	15% ±4%
Reader	20% ±9%		7% ±9%	0%	24% ±11%	2% ±4%	4% ±5%	6% ±3%	8% ±7%	5% ±10%	20% ±5%	22% ±9%	19% ±6%
English	Writer	20% ±8%	1% ±1%	0%	25% ±6%	8% ±6%	6% ±5%	2% ±2%	7% ±7%	19% ±19%	11% ±6%	5% ±3%	21% ±13%
	Reader	(*)			48% ±10%	22% ±12%	6% ±6%	1% ±1%	5% ±4%	4% ±3%	17% ±6%	27% ±11%	25% ±6%

(*) Non- discrete item

Table 4.11: Mean frequencies of references in Spanish and English

Looking at the discourse of promotion as a whole, one particular feature which seem to be shared by all text types in both languages is the relatively high frequency of use of implicit reference to the reader which ranges between 17% and 27%. It could be argued that the high professional status that both interactants seem to share in these texts may induce writers to provide their customers with space to decide on whether the offer actually fulfils her/his professional needs. Thus, in persuading their particular audience of the benefit of the offer, the choice of projecting the reader as implicitly involved might help create such an environment.

The analysis also yielded distinctive features which are expected to be associated with the nature of each text type in both languages. The highly interactive nature associated with letters is seen in the high frequency of use of personal involvement attached to both writer and reader. It is likely that the generic conventions concerning the use of explicitly named interactants may influence this choice of involvement. Letters may be more widely seen as a dialogue between openly identifiable interactants. This observation can be contrasted with the tendency to project interactants as less personally involved in the other text types, namely, company literature and catalogues. In these texts, interactant involvement seems to be moving towards the non-personal end. This finding may be the result of emphasis on the informative content typically associated with these two text types, in particular, in catalogues where the main purpose is to provide information on specific properties of a range of products. Nevertheless, though these two types of text are perceived as information-oriented, in company literature personalised involvement appears to be more likely to occur than in catalogues. For example, personalised involvement of the writer is more common in company literature than in catalogues. This finding can be closely associated with the overall purpose of each text type. As described in chapter 3, company literature provides not only information on the products, but also on the performance of the company, whereas catalogues are more concerned with providing details of specific properties of a wide range of products. Thus, when describing the performance of the company, it is likely that the performance of the writer conveyed through a representative reference also refers to institutional performance.

With regard to differences in the discourse of promotion in each language, it appears that the reader tends to be less involved in the relation across text types in Spanish than in English. This probably means that the interactive nature is more reader-oriented in

English than in Spanish. Conversely, the figure 'writer/company' appears more often in Spanish than in English, which may suggest that the interactive nature in Spanish letters is more self-focussed. It seems that the priority in Spanish is with the company image or performance, whereas, in English the concern is mostly with convincing the customer of the beneficial value of the product for her/his professional needs.

Similarly, the analysis also provided us with distinctive discourse features, which point to differences concerning interactant involvement in the same text type in the two languages. The use of group and institutionalised commitment of the writer through the choice of a representative and oblique reference is stronger in Spanish letters than in English letters. In contrast, in English the writer appears equally involved through a specific and representative reference. That is, individual involvement of the writer is prominent in English, but not in Spanish. This individualised orientation may indicate that, in English letters, the writer develops a closer relationship with the reader than in Spanish, where the writer prefers to cover himself/herself as a member of a group or institution. However, with regard to the reader, the same distinction cannot be resolved with the information provided in the texts themselves. The Spanish language system allows us to identify individual and representative involvement of the reader. Such a distinction cannot be made in English, since 'you' is used to refer to the reader both as an individual or a group.

5 The analysis of mood choice and associated speech functions

The analysis of the Mood choice and their associated speech functions in this work is based on Halliday's (1994) model of the analysis of the clause as exchange as described in chapter 3. However as explained earlier, the Mood choice and speech roles do not always match in a simple one-to-one relationship, and the function of the clause depends on its context of use. The insights gained from the analysis shed some light on the long debate on the extent to which meaning is context-driven. The findings suggest that the mismatches, which are found in the present data between form and function, are mostly influenced by the overall purpose of the text, i.e. to sell the company's product or services.

However, the main purpose in this work is to identify the kind of roles writers and readers are assigned in interaction in promotional texts and the implications that such functions can have for the type of social relations developed in the discourse of promotion. It also seeks to find out the extent to which such roles are maintained across languages and across text types and the extent to which the similarities and differences are the result of constraints posed by contextual factors such as the generic purpose, the audience or whether they are due to the socio-cultural and/or linguistic factors inherent in each setting and language.

The first part of this chapter provides an overview of the results of the exploration of relationship between mood choice and speech functions in the context of promotion. Based on those findings, the next section describes a set of refined categories in both languages, which have been later applied in the statistical analysis. The outcome of the statistical analysis carried out in both languages and the three text types is presented in

the third part of this chapter. Here, I shall discuss the extent to which similar functions are assigned in the interaction across languages and text types. The discussion and conclusion on the implications that such findings can have for the type of interaction developed in the discourse of promotion across languages and texts type is presented at the end of this chapter.

5.1 Overview of results

Results indicate that contextual factors strongly influence the interpretation of the function of clauses in promotional texts in both languages. This applies particularly, in this genre, to declaratives. On the whole, declaratives, which have a default interpretation of their function as making statements, can mostly be seen as indirectly supporting or actually making offers. Similarly, but on a lower scale, some imperatives which would be typically associated with commands also convey an inferred force associated with offers. This observation supports the view (Halliday, 1994: 70) that language does not develop specific grammar resources for proposals, particularly in the case of offers, which are not directly associated with any one grammatical form.

In addition, the findings also suggest implications for the recognition of offers in the context of promotion. Firstly, indirect ways of expressing offers depend very much on various degrees of implicit or explicit signalling of the writer as the benefactor and/or the reader as potential beneficiary in the clause.⁶ Secondly, evaluation has a special role in this signalling, to the extent that in the absence of implicit or explicit reference to the reader, a declarative may be understood as an offer from the presence of positive

⁶ Grammatical directness and indirect speech acts are studied at the level of the clause. However, directness and indirectness can also be encoded in the way interactants are referred to.

product-oriented evaluation, i.e. the properties of the product imply potential benefit for the customers to meet their needs.

Nevertheless, though similar lexico-grammatical features in both languages, in some cases, convey similar roles, the lexico-grammatical features differ in each language to express the same meaning. For example, both English and Spanish have similar language resources to refer to indirect commands. However, the subjunctive appears to be used to express this type of role in Spanish, but not in English. Similarly, the system in Spanish allows for more ways of referring explicitly to the interactants. Thus, this flexibility in the language system may influence the choice of direct offers in Spanish.

5.1.1 The role of declarative clauses

A declarative clause is typically associated with statements which express the form of propositions. A proposition is the semantic form of a clause in the exchange of information. As stated in the literature (Halliday, 1994: 70), propositions can be argued with, affirmed, denied, insisted on, doubted, contradicted, etc. However, declarative choices can also perform a role different to that of giving information. A projected command like 'I wish you to be quiet' takes the form of a declarative (Halliday, 1994). Besides the possibility of expressing a fact, a sentence such as 'There's a bull in the field' (Coulthard, 1997: 14) can also be used to express a warning, a function which can be seen as related to commands. A declarative like: 'I'll open the door for you' is clearly interpreted as an offer. And less directly, 'I have a cottage in the Lake District' can be understood in the appropriate context as an offer between friends talking about holidays.

In the analysis of the texts used in this study, some declaratives remain associated with their usual role of providing information, as in:

- [5.1] We have extensive experience in the business of providing both leisure and commercial mooring facilities dating back to 1975 (Letter E-13, cls. 2, 3).
- [5.2] Practical courses concerned with the maintenance and serving of vacuum equipment also take place. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 16)

It is worth noting, however, that it could also be argued that their informative role is somehow contributing to the overall purpose of making offers.

Other declarative clauses in the texts can be seen as performing a role different to that of giving information. In these cases, the author expects to influence the reader's behaviour by inviting him/ her to receive a product or service or reminding them to do something. To take these simply as statements, giving information, is to miss an important point of their function in the text. Though they still remain as statements at one level (i.e. their associated force/function), they have in addition an 'inferred indirect force' associated to that of offers and commands, e.g.:

(a) Indirect offers:

- [5.3] The CMA offers both analogue and pulse counting mode (Comp. lit. E-1, cl. 7)
- [5.4] Within a 55 mm positioning range any feature can be reproducibly located with an accuracy of 1µm. (Comp. lit. E-2, cl. 16)

(b) Indirect commands:

- [5.5] To operate a vacuum process successfully, it is essential to measure and often control the total pressure (Comp. lit. E-28, cl. 1-2)
- [5.6] The subjects are dealt with thoroughly, but reasonable knowledge of vacuum is expected. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 13)

However, these clauses are not expressed in the traditional ways of identifying offers ('I'll do it for you') and commands ('do it/do not do it'); in other words, those speech functions which are associated with their traditional forms such as commands realised through imperatives ('Open the door, please') and relatively direct ways of making an offer like 'I will open the door' (when a guest is leaving at the end of a party). In these cases, the reader is overtly left with the limited choices of either 'accept' or 'reject'

(offers) or 'obey' or 'refuse' (commands) (Halliday, 1994). In contrast, the offers and commands realised through a declarative choice in the target texts, as seen in the examples above, indirectly assign the reader the role of (potential) beneficiary (indirect offer) or indirectly advise or remind her/him to do something (indirect command). That is, those usages have both the force associated with statements and in addition, an 'inferred indirect force' (Levinson, 1983: 264) associated with offers and commands. For this reason, such declarative clauses are called here 'indirect offers' and 'indirect commands'.

As stated earlier, statements are the default interpretation of declaratives. Since declaratives can be associated with various roles, the next section provides an account of those features which can be used to identify cases where declaratives are used with functions other than statements. It should be stressed that, as suggested above, this is not a case of hard-and-fast categories: there is a cline from statements at one end to other functions (especially offers) at the other.

5.1.2 The cline of functional roles of declaratives

Since writers of promotional texts are faced with the task of persuading the reader to buy their products or services, it is possible to see all propositions in the texts, in principle, as supporting or making offers. That is, the beneficiary role associated with offers is present (implicitly or explicitly) in most of them, or at least, it could be understood as such within the appropriate context.

This view is based on the fact that most of the propositions in the texts include, in one way or another, positive evaluation of the product, which makes it (potentially) beneficial for the intended reader. Even in those cases in which propositions are more

concerned with providing factual information regarding the company's profile and/or features of the product, positive evaluation is typically also present. For instance, the following example taken from a catalogue which conveys information regarding features of the product can, in principle, linguistically be seen as a statement.

[5.7] CVT right angle and in-line valves are constructed with a minimum of components exposed to the vacuum environment. (Cat. E-2 cl. 1)

However, it can also be interpreted as beneficial by the intended customer in the scientific/technical field/context, since the evaluation of the number of components of the product offered as 'minimum' is clearly intended to sound positive and therefore make the product seem suitable for his/her needs. That is, it is the reader in the appropriate context who in the end assesses if the property of the product is beneficial or not for her/him. The same is true in the example below:

[5.8] The hairpin filaments are 85% Ti/15% Mo to reduce filament droop, which leads to uneven sublimation rates, particularly towards the end of the filament life. (Cat. E-8, cl. 12)

The fact that the filaments of the product are '85%Ti/15% Mo' is positively evaluated through the process of 'reducing the filament droop', which is likely to be understood as beneficial by the target reader.

As a result, establishing the borderline between propositions either being purely informative (statements) or being inclined towards conveying a (potential) beneficiary role for the reader (offers) is not straightforward. Such a task can be made increasingly difficult by the fact that positive evaluation of the product or service does not always carry explicit or implicit signalling of the beneficiary role of the reader. The wording in such cases does not conform to the linguistic representation with which offers are typically associated: 'I will do/have something for you', as in: 'We will be mailing you our next catalogue', in which the reader is assigned the explicit role of receiver, the most

direct kind of beneficiary. It is also possible to have the reader mentioned as the potential filler of the beneficiary role with various degrees of indirectness such as: 'engineers and technicians', and 'on request' in: 'It is suitable for engineers and technicians'; 'A brochure is available on request'. However, it is possible that the positive evaluation in examples such as [5.7] and [5.8] will be read as an offer despite the absence of explicit or implicit signalling of the reader as potential beneficiary. In those cases, it is then left to the customer/user to decide whether the properties of the product may have a potential benefit for him/her. That is, the positive evaluation of the product can also be read as an offer depending on whether s/he thinks that such an evaluation on the special properties of the product will help meet his/her needs.

We are then confronted here with the idea that the meaning of 'offer' also originates in the amalgam of contextual needs and the evaluation of the product. This may suggest that the identification of offers goes beyond the linguistic implicit or explicit signalling of the reader as the potential filler of the beneficiary role; and therefore, the analysis should also take into account positive evaluation of the product, at least in the context of promotional texts.

In the analysis of the target texts, a cline ranging from those propositions closer to factual information to those providing implicit or explicit signalling of reference to the beneficiary role of the reader was identified (see Table 5.1).

In order to illustrate the discussion of the recognition of clause function, an attempt to categorise propositions within the above cline is presented below. The categorisation is carried out on the basis of whether the proposition moves towards simply supporting the product/service being promoted or towards stating the actual offer more openly. It

should be noted that between those two ends there is an intermediate level in which the rhetorical force is triggered by contextual needs, as explained above.

The first group of propositions is made up of those cases regarded as statements supporting offers. This group is concerned with propositions which primarily maintain their informative role despite their subsidiary contribution to creating an appropriate environment for the offer. They are seen in this work as statements in the traditional way.

Statements in the target texts are concerned with providing facts related to the company's profile (e.g. background information on the historical development of the company) and judgements of the performance of the company. They also include the name of the product/service being offered so that the reader knows what the offer is about.

As mentioned above, it is not common in these texts to identify propositions with purely factual informational purpose such as 'the Moon is a satellite of the Earth', (which in a Geography class is taken as a fact). Facts provided in statements in the target texts are in most cases surrounded by positive evaluation (although it could also be argued that the goodness of the product is intended to be seen as a fact). In example [5.1] above, the writer is not only providing a historical fact: 'dating back to 1975', but he is also using this as the basis of assessing the company's experience as 'extensive'.


<p>From the highest factual- informative level: supporting the offer</p>  <p>to the explicit beneficiary role: stating the offer openly.</p>	[5.9]	We have signed an OEM agreement with VSW Instruments Ltd., Manchester UK for their "IBACH Type" High Resolution Electron Energy Loss Spectrometer. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 12)
	[5.10]	We are also the world leader in the production of ... (Comp. lit. E-3, cl. 4)
	[5.11]	The new CMA 100 Auger spectrometer is a compact, high performance instrument. (Comp. lit. E-10, cl. 1)
	[5.12]	Mounted on a NW 100 CF (6") D Flange this CMA includes, as standard, an on axis 5 keV electron gun and an integral retraction device to allow the bulk of the analyser to be moved away from its working position. (Comp. lit. E-10, cl. 3-4) dedicated AES applications. (Comp. lit. E-10, cl. 6)
	[5.13]	A dedicated sample carrier guarantees full accuracy when transferring the sample. (Comp. lit. E-9, cl. 13)
	[5.14]	This course provides practical experience for persons involved with leak detection. (Comp. lit. E-13, cls. 49, 50)
	[5.15]	We will be mailing you information ... (Letter E-14, cl. 3)

Figure 5.1: Cline of roles of declaratives

Within those declaratives which function towards the statement end of the cline, a more delicate distinction can be made, between those which are purely factual and those which provide evaluation.

(a) into a more factual level:

- [5.16] We have signed an OEM agreement with VSW Instruments Ltd., Manchester UK for their "IBACH Type" High Resolution Electron Energy Loss Spectrometer. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 12)
- [5.17] Based on our well proven HREELS Delta 0.5 we developed for high energy resolutions down to 1 meV the new electron spectrometer Delta-A. (Letter E-1, cl. 1)

(b) or towards mainly providing evaluation:

- [5.18] We are also the world leader in the production of ... (Comp. lit. E-3, cl. 4)

- [5.19] All courses are run by Dr. David Hucknall ... He has a considerable expertise on the subject and he is the author of the well-regarded textbook 'Vacuum technology and its applications'. (Comp. lit. E-12, cls. 19, 22, 23)

It should be made clear here that the evaluation conveyed in the above statements is not regarded as implying an offer, since such judgements refer mainly to the performance of the company or its personnel. The wording in the above propositions does not make any implicit or explicit reference to the goodness of the product or imply a beneficiary role for the reader, as would be the case in this invented example: 'We are the world leaders in providing the best analytical system' (where the choice of the verb 'provide' implies a potential 'providee' who benefits from the process). However, they do have an important role in supporting offers, because they provide the reader with factual and evaluative information which helps enhance company's image and/or introduce the product/service being promoted. Company image is important to establish credibility in the eyes of the addressee as in the examples above. Bhatia (1993: 49) states that in highlighting the achievement of the company that the writer represents, its speciality and/or the long experience in a particular line of products, it is implied that the reader can rely on the expertise and/or well-established reputation of the company to meet the needs of her/his own company.

A second group of propositions lies in the intermediate level between those having a more informative role and those stating the beneficiary role of the reader more openly. This group consists of those sentences which provide positive evaluation of the product itself, but without making implicit or explicit reference to the reader as (potential) beneficiary. The evaluation is rather product-oriented, although it could be argued that the positive evaluation implies a benefit for the reader. That is, the value of product is likely to be interpreted as intended to meet the needs of the customer/user. Bhatia (1993: 51) maintains that the indication of the value of the product in terms of the needs of the

potential customer is intended to fulfil the writer's promise that the company does in fact have a product or service to offer.

The identification of the actual function of these propositions is left open to the judgement of the reader for whom, in the appropriate context, that positive evaluation, even without explicit or implicit reference to the reader as potential beneficiary, could also convey the force associated with offers.

- [5.20] The new CMA 100 Auger spectrometer is a compact, high performance instrument (Comp. lit. E-10, cl. 1)
- [5.21] Software license is the most efficient and cost effective way to purchase software. (Letter E-20, cl. 1)
- [5.22] The motor controller system allows continuous variation of rotation speed in the range 0.5 to 50Hz (± 0.5) with digital display of the selected value (Comp. lit. E-20, cl. 4)
- [5.23] The Ruska model 710 Precision Pressure Controller provides transfer standard performance for pneumatic pressure measurement and control with precision to 0.003% F.S. and ranges from 70 mbar to 172 bar gauge or absolute. (Cat. E-4, cl. 1)

In the examples above, both the processes ('allow', 'provides', 'is') and the attributes ('continuous', 'high performance') convey positive evaluation of the product. Since I will later be arguing that verbs such as 'provide' and 'allow' usually imply a beneficiary role for the customer, it is important to note that this does not apply in the same way in cases such as [5.22] and [5.23] above. Let us compare the process *allows* in different contexts to clarify this point. In example [5.22] above 'allows continuous variation' implies positive evaluation of the performance of the product within the technical process. The implication of the beneficiary role of the reader is weak, since s/he is not the potential actor in that process: it is the machine which will have continuous variation (although in principle such evaluation can be understood as beneficial for the customer in the technical context).

We can compare this with the same process in the expression ‘allow the bulk to be moved away’ in:

- [5.24] Mounted on a NW 100 CF (6”) D Flange this CMA includes, as standard, an on axis 5 keV electron gun and an integral retraction device to allow the bulk of the analyser to be moved away from its working position. (Comp. lit. 10, cl. 3-4)

In this example, positive evaluation of the product is also signalled through ‘allow’. However, this time, it is implied that the process permitted (‘to be moved away’) is not only good, but it is also advantageous or beneficial for the potential user. It involves the reader as the potential actor with an implicit beneficiary role: it is the reader who (potentially) will move the analyser.

The same comparison can be applied to the process ‘provides’ in [5.23] above and in example [5.25]:

- [5.25] This course provides practical experience for persons involved with leak detection. (Comp. lit. E-13, cls. 49, 50)

In the first example, the process is concerned with the positive evaluation of the performance of the product (‘transfer standard performance/with precision to 0.003%’), whereas in the second one, it relates to positive evaluation of the product (‘practical experience’), but also explicitly involves the reader as the beneficiary (‘for person involved’).

Examples such as [5.26] and [5.28] lead us on to a third group of propositions in which the writer proposes more openly that the properties of the product are beneficial for the reader. The beneficiary role is implicitly or explicitly signalled in the evaluation, and the evaluation here is reader-oriented. Various degrees of openness can be observed in the following examples, ranging from:

(a) implicit signalling of reader-orientation:

[5.26] Using Sun SPARC compatible hardware with UNIX operating system with x-windows provides advantages such as reliable networking, true multi-user-tasking capabilities, and powerful file handling abilities. (Comp. lit. E-7, cl. 3)

[5.27] A dedicated sample carrier guarantees full accuracy when transferring the sample. (Comp. lit. E-9, cl. 13)

(b) to explicit signalling of the reader as potential beneficiary.

[5.28] This course provides practical experience for persons involved with leak detection. (Comp. lit. E-13, cls. 49, 50)

Both groups of propositions (a) and (b) are referred to in this work as indirect offers. A more detailed classification of these indirect offers is proposed in the next section, and an explicit justification for claiming that they are reader-oriented is given.

5.2 Refined categories in English

5.2.1 Statements

As explained in the previous section, the distinction between purely informative and (potential) beneficiary statements is not a straightforward task. Because of the persuasive nature of the texts, most of the statements are not purely information-oriented and therefore in most cases they seem to be supporting the offer. Conversely, these propositions cannot be necessarily seen as reader-oriented, because their wording does not explicitly or implicitly involve the reader as in the case of direct or indirect offers and commands. However, within statements there are degrees of orientation towards the reader. Some of them are oriented towards the product evaluation and therefore relate indirectly to the reader (because they support the offer). Others do not have this quality. Many of these propositions evaluate the company, but others do not. Those that evaluate the company also contribute to the promotion, but they do it in a way that only very indirectly relates to the reader. These statements are self-oriented.

Since the analysis of speech functions in this work is concerned with the orientation of interaction within interpersonal relations, statements are categorised in two groups: non-offer related statements (NORS) and statements supporting offers (SSO). The NORS group is made up of those statements which contribute to promotion by providing information on the company. Within the cline of roles described in the previous section, they can be of two kinds. The first one conveys factual information regarding chronological events concerning historical issues or events, which are related to the performance of the company as in:

[5.29] CVT was established in 1979. (Letter E-28, cl. 6)

[5.30] ... from 16 April 1995 - PHONEDAY - national telephone numbers will be changing. (Letter E-24, cl. 6)

The second group evaluates the company.

[5.31] CVT is one of the few companies that uses its own equipment in applied processes. (Letter E-28, cl. 23-24)

The SSO group comprises those statements which evaluate the product in terms of its performance within technical processes as in [5.20] - [5.23]. These types of statements belong to the group 'intermediate level' in the cline of roles associated with declaratives thoroughly explained in the previous section.

5.2.2 Indirect offers through declaratives

These are offers with explicit signalling or reference to both the writer as benefactor and the reader as beneficiary, as in:

[5.32] ... we will be mailing you the information ... (Letter E-14, cl. 3)

[5.33] We would be pleased to tailor such courses according to your requirements. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 26)

Moreover, interrogative offers like 'can I help you' in which both benefactor and beneficiary roles are also openly stated, are not found at all. Instead, writers in the target

texts resort to various ways of indirectly expressing 'I have/do/offer something which is beneficial for you'.

In general, there seem to be two basic patterns of indirect offers in declarative clauses in the texts. The first pattern comprises declarative clauses in which the writer's side (writer, company, the product) can be seen as the benefactive source, that is, the writer/company/product is indirectly projected as the entity which can help companies/customers to meet their needs. In this group, there are two main sub-categories. The first one includes clauses expressing 'I/we/the company/the product do/does something [for you]' without making explicit reference to the reader, although the beneficiary role is implied in the process itself, e.g. 'offer', 'provide', etc. Some of these involve an overt degree of commitment of the writer and/or the company:

[5.34] We offer a choice of AM 350 or 31 G1 stainless steel. (Letter E-13, cl. 13)

[5.35] This agreement allows us to offer EELS as part of our complete system solutions. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 15)

In others, the product is made responsible for the implicit potential beneficiary role assigned to the reader:

[5.36] The CMA offers both analogue and pulse counting mode. (Comp. lit. E-1, cl. 7)

The second sub-grouping in this first type of offers is made up of those clauses which relate to the benefactive attributes of the product itself with strong or weak reference to the beneficiary role of the reader. That is, the wording involves positive evaluation through expressions such as 'suitable', 'at your disposal' and 'available', which imply or state with various degrees of openness the beneficiary role of the reader. Thompson (1998) argues that in texts used for house advertising, an implied beneficiary role for the reader can be relatively easy to perceive in words such as 'available (*for someone*) and useful (*to someone*)' (Thompson, 1998: 34, italics in original). Similarly, in the target

texts the use of 'suitable', 'at your disposal' and 'available' mentioned above also convey the beneficiary role on a scale from obvious to less easy to perceive. In some cases, the beneficiary role of the reader is signalled in the clause through reference to the customer/users. This may be through direct or indirect forms: e.g. 'for engineers and technicians' and 'your' as in the examples below:

[5.37] Clariswork is at your disposal. (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 4)

[5.38] It is suitable for engineers and technicians ... (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 39)

In others, the beneficiary role is indicated through expressions which make implicit reference to the reader as the potential beneficiary implied in the benefactive attribute, as in:

[5.39] A new brochure with the latest results is now available on request. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 10)

[5.40] Comprehensive service support is available for all Vacuum Generator products ... (Letter. E-14, cl. 6)

Here, 'available on request' will be understood as implying the reader who is expected to make the request, and 'support is available', interpreted as implying the reader who can 'avail themselves' of the support. Thus, the characteristic features of the first category of indirect offers are the company or product as 'actor' or 'carrier' in a process which has the customer as implied or explicit beneficiary (see Halliday (1994) for the terms used here).

The second pattern of offers is concerned with declarative clauses in which the customer is the potential actor in a process which is assumed to be beneficial for her/him. As in the previous pattern, there are two main sub-categories. The first one comprises those clauses in which the reader is explicitly signalled as the potential actor in that process. The wording typically includes 'can' together with active processes, mainly material processes:

[5.41] You can combine them with switching applications. (Comp. lit. E-4, cl. 9)

The second sub-category consists of those clauses in which the reader is understood as the potential actor in the benefactive process. Here, the wording includes ‘can’ together with passive processes:

[5.42] Within 5 x 5 mm² positioning range any feature can be reproducibly located. (Comp. lit. E-9, cl. 16)

The following tables summarise the main characteristics of the indirect offers described above.

Offer type	Meaning	Typical realisation of benefactive processes	Lexico-grammatical choices
1a	I/we/company product + benefactive process having you as (potential) beneficiary	First/second plural and third person + relational process Second person modalised material process	offer provides can reserve
1b	The product + relational process + attribute is (potentially) benefactive	Third person +relational process +modal adjunct Third person + circumstantial attribute	be suitable for (you) be available (on request) be at (your) disposal

Table 5.1: Pattern 1: Writer (including the product) with expressions of benefaction

Offer type	Meaning	Typical realisation of potentiality	Lexico-grammatical choice
2a	You + expression of potentiality	Modal operator + active process (material)	can (combine)
2b	The product + passive process with expression of potentiality you as (understood) actor	Modal operator + passive process	can be (located)

Table 5.2: Pattern 2: Explicit or understood reader with expressions of potentiality

5.2.3 Indirect commands through declaratives: modulated commands

In principle, a command is associated with the form of an imperative clause. However, as mentioned earlier, it is argued in the literature that ‘languages do not develop special resources for commands and offers, since the commodity exchanged is a non-verbal action’ (Halliday, 1994: 70). Commands have been found in a form other than that of imperatives. Thompson (1996: 41) states that a command can take the shape of a declarative clause as in ‘You’d better come in’. Halliday (1994) states that an imperative, e.g. ‘go home’, when modulated, becomes indicative: ‘you must go home’. Similar cases are also found in the target texts and could be seen as modulated commands with implicit subjectivity and a relatively high degree of pressure:

[5.43] So if you produce or use vacuum as a process or research environment we should be talking. (Letters E-27, cl. 14)

[5.44] Participants on the seminar should have some practical experience with vacuum systems. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 10)

However, as stated in section 3.1 above, there are certain cases in which the writer resorts to subtle ways to remind the reader to do something. The writer does this in a way that objectivises the command in order to persuade the reader it is actually necessary to do so. The command is expressed in terms of what Halliday (1994) calls explicit objective modulation, i.e. the advice/ requirement is made objective by using expressions which do not involve the writer in the attitude expressed. The wording in such cases includes modal adjectives and/or modal lexical verbs such as ‘essential’ and ‘be expected’, e.g.:

[5.45] To operate a vacuum process successfully, it is essential to measure and often control the total pressure. (Comp. lit. E-13, cls. 22 - 24)

[5.46] The subjects are dealt with thoroughly, but reasonable knowledge of vacuum is expected. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 13)

5.2.4 The role of imperatives in the texts

As stated above, the imperative is the basic grammatical form to demand goods and services (direct commands). In fact, one can find commands expressed with their typical form, i.e. imperative form, in sales promotional letters but not in other types of promotional text, e.g.:

[5.47] Please continue to use your existing copies. (Letter E-23, cl. 9)

[5.48] Please insert in your copy of the Vacuum Generators components Catalogue. (Letter E-14, cl. 2)

However, another instance of mismatch between form and function observed in the texts is related to clauses which, although being grammatically imperatives, are not used to demand goods and services (commands) as would be typically expected. Just as a question asked in the form of a declarative combines elements of 'declarativeness' and questioning ('And he's been back with this girl since he's been with Gertrude?' 'Yes', Thompson, 1996: 174) blending meanings of 'imperativeness' (you do it) and 'offering' (I'll do it for your benefit) results in 'I want you to accept my offer', an imperative-functioning-as-an-offer as in: 'Do take a seat' or 'Please sit down'.

As Halliday (1994) points out, the rhetorical function of these clauses depends upon various factors of which the context of situation plays an important role. In the case of saying to a guest 'please sit down' when proceeding to the table, it would be normally interpreted as an offer. However, in the context of, 'Please sit down, you are blocking my view' said to a person in a football match, the same expression is clearly a command.

Since the overall purpose of the texts is to make offers, it is not surprising to find imperatives (as in the case of the declaratives discussed above) functioning as offers, as in:

- [5.49] Please find enclosed some of the literature regarding our company, and its role in the marina design and construction industry. (Letter E-13, cl. 1)
- [5.50] Should you require a copy of the price list of any literature please do not hesitate to call us. (Letter E-23, cls. 29, 30)

A common feature of these clauses is that they relate to processes of communication: mentioning enclosure, inviting contact, etc. (see Table 5.3).

Function of imperatives	Meaning	Typical realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
Direct command	Demanding good and services	Imperative + behavioural and material processes	-continue to use -insert
Indirect offer	Expressing process of communication	Imperative + material and mental processes	-find enclosed -do not hesitate to contact

Table 5.3: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of imperatives

5.3 Refined categories in Spanish

The study of the mood choice and the speech functions in Spanish texts followed the same approach and framework of analysis used to explore the relationship between form and function in the corpus in English. That is, theoretical accounts for the study of direct and indirect speech functions were considered within the overall contextual purpose of promoting and selling good and services as discussed earlier. Similarly, the categories derived from the analysis of text in English were also used in this work to identify similarities and/or differences in the choice of language resources to express functions in the two languages.

This section provides a detailed description of the categories derived from the analysis of speech roles in Spanish. On the whole, the categories are similar to those identified in English. However, as stated earlier, in some cases there can be subtle variations in the

choice of certain lexico-grammatical resources to express similar speech functions in one language, but not in the other. The similarities and differences are discussed below.

5.3.1 The use of declaratives

5.3.1.1 Statements

Statements in Spanish are also less reader-oriented than offers and commands. However, within them there are degrees of orientation towards the reader that allows us to group them into two main categories as in English: non-offer related statements (NORS) and those statements supporting the offer (SSO). NORS can provide factual information such as background details of the company related to historical development, location and activities of the company.

- [5.51] La Compañía se encuentra ubicada en la Avenida Pedro Vélez, Diagonal 20 No. 45 - 50 del Barrio Bosque, en la ciudad de Cartagena. (Letter S-17, cl. 8)

(The company is located on Pedro Velez Road, Diagonal 20 No. 40 – 50 of [the] Bosque quarter in the town of Cartagena.)

- [5.52] ... en esto momentos estamos en el proceso de organización de la información. (Letter S-15, cl. 2)

(... at this moment, we are in the process of organizing the information.)

This type of proposition can also be used to evaluate the experience of the company to perform in the business world as in:

- [5.53] Rayco Ltda. es una compañía con una trayectoria de más de catorce años en el mercado nacional e internacional de comunicaciones. (Letter S-20, cl. 1)

(Rayco Ltda. is a company of more than fourteen years experience in the national and international market of communications.)

- [5.54] En Colombia somos líderes en la prestación de servicio de gas natural para vehículo en la ciudades de Barranquilla, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Montería, Sincelejo y Santa Fé de Bogotá. (Comp. lit. S-5, cl. 16)

(In Colombia we are leading the service of natural gas for vehicles in Barranquilla, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Montería, Sincelejo and Santa Fé de Bogotá.)

The second type of statements, SSO is concerned with emphasising the goodness of the product. As in English, they can be seen as an intermediate level between purely informative propositions and offers. They have the rhetorical force associated with offers but lack the wording of offers: either 'I offer something for ... to you' or a benefactive process which implies the presence of at least one of the two interactants in their role of beneficiary or benefactor.

[5.55] El gas natural para vehículos, GNC, es el combustible óptimo para la propulsión de vehículos automotores. (Letter S-5, cl. 5)

(Natural gas for vehicles, GNC, is the best fuel for the propulsion of motor vehicles.)

[5.56] Los Ucon (Uconall's) presentan:
Superior lubricidad
Larga vida de los aceites
Reduccion del consumo de los mismos
Menores costos operativos
Alto punto de ignición y llama
Seguridad en el manejo
Fácil manejo
excelente miscibilidad (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 3)

(The UCON (UCONALL'S) possesses:
Superior lubrication
Long life of oil
Reduction of the consumption of the same
Lower operating costs
High point of ignition and burning
Handling security
Easy handling
Excellent mixability

This group of propositions describe the performance of the product or service. The following examples are part of a list of clauses introduced in the original under the heading 'beneficios'.

[5.57] En el Nitrato de Amonio, los portadores del Nitrogeno son dos estados químicos de especial significado para la nutricio vegetal: el NITRATO (NO₃) y el AMONIO (NH₄). (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 8)

(In ammonium nitrate, the carriers of the nitrogen are two chemical states of special significance for the vegetable diet: the NITRATE (NO₃) and the AMONIUM (NH₄.)

[5.58] Los dos pueden ser asimilados por el cultivo en forma inmediata. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 9)

(Both can be assimilated by the crop instantly.)

[5.59] Simultáneamente, la presencia de fósforo en el abono NUTRIMON 30-6-0, en un estado químico de máxima solubilidad, permite también la liberación rápida de los aniones fosfato (H₂PO₄ y HPO₄) desde los gránulos del fertilizante hacia la solución del suelo, para ser asimilados por el cultivo. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 18)

(Simultaneously, the presence of phosphor in the fertilizer NUTRIMON 30-6-0, in a chemical state of maximum solubility, also allows the quick release of phosphate anions (H₂PO₄ and HPO₄) from the granules of the fertilizer towards the soil solution, to be assimilated by the crop.)

In [5.59] 'permite' conveys positive evaluation of the product itself. 'Permite' here is not equated with 'allow you', it refers rather to the properties of the product.

5.3.1.2 Offers through declaratives

Two main types of offers were found: 'direct' and 'indirect offers'. As in English, the concept of direct and indirect offers depends on whether the interactants appear explicitly or inexplicitly mentioned in the relation.

Direct offers

Direct offers are those in which both interactants appear explicitly signalled with the role of beneficiary and benefactor. As stated in chapter 4, in Spanish the range of linguistic resources to refer to each interactant is wider than in English. Both writer and reader can be referred in the language system through pronominal choice (person and object pronouns) and verbs inflections. Thus, the writer can be seen not only in the choice of the personal pronoun 'I' or 'we', but also through object pronouns such as 'me', 'nos', verb inflections such as '-o', '-mos' and possessive pronouns such as 'nuestros' and 'nuestro' as in the examples below. Similarly, the reader can be seen not only in the use of personal pronouns 'tu', 'usted(s)' or 'Ud(s)', but also through other pronominal forms such as 'le', 'les' or 'su'. This wider option available within the language system itself

can influence the frequency of use with which this type of offer can be found in the texts in Spanish.

- [5.60] Adjunto le estoy enviando la hoja informática de seguridad sobre el producto y fotocopia de las inspecciones. (Letter S-2, cl. 6).
(Attached I am sending the insurance information sheet of the product and photocopy of the survey.)
- [5.61] AWT Colombia, le ofrece a UD. una alternativa mas económica. (Letter S-3, cl. 9)
(AWT Colombia, offers you a cost-effective alternative.)
- [5.62] Nuestra compañía CIGA Ltda., se permite ofrecerle formalmente los servicios profesionales indispensables ... (Letter S-4, cl. 3)
(Aware of your concern for the conservation of nature our company, CIGA Ltda allows itself to formally offer [you] the essential professional services ...)
- [5.63] Para ello tenemos a su disposición inmediata un amplio equipo de profesionales con suficiente trayectoria en las diferentes ingenierías, biología, salud, educación, y todo lo pertinente al medio ambiente. (Letter S-4, cl. 5)
(For this we have at your disposal a complete professional team with enough experience in engineering, biology, health, education and all concerning environmental issues.)
- [5.64] Le invitamos a ensayarla por intermedio de sus polarizadores habituales. (Letter S-1, cl. 11)
(We invite you to try it out through your usual polarisers.)

Table 5.4 summarises the main features of direct offers in Spanish texts.

Indirect offers

Indirect offers are those clauses whose wording includes language features, which imply the presence of the reader or the writer. The writer and the reader are implied in various forms.

As in English, these types of offer conveyed through declaratives are sub-categorised into offers 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b depending on the semantic and lexico-grammatical features which are used in the wording.

Meaning	Typical realisation	lexico-grammatical choice
Explicit I/we +benefactive processes + you as explicit beneficiary	Object pronoun (First singular person)+modulated (obligation) Verbal process+ formal singular object pronoun	me permito informarle
	Formal singular object Pronoun+material process (singular first person)	le estoy enviando
	Modulated material process (plural first person)+ formal singular reflexive pronoun	estare(mos) suministrándosela
	Relational process (first plural person) + possessive attribute	tenemos a su disposición
	Formal singular object pronoun+ modulated (plural first person) + material and mental processes	le invitamos a ensayarla/ considerar

Table 5.4: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of direct offers in Spanish

Indirect offers 1a

Firstly, both interactants can be referred to in the offer through oblique reference and the reader through benefactive processes. In the example, below the writer is being referred to as 'un grupo de profesionales', and the reader can be perceived both in 'sector productivo', 'entidades' and in the beneficiary role implied in the process 'ofrece' as in [5.65].

Secondly, the wording includes direct reference to the writer through a verb inflection and the reader is implied in the beneficiary process. In the following example, the verb inflection '-mos' in 'ofrecemos' provides direct reference to the writer; whereas the reader can be perceived as the beneficiary of the offer implied in the process.

Thirdly, indirect reference to the benefactor role of the writer can be conveyed through both passive material processes such as ‘diseñados’ and non-finite processes such as ‘proporcionar’, ‘atender’ and ‘resolver’ ([5.67], [5.68] and [5.69]). The wording can also include indirect reference to the reader in the form of oblique reference such as ‘cliente’ ([5.67]) as well as more implicit reference in the form of nominalisations such as ‘necesidades’ and ‘problemas’ ([5.68] and [5.69]).

Fourthly, the benefactor source associated with the writer or the company can also be sensed through reference to the product as announcing the benefit for the reader. In example [5.70], ‘reservas abundantes’, which represents the product offered, promise to solve the needs of the customer who, in turn, can be perceived in the nominal group ‘abastecimiento libre de problemas’.

- [5.65] Consciente de la importancia del desarrollo sostenible como política del estado colombiano ante el innegable deterioro del medio ambiente, un grupo de profesionales con vasta experiencia en diferentes disciplinas del conocimiento, ofrece al sector productivo y a las entidades ... (Letter S-4, cl. 1)
(Knowing the importance of the sustainable development as a Colombian Policy facing the undeniable deterioration of the environment a group of professionals [experts] with a vast experience in different disciplines of knowledge, offers the manufacturing sector and corporations ...)
- [5.66] Los productos de red que ofrecemos son de alta calidad ... (Letter S-6, cl. 5-6)
(The products of network that we offer are of high quality ...)
- [5.67] ... diseñados para proporcionar conectividad entre cualquier cliente de servicios, con independencia de su aplazamiento ... (Letter S-6, cl. 8.)
(... [the product] designed to provide connection between any customer and services, independent of its postponed delivery [we design them to provide] ...)
- [5.68] ... para atender las necesidades en todo lo relacionado con el medio ambiente. (Letter S-4, cl. 4)
(... to meet all needs regarding environmental issues.)
- [5.69] ... para resolver problemas de lubricación industrial. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 2)
(... to solve industrial lubrication problems.)

- [5.70] Reservas abundantes aseguran un abastecimiento libre de problemas por muchos años. (Letter S-5, cl. 4)

(Abundant sources ensure a problem-free supply for many years.)

Meaning	Typical Realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
I/we/company/the product + benefactive processes having you as potential beneficiary	Third person + material processes	un grupo de profesionales+ofrece+ sector productivo y a las entidades
	Plural first person+ material processes	ofrecemos
	Third person + passive material process + non-finite material processes	los productos están diseñados para proporcionar/ atender/resolver
	Third person+ verbal processes	reservas abundantes aseguran

Table 5.5: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of offers 1a

Indirect offers 1b

The second group of categories of indirect offers consists of those clauses whose wording makes strong reference to the beneficiary role of the reader through benefactive attributes. In Spanish, the attributes are expressed in the form of nominalizations such as 'respuesta' [5.71] and 'alternativa' [5.72] through which the product or service offered can be seen as essential to meet customer's needs.

- [5.71] En Colombia el gas natural es la respuesta a esa necesidad. (Letter S-5, cl. 2)

(In Colombia natural gas is the answer to such need.)

- [5.72] ... y es una excelente alternativa frente al consumo de derivados del petróleo. (Letter S-5, cl. 3)

(... and it is an excellent alternative with regard to the consumption of oil by-products.)

Meaning	Typical realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
The product + relational process+ attribute is potentially beneficiary	Third person + attribute relational process	garantiza beneficios garantiza suministro respuesta a esa necesidad excelente alternativa
	Third person +modulated relational process+attribute	permiten garantizar un desempeño
	Formal plural object pronoun +attribute relational process (3 rd person)	para ustedes tiene una tercera respuesta

Table 5.6: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of indirect offers 1b

Indirect offers 2a

In this type of indirect offers, the reader can be directly involved as the potential actor in a material process which is assumed to be beneficial for him/her, whereas the writer is neither explicitly nor implicitly mentioned in the wording. As in English, the wording typically includes 'poder' (*can*). However, in Spanish, direct reference to the reader is conveyed through a wider range of choices other than personal pronouns 'tu', 'usted', 'ustedes', 'Ud.' 'Uds.' (all translated as 'you'), namely, verb inflections as in 'pueda [usted]' or 'puedan [ustedes]' in the examples below.

[5.73] ... que [usted] pueda utilizar en beneficio de su empresa. (Letter S-6, cl. 16)

(... so that [you] can use [it] for the benefit of your company.)

[5.74] ... para que [ustedes] puedan adquirir la tecnología de General Electric en el campo de las siliconas. (Letter S-14, cl. 19)

(... so that [you] can acquire the technology from General Electric in the silicone field.)

Nevertheless, it is also possible that the prospect of the reader to become the actor in a beneficiary process is perceived in non-finite processes. In example [5.76], 'para estar' and 'para obtener' indicate that the reader can enjoy the benefits projected in the wording.

- [5.75] ... que al contar [usted] con los equipos ... permite que usted tenga una organización de sus planes de desarrollo. (Letter S-14, cls. 14, 15)
(... getting the equipment ... allows you to organize your plans of development.)
- [5.76] ... para estar 100% ligados al productor de los aditivos químicos para obtener la extensión de la garantía del proveedor de las membranas. (Letter S-3, cls. 8, 9)
(... [you] to be 100% linked to the producer of the chemical additives in order to get the extension of the guarantee from the supplier of the membranes.)

Indirect offers 2b

This type of indirect offer is also used in the text to project the reader as the potential actor of the beneficiary process, but it is conveyed through passive processes. Passive processes in Spanish can be expressed as in English though a potential expression ‘poder’ (*can*) + ‘ser’ (*be*) + past participle as in ‘pueden ser submultiplexados’ in [5.77] or can also be expressed through reflexive ‘se’ forms as in ‘puede incrementarse’ [5.78].

- [5.77] Los circuitos de datos sincrónicos y asincrónicos ... pueden ser submultiplexados en un sólo circuito de 64 kbps. (Letter S-20, cl. 15)
(The circuits of synchronous and asynchronous data ... can be submultiplexed in just one single circuit)
- [5.78] La longitud de cable puede incrementarse cientos de pies sin afectar el desempeño de la medición (Cat. S-1, cl. 18)
(The length of the cable can be increased by hundreds of feet without affecting the measurement performance)
- [5.79] Con ellos se eliminan muchos de los problemas encontrados. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 6)
(With them many of the problems encountered are eliminated [they can be used to eliminate problems].)

Meaning	Typical realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
‘You’ as potential actor in a benefactive passive reflexive process	passive reflexive ‘se’	se eliminan

Table 5.7: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of indirect offers 2b

5.3.1.3 Indirect commands through declaratives

As in English, commands can also be expressed within a grammatical structure other than that of an imperative. In [5.82] ‘aprovéchenlos’ (*take advantage of them*) would be a more congruent form of an imperative underlying the indirect order ‘que [todos] debemos aprovecharlos’ (*that we all should take advantage of them*). In other words, the pressure is indirectly assigned by converting an imperative into a declarative. This type of command occurs typically within an environment of positive assessment regarding an event. We could then argue that writer’s assessment ‘son tan importantes’ in the example is used to justify the indirect way of projecting the command.

[5.80] En consecuencia, es conveniente y necesario que desde ahora empiece a prepararse desarrollando paulatinamente su plan de Manejo Ambiental. (Comp. lit. S-8, cl. 7-9)

(Consequently, it is convenient and necessary that from now [he] starts to get ready by developing slowly his plan of Environmental Management.)

The modulated command ‘que desde ahora empiece a ...’ becomes subjunctive to indirectly express the underlying more congruent form of the imperative ‘empieza’. Again, it could be argued that the high pressure assigned in the subjunctivised command is justified by the objectivised positive assessment conveyed in the previous clause ‘es conveniente y necesario’.

Modulated commands in the form of imperative and subjunctive can also be expressed with low degree of pressure. In the following example, ‘quedamos a la espera’ (*we are looking forward to hearing from you*) can be seen as the transformation of the direct command ‘give us a call’. Unlike [5.80], this modulated command is assigned with low pressure. This degree of pressure is even softened by the preceding evaluative clause ‘con el mayor deseo de servirles’ through which the writer expresses his willingness to help in case the customer decides to establish the contact with the company.

- [5.81] Con el mayor deseo de servirles, quedamos a la espera de sus gratas noticias. (Letter S-4, cls. 6, 7)
(With our best wish to serve you we are looking forward to hearing good news you from.)
- [5.82] ... [los beneficios] son tan importantes que debemos aprovecharlos. (Letter S-5, cls. 10, 11)
(... [the benefits] are so important that we should take advantage of them.)

Meaning	Typical realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
Explicit subjectivity and low degree of pressure	Plural first person +relational process + possessive attribute	quedamos a la espera de sus
Implicit subjectivity and high degree of pressure	Modulated material processes (plural first person)	debemos

Table 5.8: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of indirect commands

5.3.2 The use of imperatives

Imperatives are used with similar purpose as in English. They convey direct commands and offers of communication.

5.3.2.1 Direct commands

This type of commands typically occurs in the context of providing instructions.

- [5.83] ... por favor preséntenos esta carta ... (Letter S-7, cl. 7)
(... please produce this letter to us ...)

In Spanish, however, direct commands could also be expressed through infinitive clauses preceded by 'favor' (*please*).

- [5.84] Favor agregar el 16% de I.V.A., \$300,00 de seguro hotelero por persona. (Letter S-14, cl. 4)
(Please add 16 % VAT, \$300.00 of hotel insurance per person.)

5.3.2.2 Offers of communication

The wording, in fact, includes the imperative form used to demand goods and services, but the rhetorical force associated with offers is present through language choices such as 'servirle' and 'demostrar' which imply the beneficiary role of the reader. Thus, this type of proposal can be categorised as indirect offers.

[5.85] ... dénos la oportunidad de servirle ... (Letter S-5, cl. 14)

(... *give us the opportunity to serve you* ...)

[5.86] Permítanos demostrar ... (Letter S-6, cl. 13)

(*Allow us to show* ...)

Function of imperatives	Meaning	Typical realisation	Lexico-grammatical choice
Direct command	Demanding good and services	Imperative + behavioural and material processes	preséntenos
		Non-finite (infinitive) material process	favor agregar
Indirect offer	Expressing process of communication	Imperative + material and mental processes	dénos la oportunidad de servirle

Table 5.9: Semantic and lexico-grammatical features of imperatives in Spanish

5.4 Statistical analysis

As stated above, establishing the borderline between highly informative propositions and those conveying an illocutionary force associated with offers and/or commands is not straightforward. The description of categories has shown, as with the other interpersonal features that have been investigated, that there is a cline of values which can be assigned to direct or indirect ways of expressing social roles. As a result, a unique assignment of values is impossible. Thus, it would be not surprising that, in some cases, other analysts

may assign a particular instance to a different category other than those decided on in this study.

5.4.1 Sales letters

5.4.1.1 Letters in Spanish

At the overall level, the results show that in Spanish letters statements and offers are the most frequently used types of speech functions with a very similar frequency of use. It should be noted that commands occur at a very low level of frequency. As can be seen, the interaction is being built upon a balance between informing and offering, though, as stated earlier, most of the statements seem to support the offer. This probably means not only that in persuading customers a great deal of information of the product/service is required, but also that the individualised nature associated with letters encourages the presence of a social/reader-oriented interaction.

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
34% ±8%	9% ±5%	22% ±8%	17% ±4%	2% ±1%	3% ±2%	1% ±1%	3% ±2%	1% ±2%	8% ±4%
		25% ±5%							
44% ±7%		47% ±8%						9% ±4%	

Table 5.10: Mean frequencies⁷ of speech functions in letters in Spanish

At the level of subcategories, the findings may also have implications for the identification of the type of interaction developed in the texts. As shown in Table 5.10,

⁷ As outlined in 3.4.2, the frequency of a linguistic feature has been calculated by dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in each text. Then, the mean and standard error of the frequency have been obtained for each language and text type.

NORS are more frequently used than SSO, i.e. writers are more concerned with raising positive evaluation of the company than with the evaluation of the product. This seems to indicate the presence of a rather self-oriented focus within the informative content. The frequency of use of direct and indirect offers are relatively similar, which suggests that interactants can be both explicitly and implicitly involved in the negotiation. With regard to commands, indirect commands are clearly preferred to direct ones. This may suggest that writers are concerned with allowing the reader more freedom to follow the instructions or requirements.

5.4.1.2 Letters in English

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
37% ±7%	9% ±4%	11% ±4%	13% ±5%	5% ±3%	1% ±1%	2% ±2%	10% ±3%	5% ±4%	6% ±2%
		31% ±8%							
47% ±8%		42% ±8%						11% ±7%	

Table 5.11: Mean frequencies of speech functions in letters in English

As shown in Table 5.11, statements and offers are the most frequently used speech functions with a similar level of frequency. That is, the interaction is being mostly built upon a balance between informing and offering. As in Spanish, this seems to suggest that in persuading customers, a great deal of shared knowledge on the product and service is required, but at the same time the individualised nature associated with letters encourages the choice of social/reader-oriented interaction.

At the level of subcategories, the frequency of NORS is higher than SSO. As in Spanish, this probably means that the informative content is rather self-focussed, since writers are more concerned with raising positive evaluation of the company than the product.

Indirect offers are more frequently used than direct ones. This can be understood as preference to apply less pressure on the reader to accept the offer. In contrast to Spanish, writers in English prefer to persuade the customer by using ways in which both interactants appear less visible in the relation, though command offers are more frequently used in English than in Spanish. In this type of offer, the reader is more openly seen through the writer's encouragement to accept an offer of communication. However, threats to freedom of judgement in such a straightforward encouragement is mitigated by the use of 'please' and the modal 'can'. For this reason, it is thought that in command offers the pressure on the reader is weaker than in direct offers. 'You can phone us' or 'Please do not hesitate to contact us' are certainly more directly addressed to the reader than in 'The product is available' or 'We offer a wide range of applications'. However, the reader is less pressurised to accept the offer than in 'You must contact us', which never occurs in the corpus. The commands are always phrased in a way which actually leaves it to the addressee to decide whether to carry them out or not.

With commands, the preference for indirect or direct ways is not as clear as in Spanish. However, when demanding goods and services, writers in English may project themselves more openly than in Spanish.

5.4.1.3 Comparison

At the level of major categories, the analysis of speech functions suggests that writers of promotional letters in both languages tend to keep the balance between informing and offering. This may be related to the highly individualised nature associated with letters which encourages the visibility of a social/reader-oriented concern in the interaction. To a certain extent, this socially-oriented concern is also reflected in the frequent usage of evaluation attached to the informative content in both languages. Because of the persuasive nature of the texts, most of the statements can be perceived as supporting the offer. However, it seems likely that the interactive orientation is more emphasised in Spanish than in English through the choice of direct ways to express the offer.

Indirect ways of demanding goods and services is more frequently used in Spanish than in English. Probably, this indicates that the writers of letters in Spanish are more concerned with avoiding 'face threats' (Goffman, 1967) and allowing the reader more 'freedom of action' (Brown and Levison 1978). This degree of pressure to fulfil the demands may construe a more distant or formal relation with the reader in Spanish than in English.

5.4.2 Company literature

5.4.2.1 Company literature in Spanish

In company literature in Spanish, statements outweigh the frequency of offers and commands occur at a lower level of frequency than in letters. As can be seen in Table 5.11, a more information-oriented interaction seems to be preferred by writers of this text type in this language, though, as stated earlier, statements may also be perceived as supporting the offer in the context of promotion.

The analysis of statements shows that NORS occur more frequently than SSO. As in letters, this may suggest that the informative content is rather self-oriented, since writers are more concerned with raising positive evaluation of the company than the product. This also implies that the main purpose of this type of text is to raise credibility of the products/services by referring to the high standards of the company.

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
59% ±17%	19% ±15%	1% ±2%	19% ±10%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1% ±2%
		20% ±10%							
79% ±11%		20% ±10%						1% ±2%	

Table 5.12: Mean frequencies of speech functions in company literature in Spanish

Indirect offers are more frequently used than direct offers, in particular in those cases where the reader-oriented benefit is introduced by the writer as an institutionalised entity or through the product itself without direct reference to the reader. Within this social function of the interaction, an implicit reference to the reader may suggest that s/he is less pressurised to accept or refuse the offer. The same concern is also seen in the low frequency of indirect ways of demanding goods and services.

5.4.2.2 Company literature in English

In company literature in English, statements are again the most frequently occurring speech function, though the frequency difference between statements and offers is less pronounced than in Spanish. It is rather surprising that in texts which are often

associated with providing information, writers also tend to maintain a socially-oriented interaction as in letters.

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
25% ±10%	28% ±9%	3% ±4%	19% ±8%	8% ±4%	0%	6% ±4%	5% ±4%	1% ±2%	3% ±4%
		38% ±10%							
54% ±10%		42% ±10%						4% ±4%	

Table 5.13: Mean frequencies of speech functions in company literature in English

The results also show that both NORS and SSO are used with a similar level of frequency. This suggests that the self-focussed tendency within the informative content is less important here than in the previous texts.

As in Spanish, indirect offers are the most frequently used ways of expressing the social-orientation in the interaction, in particular, in those ways (indirect 1a) in which the reader-oriented benefit is introduced by the writer, an institutionalised entity or the product itself. However, the frequency of use of indirect offers 2b, in which the reader is more weakly perceived, is much higher (6%) here than in the previous text types (less than 3%). This type of offer suggests an alternative use of the product or service within the technical process. Perhaps, in this context, the nature of this offer is encouraged by the more information-oriented concern associated with this type of text.

5.4.2.3 Comparison

In both languages, the emphasis on an information-oriented interaction in this text type can be seen in the high frequency of statements. This orientation is also reflected in the absence of indirect offer 2a in which the reader is explicitly signalled as the potential beneficiary of the offer.

Within the informative content, writers appear to be still interested in maintaining a certain level of social or personalised interaction. However, the interactive orientation is more visible in English than Spanish in the sense that in Spanish, the personalised concern is more self-centred, whereas in English it is rather reader-oriented.

It could be argued that the pattern of indirect speech functions within the interactive orientation construes a more distant relation. At the same time, this degree of interactive or personalised orientation may provide the reader with more freedom to accept or refuse the offer as well as to follow instructions during the interaction.

5.4.3 Catalogues

5.4.3.1 Catalogues in Spanish

The overall pattern of frequencies of speech functions in catalogues in Spanish is very similar to that of company literature in the same language. Statements outweigh the frequency of offers. Commands occur at very low level of frequency. As can be seen a more information-oriented interaction also seems to be preferred by writers of this text type in this language, though, as pointed out earlier, statements may also be perceived as supporting the offer in the context of promotion. The analysis of statements shows that NORS tend to occur more frequently than SSO. In Spanish, the tendency to use more

NORS may suggest that the informative content is rather self- focussed, since writers are more concerned with raising positive evaluation of the company than the product.

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
42% ±21%	34% ±20%	0%	15% ±8%	2% ±4%	0%	6% ±9%	0%	0%	1% ±2%
		23% ±8%							
76% ±6%		23% ±7%						1% ±2%	

Table 5.14: Mean frequencies of speech functions in catalogues in Spanish

It seems that the overall emphasis on information influences the writer's choice of expressing socio-functional roles indirectly. As shown in Table 5.14, direct offer, command, indirect offer and command offer in which the reader is explicitly addressed do not occur in these texts. In most cases, the reader-oriented benefit is introduced by the writer as an institutionalised entity or through the product itself without direct reference to the reader. It should be also noted that the frequency of use of indirect offers 2b tends to be higher in this text type than in letters and in company literature in Spanish, where this type of offer is very uncommon or not used at all. The visibility of the reader is very low in this type of offer. As explained earlier, this type of offer suggests alternatives in the use of the product/service within the technical process. Thus, this choice reflects a more information-based interaction.

5.4.3.2 Catalogues in English

In catalogues in English, the overall pattern of frequency is similar to that of catalogues in Spanish. The frequency of use of statements again outnumbers the frequency of

offers. Commands occur at a lower level of frequency than in letters. This indicates that the tendency towards an information-oriented interaction is also favoured by writers of catalogues in this language. However, as in the previous text types, statements may also be perceived as supporting the offer in the context of promotion.

Statements		Offers						Commands	
NORS	SSO	Direct Offer	Indirect 1a	Indirect 1b	Indirect 2a	Indirect 2b	Command Offer	Direct command	Indirect command
15% ±12%	58% ±12%	1% ±2%	10% ±4%	5% ±4%	0%	7% ±4%	2% ±2%	2% ±2%	1% ±2%
		24% ±8%							
73% ±8%		25% ±8%						3% ±4%	

Table 5.15: Mean frequencies of speech functions in catalogues in English

In catalogues in English, SSO occur more frequently than NORS which is not the case in the other text types in both languages. Here, writers appear to be more interested in raising positive evaluation regarding the properties and the performance of the product than with highlighting the trustworthiness of the company. This may suggest that the information-oriented interaction is stronger in this text type in English than in others in both languages.

As in Spanish, the overall emphasis on information seems to encourage the choice of indirect or implicit forms to involve the reader in the offer. As shown in Table 5.15, indirect offers are the most frequently used. Here, the main choice of indirect offers also involves those ways in which it seems to be important to signal the benefactor sources such as the writer, the institution and the product itself more openly than the beneficiary. Similarly, the frequency of use of indirect offers 2b tends to be higher in these texts than

in letters and company literature in Spanish. As stated before, in this offer the potential use of the product/service within the technical process is stressed and the visibility of the reader is lower than in other offers. Therefore it is plausible to argue that the information-oriented nature of catalogues is also supported through this choice.

However, within the socio-functional orientation observed in the texts, there seems to be more space for direct involvement of the reader in English than in Spanish. As shown in Table 5.15, direct offers, command offers and direct commands, which involve the reader more explicitly, tend to be used in English. This choice was not found in Spanish.

5.4.3.3 Comparison

In catalogues in both languages, the interaction is more information-oriented. However, in Spanish the informative content is rather self-focussed, because of the high tendency to highlight the qualities of the company; whereas in English, the information is more product-oriented.

In both languages, direct involvement of the reader in the offer is constrained by the informative nature of the texts. Though indirect choices of expressing socio-functional roles may be seen as allowing the reader more freedom of judgement, they, at the same time, may construe a distant relation in the interaction. However, it should be noted that the tendency towards a distant relation seems to be more emphasised in Spanish than in English, since it is possible to find both interactants being involved more openly in instructions in English than in Spanish.

5.5 Conclusion

Through the analysis of major and subcategories of speech functions, it has been possible to identify ways in which writers interact with readers that may be seen as potential markers to define generic features, not only at the level of the concept of promotion as a whole across languages, but also within the same language. Similarly, the ways in which writers interact with readers have also implications for the identification of (sub)generic features of one text type as opposed to the others, not only within the same language, but also across languages. Table 5.16 gives an overview of the main findings presented so far, as a basis for highlighting the main similarities and differences that have emerged.

		Statements	Offers	Commands
Spanish	Letters	44% ±7%	47% ±8%	9% ±4%
	Company literature	79% ±11%	20% ±10%	1% ±2%
	Catalogues	76% ±6%	23% ±7%	1% ±2%
English	Letters	47% ±8%	42% ±8%	11% ±7%
	Company literature	54% ±10%	42% ±10%	4% ±4%
	Catalogues	73% ±8%	25% ±8%	3% ±4%

Table 5.16: Mean frequencies of speech functions in Spanish and English

At a very broad level, the analysis reveals that writers in both languages tend to use similar language choices to express their pragmatic purpose in the context of promotion. The analysis of the major categories has demonstrated that there is a strong tendency for writers of promotional texts to interact with the reader through a higher proposition oriented content than proposal oriented in both languages. This can be observed in the

higher number of statements compared to the number of offers and also in the rare use of commands.

Due to the highly persuasive nature of promotional texts, one would expect that the texts display an emphasis on socially-oriented interactions, at least through indirect ways. However, as results show, most of the persuasion seems to be expressed through informative content. This propositional content is heavily combined with evaluation either inscribed or evoked, which within the appropriate context can be understood as supporting the offer. In other words, the message is packed in a propositional shape, but intended to be interpreted as providing goods and services.

Another specific feature which is also common in all text types in both languages is the concern of writers to avoid themselves and the readers to be mentioned explicitly within the individual-oriented tone of the relation. This finding is reflected in various ways throughout the analysis of both main and sub-categories.

In the analysis of the main categories, a less visible reader can be seen in the higher choice of indirect offers than direct ones and also in the rare frequency of use of commands across text types in both languages. At the level of subcategories, the same tendency to avoid projecting both interactants as fully involved is also seen in the preference for a less visible writer through a group or institutionalised entity conveyed through indirect offers 1a.

Similarly, the choice of an implicit reader can also be observed in the very low frequency of use of indirect offers 2a in the corpora. In indirect offers 2a, the reader is openly projected as the actor of the potential beneficiary role. As a general rule, this type of indirect offer does not occur in catalogues and company literature, while in letters it

very rarely occurs. However, in some cases the absence of a particular subtype may also be understood as a potential marker of generic/subgeneric distinction. Also, at a generic level, such findings may allow us to distinguish between promotional texts, manuals or other types of text, though, more research is certainly needed in order to confirm such a claim.

Finally, the weak visibility of both interactants can also be seen in the higher use of indirect commands in comparison to direct commands in all text types and in both languages. The type of indirect command that can be typically found is one that is highly objectivised as in 'it is necessary to' and 'it is important to'. It could be argued that one generic feature of promotional texts in both languages is to allow the reader freedom of judgement and, at the same time, to signal that all indirect suggestions made by the writer are in the interests of both interactants.

It is likely that the choice of a less visible writer or reader within the individual-oriented concern and the high informative content in the texts is related to the type of interactants involved in the relation. Typically, both writers and addressees are experts in the field representing their companies within the business relationship. It is plausible to assume that the interaction is mainly information-based. In addition, the reader is given freedom of judgement during the relationship. In other words, the customer is free to decide whether the details of the offer actually meet the needs of her/his company.

Besides the above similarities observed across text types in both languages, at a more delicate level, the analysis also yielded subtle variations in the emphasis on a particular way of projecting interactants in the relation.

The concern with allowing the reader more freedom is more frequently observed in Spanish than in English. The distinction can be seen in that direct commands are more common in English than in Spanish. In Spanish catalogues and company literature, direct commands do not occur, and in letters occur only rarely. In most cases, order or instructions are preferred to be softened by projecting the command in an objectivised way to avoid offending the addressee. Probably, the aim is to make suggestions, take decisions and provide instructions in a way that sounds to be in the interest of both interactants. In English, those aims tend to be slightly more directly expressed.

A second distinction between the two languages is related to the projection of the image of the company with which sales promotional literature, in particularly letters, is associated (Bhatia, 1993). Self-image of companies seems to be paramount in Spanish texts; whereas the highlighting of the goodness of the product, in most cases, is given less space in the texts. In English, the emphasis on either topic varies from one text type to another. The explanation for the variation in the above emphasis may involve a deeper understanding of the social-cultural context in which the texts are produced.

At a more detailed level of analysis of the major categories and subcategories of speech functions, findings have also revealed important features in the ways writers interact with the reader that can be used to distinguish one text type from others across languages or within the same language.

The individualised and interactive nature expected in letters and the information-oriented nature that catalogues and company literature are associated with have been found in both languages. Besides the general tendency to persuade the reader through a high propositional content, it is likely that the interactive nature of letters encourages the choice of socially-oriented terms within the relation. At a general level, this tendency

towards a socially-oriented relation is reflected in the balance between informing and offering and in the higher use of commands in letters compared to other text types. At the same time, letters differ from the other text types in the higher frequency of use of indirect offers 2a, direct offers and command offers. In these offers, the interactants appear more visible which underlines the individualised nature expected in letters.

In catalogues in both languages, the low visibility of the interactants is accentuated through the choice of indirect offers 2b which supports the information-oriented nature of this text type. In this type of indirect offer, the reader is less visible than in the others; and it seems that the potential use of the product/service within the technical process is stressed, e.g. 'the machine can also be run at ...'. This type of indirect offer tends to occur, though with a low frequency of use, mainly in catalogues and rarely or never in the other text types.

The analysis has also revealed that the choice of speech function in one text type can differ slightly in each language. In letters in Spanish, the social function of offering goods and services involves the presence of both interactants more often than in English. This may indicate that in Spanish the reader is expected to take part in the decision of accepting or refusing the offer. The higher use of direct offers in Spanish than in English may be explained by the inherent characteristics in the system of that language rather than as a result of spontaneous choice made by writers. Firstly, there is a wider choice of pronouns in Spanish that can be used to refer to each interactant and the use of some of them in the clause is marked. Secondly, the subject can also be identified in the inflection of the main verb as in 'Nosotros le informaremos a usted tan pronto llegue la carta' (*We will keep you informed as soon as the letter arrives*).

In this message, both interactants are present in 'Nosotros', '-emos' (verb inflection) 'usted' and 'le'. Both, 'usted' and 'le' (*you*), refer to the recipient of the message. Of the two pronouns, only 'usted' can be dropped, whereas 'le' remains compulsory. Therefore, it is possible to say 'Nosotros le informaremos ...' (*We will keep you informed ...*) and still there is a direct reference to the recipient. Similarly, it is possible to omit 'nosotros' from the clause, and still the subject of the message is directly seen in the inflection of the verb '-emos', as in 'Le informaremos tan pronto llegue la carta' (*We will keep you informed as soon as the letter arrives*). The system in English does not allow for such flexibility.

In company literature in English, as in letters in both languages, there is a tendency to maintain a similar level of personalised interaction through offering. In Spanish, the orientation in the interaction seems to shift towards the exchange of information, although the information provided is rather self-focussed which means that the personalised orientation is still present. Similarly, in catalogues, the orientation of the information differs in each language. In Spanish, the informative content is again more self-focussed, whereas in English it is rather product-related. Finally, although the general concern in all text types is with an interaction in which the reader is allowed to reject or accept an offer or follow instructions, direct commands occur, though infrequently, in catalogues in English, but not in Spanish.

6 The analysis of evaluation

6.1 Introduction

As introduced in chapter 2, the analysis of evaluation in this work is based on the system of appraisal¹ outlined in Martin (1997, 2000). However, since each particular group in society may have its own particular ways to establish values which are expressed through words or stretches of language, Martin's system of appraisal has been slightly adapted to suit the corpus of promotional texts in both languages.

In the first part of this chapter, the results of this analysis of the data are presented and used for the development of a set of refined categories. This refined set of categories has been used for a more thorough statistical analysis of the identified values in the context of promotion. The results of the statistical analysis are presented in the second part of this chapter. At the end of this chapter, I will discuss the extent to which similar semantic evaluative resources are used by writers in the two languages, English and Spanish, and the implications that such results may have for the identification of the type of interaction developed in the discourse of promotion across languages and text types.

6.2 The results of the exploration of Martin's systems of appraisal

6.2.1 Overview

On applying Martin's categories, it was found that the language resources interpreted as instances of evaluation, in most cases, fall fairly well into the semantic slots he proposed. However, as Martin (2000: 161) maintains, 'appraisal depends on the field of discourse'. Thus, the analysis of evaluation in the context of promotion also entails that

the model needs to be adapted to fit the evaluative language resources identified in the texts.

The main area of adaptation applies in particular to those evaluative resources interpreted as referring to how the product or process are valued and which are grouped within the semantic system of appreciation. As described in the previous chapters, evaluative resources related to appreciation are, in turn, grouped into three subsets of values namely, reaction, composition and valuation.

However, according to the findings, appreciation can be expressed in terms of attitudes related to the emotional impact caused by a process or product on us (reaction), the perception of proportionality and complexity (composition) or as the result of our assessment of its social significance (valuation). The product or service being offered in the discourse of promotion is also assessed in terms of effectiveness in its field of application (see description of categories below). Such values are grouped in this study under 'performance', since they are related to the way the product or service can be used to achieve the desired results within a particular field of work.

Even with this extension to Martin's categories, it should be noted that the classification of values into the categories proposed by Martin is not always straightforward. For example, appraisal of the product and the company can be raised through the same evaluative resources.

[6.1] All Russell products are manufactured in accordance with BS5750/ISO9002.
(Cat. E-19, cl. 13)

In example [6.1], the evoked evaluation is perceived in 'in accordance with BS5750/ISO9002'. This evaluative resource could be classified under appreciation or judgement. It tells us how reliable the product and the manufacturing process is seen in

legal terms, i.e. the product fulfils the standards set by the authorities. However, this part of the message can, at the same time, be interpreted as intended to evoke feelings of trust and reliability towards the company, since the manufacturing process is carried out by the company and not by the product itself. In addition, within the wording the explicit reference to the company 'Russell' can be understood as an indicator of the writer's intention to highlight the performance of the company. In this work, evaluation expressed in legal terms is seen as intended to raise positive judgement of the company.

Both the definition and criteria to identify values within the main systems of appraisal can sometimes be broad or difficult to pin down. For example, valuation is defined as 'our assessment of the social significance of the text/process' (Martin, 2000: 160) and the criterion for identifying the social significance is that of 'worthiness' (p 160). However, it could be argued that feelings expressing 'reaction to the quality' such as 'lovely', 'beautiful', 'appealing', 'revolting' and 'ugly' (p 160) are also based on our assessment of social significance. After all, values are related to ways in which society perceives people's behaviour and emotions, products, processes and events as good or bad, based on particular beliefs.

Furthermore, as Martin (2000) notes, assessment of the worthiness of products and processes may be associated within a wide range of feelings depending on their context of use. Thus, evaluative resources used to assess the worthiness of the product and/or services in the context of promotion may be different from the examples he gives as used in linguistics, e.g. 'illuminating', 'penetrating' (p 161). The difference in the kind of evaluative resources used to assess the worthiness of the product (valuation) identified in this analysis can be explained by the view that 'of all ... dimensions [of appreciation] valuation is specially tied up with field' (p 160). For this reason, valuation in this work

includes ways of expressing assessment of social significance in terms of 'reliability', 'usefulness', 'availability', 'cost effectiveness', 'suitability' and 'quality' of the product and services as described below. In the analysis, this is the area where evaluative resources seem to be most abundant.

Judgement values related to social sanction grouped around 'propriety' and 'veracity' in Martin's system of appraisal refer to personal morality. In the analysis of appraisal in this work companies have developed certain procedures to ratify their commitment to the truth and ethical issues (see sections 6.4.1.1 and 6.4.2.1). The analysis revealed that such evaluative resources are in principle used with the purpose of providing positive assessment in terms of companies' trustworthiness and the effectiveness of the product to meet customer's needs. Negative values seem rare in this genre.

6.2.2 The analysis of inscribed and evoked evaluation

As explained in chapter 2, Martin makes the important distinction that appraisal may be inscribed or evoked. By inscribed evaluation is meant here those language resources conveying 'inherently' positive or negative assessment even in isolation. Evoked evaluation, on the other hand, can be seen as 'perceived' positive or negative assessment based on shared knowledge and beliefs in a particular context of situation. However, in practice, there appears to be no watertight way of deciding whether something is inscribed or evoked; and, if it is evoked, it is not easy to decide if it is intended to be evaluative. Martin (1997, 2000) partly avoids the difficulty by treating both ways of expressing evaluation together. However, in this work, the findings have shown that the distinction has significant implications for the comparative analysis of interaction in the discourse of promotion across language and across text types. The prominence of the

choice of evoked values can be seen as leading to a reader-oriented interaction. Thus, in order to find out the extent to which the same orientation is kept across languages and text types in terms of evaluation, and despite the problems in distinguishing them with complete certainty, the analysis of inscribed and evoked appraisal has been carried out separately.

Similar categories for the comparative analysis of inscribed and evoked evaluation have been developed. However, the description of the categories for the study of each type of appraisal in each language is presented in separate sections in order to facilitate the description of the results.

6.3 Refined categories of inscribed evaluation

6.3.1 Categories of inscribed evaluation in English

The analysis revealed that inscribed evaluation in promotional texts can be grouped into the following major categories and subcategories of inscribed evaluation proposed by Martin (1997, 2000). These categories include inherently positive resources used to appraise the interactants, the company, the product/service and performance or the outcome of activities within a given field of work.

6.3.1.1 Affect

Inscribed affect is made up of those language resources concerned with emotions ascribed to either interactant. The evaluative resources found in the texts are almost all positive and fit into Martin's security and happiness subgroups of values related to affect. Emotions ascribed to the writer can be seen as primarily to create a friendly environment in the business relation. The inherently positive evaluative resources

associated with the reader are intended to project him or her as happy he or she is with the product or service being offered.

The type of affect values found in the texts can be grouped as follows:

Security

This group consists of language resources expressing confidence and trust.

- [6.2] I appreciate now, how versatile the complete package ... will be ... (Letter E-5, cl. 12)
- [6.3] I hope you have all the information here. (Letter E-9, cl. 6)

A more impersonal example can be seen in the following statement:

- [6.4] It is hoped ... that participants will raise specific points regarding their own vacuum systems. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 15)

In the above example, although the emotion/feeling is ascribed to an empty 'it' as subject, it is implied that it is, in fact, the company/writer that is the source of that feeling.

- [6.5] I trust the enclosed information satisfies your immediate requirements. (Letter E-11, cl. 25)
- [6.6] You've grown to rely on your awarding Clariswork, ... (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 1)

Happiness

This group is made up of those language resources expressing love and satisfaction.

- [6.7] Further to our recent telephone conversation I am pleased to attach quotations for both prime and test quality wafers. (Letter E-2, cl. 1)
- [6.8] ... you'll be delighted to know ... (Comp. lit. E-4, cl. 3)
- [6.9] ... the enclosed information satisfies your immediate requirements. (Letter E-11, cl. 25)
- [6.10] I look forward to meeting you again in the near future. (Letter E-3, cl. 8)

6.3.1.2 Judgement

Inscribed judgement comprises those values which carry inherent positive or negative appraisal related to the behaviour/actions of the writer/company and in some cases, those of the reader. Judgement values are categorised following Martin's terminology into aesthetic values related to social esteem and moral sanction.

Social esteem values used to appraise the writer's/company's actions can be grouped within Martin's (1997, 2000) subgroups: social esteem related to 'normality', 'capacity' and 'tenacity' as illustrated below.

Normality

This type of value refers to the prestige or outstanding image of the company. It should be noted that examples of inscribed normality have not been found in the corpus in English.

Capacity

This group covers all language resources which convey positive or negative appraisal concerning the ability of the writer/company to perform well in the business world or to deal with customers' affairs satisfactorily.

[6.11] Vacuum Generators is the leading company for the design and manufacture of UHV and HV chambers. (Comp. lit. E-3, cl. 1)

Tenacity

These resources are used to express how determined the writer/company is to fulfil the reader's expectations/demands. However, the reader's determination to participate in the relation can also be seen through positive processes as in [6.12] and [6.13].

[6.12] We're doing our best to cover for each other. (Letter E-6, cl. 8)

- [6.13] ... [persons involved with leak detection] who wish to optimise their knowledge of procedures. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 50)

Social sanction values are those language resources conveying inherent positive evaluation in moral terms (e.g. how the company complies to ethical issues) and which are associated with 'propriety' and 'veracity' in Martin's model. [6.14] is an illustrative example of both these values.

Veracity and propriety

- [6.14] ... based on personal service, reliability and commitment to quality. (Letter E-21, cl. 14)

6.3.1.3 Appreciation

These resources convey values expressed in aesthetic terms and refer to the worthiness of the physical properties of the product and services as well as their performance. The language resources conveying these values are grouped into reaction, composition and valuation, following Martin's (1997) terminology.

Reaction

These values express the impact the product or the services can have on customers.

- [6.15] ... and he is the author of the well-regarded textbook, 'Vacuum Technology and its Applications'. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 23)
- [6.16] You've grown to rely on your awarding winning Clariswork, ... (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 1)

Composition

This group includes aesthetic values associated with the worthiness of the physical nature of the product or service being offered. The values found refer to the perception of complexity.

- [6.17] ... it is so small that it can be fitted as easy as standard LEED optics. (Letter E-1, cl. 3)
- [6.18] I can appreciate how versatile the complete package ... will be, ... (Letter E-5, cl. 12)

Valuation

This category includes language resources expressing inherent positive evaluation concerning the worthiness of the product or service being offered in relation to the customers needs. They refer to the 'quality', 'availability', 'scope', 'convenience', 'cost-effectiveness', 'usefulness' and 'reliability' of the product/service as can be seen in the examples below:

- [6.19] Based on our well proven HREELS Delta 0.5 we developed for high energy resolutions down to 1 meV the new electron spectrometer Delta-A. (Letter E-1, cl. 1)
- [6.20] The most sensitive and reliable methods use mass spectrometers leak detectors (MSLD) and Helium as a tracer gas. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 42)
- [6.21] It is ideally suited for UPS and synchrotron work. (Letter E-1, cl. 2)
- [6.22] Thank you very much for the good news. (Letter 3, cl. 1)
- [6.23] Now available on line via the Internet with an unbeatable range of searching facilities to deliver the information. (Comp. lit. E-14, cl. 1)
- [6.24] This agreement allows us to offer EELS as part of our complete system solutions ... (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 15)
- [6.25] Software licensing is the most efficient and cost-effective way to purchase software. (Letter 20, cl. 1)

Performance

Inscribed evaluation related to the performance of the product or service was not identified in the English texts.

6.3.2 Categories of inscribed evaluation in Spanish

The evaluative resources used in the Spanish texts also fit into Martin's (1997) main categories, namely, affect, judgement and appreciation. However, there are certain

values which seem to be not common to both languages. The discussion below provides examples of the type and subtype of values which appear to be reasonably frequently in the Spanish.

6.3.2.1 Affect

The affect values found in Spanish can be associated with security and happiness. As in English, negative emotions associated with fears or anxiety were not found.

Confidence/security

- [6.26] Estamos seguros que al contar con los equipos en el momento adecuado y el precio justo, permite ... (Letter S-12, cls. 13-14)
(We are sure that getting the equipment at the right moment and at a fair price allows ...)
- [6.27] Esperamos que esta información sea valiosa para la ejecución del diseño de los levantadores internos. (Letter 23, cls. 7-8)
(We hope that this information will be valuable to carry out the design of the indoor lifts.)

Happiness/satisfaction

- [6.28] Nuestra Cia [compañía] se complace en ofrecer a Uds, la línea FLOCOM de la Cia FMC especialista en aditivos químicos, lider no. 1 para los procesos de Osmosis Inversa. (Letter S-3, cl. 1)
(Our company is pleased to offer you the FLOCOM line of FMC Inc. which specialises in chemical additives, leader no. 1 in the process of inverse osmosis.)
- [6.29] Cualquier información adicional con gusto estaremos suministrándosela. (Letter S-2, cl. 8)
(With pleasure [we] will be providing you with any with additional information.)

6.3.2.2 Judgement

In Spanish, inscribed evaluative resources related to judgement can be covered. Except for normality, all the sub-categories listed below are also found in English. That is, they can also be associated with both social esteem and social sanction. Social esteem values

are related to 'normality', 'capacity' and 'tenacity'. Social sanction values deal with moral issues related to 'veracity' and 'propriety' as explained previously.

Normality

This type of language resources is used to project a prestige or outstanding image of the company.

[6.30] Entidades bancarias y comerciales dan fé de nuestro reconocido prestigio. (Letter S-27, cl. 6)

(Bank and commercial institutions bear witness of our acknowledged prestige.)

[6.31] ... que siempre han distinguido a American Airlines. (Letter S-13, cl. 17)

(... that has always made American Airlines outstanding.)

Capacity

This group includes language choices which assess the ability to carry out a task successfully in the field of work.

[6.32] En Colombia somos líderes en la prestación de servicio de gas natural para vehículo en la ciudades de Barranquilla, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Monteria, Sincelejo y Santa Fé de Bogotá. (Comp. Lit. S-5, cl. 16)

(In Colombia we are the leaders in providing natural gas service for vehicles in Barranquilla, Cartagena, Santa Marta, Monteria, Sincelejo and Santa Fé de Bogotá.)

[6.33] ... y estamos dispuestos a brindar toda nuestra experiencia para ejecutar efectivamente este trabajo. (Letter S-32, cl. 6)

(... and we are willing to provide all our experience to carry out this work effectively.)

Tenacity

These evaluative resources are used to express how determined the writer/company is to fulfil the reader's expectations and demands.

[6.34] ... ese cambio requirió de grandes esfuerzos. (Letter S-13, cl. 9)

(... that change demanded great effort.)

Veracity

This group is used to express the company's reliability and commitment to the truth and to the fulfilment of norms and regulations within the business worlds.

- [6.35] Las construcción de las máquinas sigue fielmente las exigentes especificaciones de las normas internacionales DIN. (Cat. S-3, cl. 3)
(The construction of the machine follows faithfully the high specifications of the international standards DIN.)

Propriety

These language resources refer to the writer's or company's commitment to assist the customer and ways to relate to others.

- [6.36] ... los funcionarios de su empresa serán atendidos en forma especial. (Letter S-14, cl. 5)
(... the employees of your company will be assisted with special care.)
- [6.37] De acuerdo con nuestras conversaciones adelantadas muy cordialmente me dirijo a usted ... (Letter E-17, cl. 1)
(According to our recent conversation, very kindly I would like to inform you ...)

6.3.2.3 Appreciation

As in English, appreciation values found in Spanish texts can be grouped under reaction, valuation and composition. However, a new category of values under the heading 'performance' is introduced here. This group consists of inherently positive language resources related to the assessment of the performance of the product or service. The following subcategories include examples which illustrate each group of values.

Reaction

These values express the impact the product or the services can have on customers.

- [6.38] Con el mayor deseo de servirles, quedamos al espera de sus gratas noticias, ... (Letter S-4, cl. 6)
(With our best wish to serve you we are looking forward to hearing pleasant news from you, ...)
- [6.39] ... control de última tecnología con software e interfaces amigables que hacen la operación de la máquina muy fácil. (Cat. S-7, cl. 7)
(... control of the ultimate technology with software and friendly interfaces, which allows the machine to be operated very easily.)

Valuation

This group of evaluative resources provides open assessment of the product and service in terms of the 'quality' ([6.40], [6.41]), 'cost-effectiveness' ([6.46]), 'suitability' ([6.42]), 'reliability' ([6.43]), 'convenience' ([6.45]) and 'novelty' ([6.44]) as can be read in the examples below.

- [6.40] Esta serie de tornos se caracteriza por su buena precisión, excelente condiciones de trabajo, ergonómica presentación y gran capacidad de arranque de virutas debida a la relación existente entre materiales y estructura de diseño. (Cat. S-3, cl. 1)
(This series of turning-laces offers good precision, excellent working conditions, ergonomic presentation and great capacity of removing wood-shavings due to the existing relationship between material and design structure.)
- [6.41] Superior lubricidad ... (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 3)
(Superior lubrication ...)
- [6.42] Ideal como fertilizante nitrogenado para el arranque del cultivo ... (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 27)
(Ideal as nitrogenated fertilizer for the start of the cultivation ...)
- [6.43] Probada eficacia en la fertilización para el mantenimiento de pastos y forrajes mejorados y con especial significado en los del clima frío. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 27)
(Tested efficiency in the fertilization of pastures and feeding improvement mainly in cold climates.)
- [6.44] Es un producto nuevo lanzado por importantes firmas americanas ... (Letter S-1, cl. 3)
(It is a new product launched by important American companies ...)

- [6.45] EL aire contenido en estos cilindros es apto tanto para el consumo humano como para uso industrial. (Letter S-2, cl. 3)
(The air contained in these cylinders is appropriate for both human and industrial consumption.)
- [6.46] AWT Colombia le ofrece a Ud. Una alternativa económica ... (Letter S-3, cl. 9)
(AWT Colombia offers you a cost-effective alternative ...)

Composition

This type of value refers to the proportionality and complexity of the physical properties or nature of the product or service.

- [6.47] ... y mediando un adecuado contenido de humedad. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 21)
(... and calculating an adequate humidity content.)
- [6.48] ... facilidad en el manejo ... (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 3)
(... easy handling ...)

Performance

As stated before, in the context of promotion a great deal of space is devoted to providing information regarding the way the product fulfils the needs of the customer. In Spanish, assessment of the performance of the product may be openly expressed through inherent positive evaluation or inscribed evaluation. This type of value related to performance are conveyed through language resources which assess the process in the clause. For example, 'con facilidad' (*easily*) in [6.49] provides appraisal of the way the plant 'absorve' (*absorbs*) the chemical product being offered. The value can also be ascribed to nominalised processes as in [6.50] and [6.51].

- [6.49] ... que la planta absorve con facilidad ... (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 11)
(... that the plant absorbs easily ...)
- [6.50] ... que matiza perfectamente con el color de su flota de lujo de sus busetas. (Letter S-1, cl. 10)

(... it provides the right shade that perfectly matches the colour of your luxurious buses.)

[6.51] ... excelente comportamiento de la viscosidad con los cambios de temperatura. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 9)

(... excellent behaviour of the viscosity under temperature changes)

[6.52] ... lo cual significa un mejor desempeño de las máquinas y un considerado ahorro en mantenimiento. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 8)

(... which means better performance of the machines and a considerable of maintenance saving.)

6.4 Refined categories of evoked evaluation

Evaluation in the context of promotion is not restricted to explicit appraisal resources such as ‘trustworthy’, ‘useful’, ‘pleased’, ‘reliable’, ‘profitable’, ‘excellent’ and the like, which at first glance can be recognised as delivering evaluative weight. The identification of such evaluative tokens is relatively straightforward, since they convey positive connotation even in isolation. However, in many cases, none of the words is inherently positive in the same way, but it is clear that the clause as a whole evokes evaluation. The description of technical features of the product, for instance, may evoke feelings associated with the customer’s needs or interests as can be seen in the following example:

[6.53] Options available include 2, 3 and 4 mesh versions, PC compatible data analysis systems right angle viewing hood with video camera adaptor. (Comp. lit. 4, cl. 6)

Features such as ‘2, 3 and 4’, ‘PC compatible’ and ‘right angle viewing hood with camera adaptor’ in the above statement are presumably intended to be seen as evoked positive evaluation of the product. As pointed out earlier, such positive evaluation is likely to be recognised by the customer as potentially beneficial for her/him. In other words, the actual value of the product is left open to the judgement of the reader for whom, in the appropriate context, the offer may be found useful to meet her/his needs.

However, the identification of evaluation evoked by ideational tokens is not always easy for the analyst to deal with. Depending on their specific needs, companies and customers may conceive different values intended through or decoded from ideational meanings to appraise products and services during the sales cycle. As Martin (1997) states:

Every institution is loaded with couplings of field with interpersonal meanings, and socialisation into a discipline involves both alignment with the institutional practices involved and affinity with the attitudes one is expected to have towards those practices. (Martin, 1997: 25)

The findings suggest that evoked evaluation can be identified in the texts under the following circumstances:

Evoked evaluation may occur when technical specifications related to the composition or performance of the product or service are given. In this sense a word, group or clause becomes evaluative if positive or negative value of an object, person, and situation is perceived. For instance, 'stainless steel' as in [6.54] can evoke feelings of positive appraisal provided the physical properties of this material are regarded as good. Since 'stainless steel' is typically seen as a strong, non-corrosive material which can be used to produce high standard quality products, it seems likely that the writer will expect the reader to react in this way, and that this is why the particular quality is specified.

[6.54] Meshes are constructed from stainless steel which maintain their formed shape preserving the quality of the imaging. (Comp. lit. E-4, cls. 4-5)

Usually, evoked evaluation occurs along with inscribed evaluation. In [6.54] the evocation of positive feelings regarding the strength of the meshes is supported by the inherently positive assessment conveyed in 'preserving the quality'

Evoked evaluation goes beyond the level of a word, group, clause and clause complex. It sometimes covers large sections of text, to the extent that, in some cases, it can be argued that almost the whole text is based on evoked evaluation. This feature may be

attributed to the fact that the highly persuasive nature of the text makes it the default option that any description of the product can be seen as intended to evoke feelings of positive evaluation in the reader towards the product or process. A clear example of this occurs in the text below.

cl. 1	The VTSTM is a high resolution, high stability UHV instrument ...
cl. 2	... with heating and/or cooling facilities to allow imaging within a temperature range of 50 K to 1100K.
cl. 3	The microscope stage is held at a constant temperature ...
cl. 4	... when heating or cooling is applied to the sample.
cl. 5	Any temperature can be arbitrarily selected by adjustment of the cooling and/or heating power.
cl. 6	The thermal drift has been minimised by the thermally compensated design of the STM stage and sample plates.
cl. 7	Our first instruments have been successfully installed ...
cl. 8	... and are operating to the quoted performance specification.
cl. 9	The complete range of OMICRON Variable Temperature STM instruments will be offered during the first half of 1995.

Table 6.1: Evoked evaluation: overall text (from: Comp. lit. E-8)

In this text, key features of the properties and performance of the product are intended to evoke positive evaluation. The likelihood that feelings of appraisal will be evoked in the reader, in principle, is only possible if s/he possesses knowledge of the actual standard of technical advances in the field. The interconnection of features related to technical specifications, such as 'VTSTM' (cl. 1), 'temperature range of 50 K to 1100 K' (cl. 2) enables them to compare the properties of the product with other competitors in the market. Information in clauses 3, 4 and 6 emphasises a thermal stability which is a specific property of the product. At the end of the text, mentioning the name of the company (cl. 9) may help remind the customer of its leading role in the field of vacuum technology.

6.4.1 Refined categories of evoked evaluation in English

The analysis shows that the evocation of positive feelings is oriented towards the product/service offered, the performance of the product, the quality of the assistance provided, the possibility for open negotiation and the image of the company. The evoked feelings or appraisal on the above areas can be grouped into ‘judgement’ and ‘appreciation’, two of the main categories established by Martin (1997). Evaluative resources which can be seen as evoking positive feeling are underlined in the examples below.

6.4.1.1 Evoked judgement

Evoked judgement is defined as a language resource intended to arouse positive feelings towards the quality of the performance of the company and other company related entities that represent the company, e.g. employees. Judgement can be expressed in broadly ‘aesthetic’ terms which refer to prestige and ability to perform well in the business world and/or in moral terms which express co-operation and willingness to help (help, price reduction, offering contact). In Martin’s categories (1997, 2000) the aesthetic values are part of the social esteem values and the social (moral) values are related to ways of exercising social sanction.

Values related to judgements of social esteem can be grouped under Martin’s subcategories ‘normality’ and ‘capacity’.

Normality

These values are associated with the prestige of the company intended to be seen through self-enhanced reputation and its relationship with famous leading groups in the field.

- [6.55] ... and receive from VAT, the world's largest supplier of vacuum valves (Letter E-22, cl. 2)
- [6.56] David is also a member of the European working group ... (Comp. lit. E-27, cl. 24)
- [6.57] ... over the last six months, our highly skilled technicians have been trained by Alcatel Senior Engineers ... (Letter E-21, cl. 27)

Capacity

The capacity values refer to knowledge and experience intended to be perceived as the ability of the company to perform well in the business world as in:

- [6.58] ... can manufacture chambers to our standard or your custom designs. (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 3)
- [6.59] At Technomatic, we provide software licensing for all major manufacturers (Letter E-20, 5)
- [6.60] We have extensive experience in the business of providing both leisure and commercial mooring facilities. (Letter E-13, cl. 2)
- [6.61] PETERSON ROBINSON was educated to PhD level, with over 17 years experience in a scientific environment including customer care worldwide. (Letter E-21, cl. 22)

Values related to judgement of social sanction can be grouped into 'veracity' and 'propriety' as proposed by Martin (1997, 2000).

Veracity

Honesty, authenticity, trust and reliability are expected to be achieved by legal evidence of their performance or through guarantees of the product or service being offered. It is worth noting that veracity here is not related to personal morality as in most of Martin's

(1997) examples, but to institutional veracity. Industry and services increasingly have formal procedures for confirming ‘veracity’ as can be read in the examples below.

- [6.62] VAT Vacuum Products has Quality Assurance to ISO9002. (Letter E-24, cl. 13)
 [6.63] All work undertaken is backed by guarantees and an experienced, management team. (Letter E-13, cl. 10)

Propriety

The intended value to be evoked by the reader is associated with the willingness of the company to assist the client and readiness for open negotiation, i.e. how ethical the company is in providing assistance and in keeping its promises (caring, fairness). As with veracity values explained above, it should be mentioned that what counts as institutional propriety is not exactly the same in all respects as personal propriety. These values are typically present in indirect and direct offers related to the company’s assistance.

The following offers aim at evoking positive values regarding pricing and other requirements for the fulfilment of the offer.

- [6.64] ... you will continue to automatically receive 15% discount on the following product series: Series 10 UHV gate valves, DN63 to DN250 sizes. Series 01.0 UHV mini gate valves, DN40 size, Series 22. Low cost in-line diaphragm valves in KF16 to KF40. (Letter E-22, 11)
 [6.65] ... (we) and negotiate special rates with you. (Comp. lit. E- 27, cl. 27)
 [6.66] ... should you require further information on these or other SAES products ... please call me as I will still be able to help. (Letter E-18, 7, 8)

6.4.1.2 Evoked appreciation

This category involves language resources intended to raise aesthetic values related to the physical properties, image and performance of the product or services. Following Martin’s model, they can be categorised into ‘reaction’, ‘composition’ and ‘valuation’.

However, as with inscribed appreciation, a fourth subcategory has been introduced here, which is called 'performance' (see discussion below).

Reaction

These aesthetic values refer to the image or prestige of the product, i.e. the social impact produced by product/service/negotiation. The evocation of these values depends very much on how well the product has been accepted in the market, i.e. whether or not it has found its own niche in the business community. Reaction values are to the product what 'normality' is to behaviour of the interactants, including the company.

- [6.67] Over 20 combined UHV AFM/STM instruments have now been installed in major material research centres around the world ... (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 9)
- [6.68] ... and this instrument is fast becoming recognised as the standard for this advanced technique. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 10)

Composition

In Martin's terminology this category includes values which refer to perception of detail or complexity and proportionality of the nature and physical properties of product or service being offered.

Evaluative resources grouped under 'complexity' are intended to evoke positive feelings by providing information on technical specifications regarding the components of the product or service.

- [6.69] Increasing demands for cleanliness have led to the development of processes combining remelting (VAR, EST) with controlled solidification. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 20)
- [6.70] The work coil connections are internally fitted with an R.F. current transformer feedback signal. (Letter E-11, cl. 9)
- [6.71] In addition, our fleet of hire equipment has been updated with the inclusion of Alcatel Portable Leak Detectors. (Letter E-21, cl. 29)

Aesthetic values related to 'proportionality' are concerned with how well designed the product is or the extent to which all requirements of the customer are well balanced in the nature of the product or service.

- [6.72] Where possible, points are emphasised with practical demonstrations. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 27)
- [6.73] The thermal drift has been minimised by the thermally compensated design of the STM stage and sample plates. (Comp. lit. E-10, cl. 6)
- [6.74] ... and the number of persons attending is therefore restricted. (Comp. lit. 12, cl. 18)

Valuation

Evoked valuation is understood here as the assessment of the usefulness/worthiness of the outcome of a process, of the product and services being offered in relation to the customer's needs. Identifying evoked feelings related to the worthiness of the product or service can be less straightforward than through inherent positive evaluative resources such as 'brilliant', 'good', 'reliable', 'well proven', 'the best', 'unique', 'suitable' and 'new'. Nevertheless, information regarding the availability, scope, convenience, usefulness that the product/service offers for the customer to develop their work can evoke positive feelings. In other words, the motivation for customers to use the product also depends on how available the product is in the market ([6.75]) and [6.76]), how convenient ([6.78] and [6.79]) it is for him/her to adapt it in their work place and how beneficial the offer can be in terms of cost-effectiveness ([6.77]).

Availability

- [6.75] SERVICE SUPPORT Comprehensive service support is available for all Vacuum Generators products. (Letter E-14, cl. 6)
- [6.76] We offer a choice of AM 350 or 31 GL stainless steel. (Letter E-23, cl. 13)
- [6.77] ... providing savings for you and your company on small as well as larger orders. (Letter E-20, cl. 4)

- [6.78] Using Sun SPARC compatible hardware with UNIX operating system with x-windows provides advantages such as reliable networking, true multi-user- multi-tasking capabilities, and powerful file handling abilities. (Comp. lit. S-7, cl. 3)
- [6.79] ... that upgrading to ClarisWork office adds a whole new dimension of productivity ... (Comp. lit. E-4, cl. 18)

Evoked performance

This category relates to how performance of the product within the technical process is represented as fulfilling the customer's expectations. The performance value is mainly conveyed through the process in the verbal group, which is intended to be seen as beneficial for the customer. For instance, processes indicating potentiality can be perceived as suitable for the customer's needs as in [6.80]. Other processes may also contribute to evoking the customer's positive feelings associated with efficiency. This type of evoked value can be found in 'indirect offers' ([6.81]) - the product does something for the customer or is potentially beneficial for him/her - in evaluative statements supporting the offer as in [6.82] and [6.83].

- [6.80] The laser can also be remotely controlled with the RS232 interface (Letter E-12, cl. 9)
- [6.81] A dedicated sample carrier guarantees full accuracy when transferring the sample. (Comp. lit. E-9, cls. 13-14)
- [6.82] ... and is used to stabilise the generator power. (Letter E-11, cl. 11)
- [6.83] ... achieving a resolution of ~1meV FWHM. (Comp. lit. E-6, cl. 14)

6.4.2 Refined categories of evoked evaluation in Spanish

The analysis of evoked feelings in Spanish shows that the evaluative resources can be grouped into two main categories as those found in English i.e. judgement and appreciation.

6.4.2.1 Evoked judgement

As stated before this category covers all those language resources intended to evoke positive assessment of company and also other company related entities such as employees. As in English, evoked judgement can be associated with values related to social esteem such as 'normality' and 'capacity' and values related to social sanction such as 'veracity' and 'propriety'. Each subgroup of judgement values can be illustrated as follows.

Normality

This type of value is intended to evoke prestige and project an outstanding image by referring to partnerships with other companies within industrialised countries such as the U.S.A.

- [6.84] Medio Ambiente de Colombia Ltda., cuenta con el soporte técnico de CHEMONICS INTERNATIONAL INC., así como con el apoyo del departamento de manejo de medio ambiente y gerencia de ingeniería de GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY. (Letter S-28, cl. 6)

(Environment Colombia Ltd. receives technical support from CHEMONICS INTERNATIONAL INC., as well from the environmental management department and engineering management of GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY.)

- [6.85] ... en tan sólo un año alcanzó según estadísticas de la aduana el quinto puesto entre las Empress importadoras de Computadores. (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 3)

(... just in one year reached according to the statistics of the customs the fifth place among computer import companies.)

- [6.86] En su segundo año de operaciones fue nombrada Distribuidor de IBM de colombia y asociado de Negocios de Hewlet Packard. (Comp. Lit. S-1, cl. 4)

(In its second year of business it was declared IBM Distributor in Colombia and business associate of Hewlet Packard.)

Capacity

The evocation of positive feeling can be perceived in those clauses in which writers make reference to the experience and knowledge that enable companies to meet the demands of the customers.

[6.87] ... que "Digital sabe de redes" es más que un lema, una realidad. (Letter S-6, cl. 15)

(... that "Digital knows about networks" is more than a slogan, [it is] a reality.)

[6.88] Los UCON de Unión Carbide son el resultado de 50 años de desarrollo a partir de los polialkilén glicoles. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 1)

(The Ucons of Unión Carbide are the result of 50 years of development having started with polyalkylene glycols.)

[6.89] Personal altamente calificado y entrenado para poder brindarle una atención integral a sus equipos y a la capacitación de sus operarios en el manejo de los mismos. (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 34)

(Highly qualified and trained staff to offer integral assistance to your equipment and training of your workers in handling the equipment.)

Veracity

This type of value can be evoked through reference to certain procedures that companies use to achieve trust and reliability.

[6.90] Unica organización de seguridad integral certificada a nivel Nacional por el INCONTEC e IQNET bajo la norma ISO 9002. (Comp. lit. S-4, cl. 6, Portafolio de Servicios)

(The only organization with integral security certified nationwide by the INCONTEC and IQNET under the norm ISO 9002.)

[6.91] Entidades bancarias y comerciales dan fe de nuestro reconocido prestigio. (letter S-27, cl. 6)

(Banks and commercial institutions testify our acknowledged prestige.)

Propriety

Institutional propriety, as in English, is intended to be achieved through support to customers and commitment to social issues.

[6.92] ... y les daremos a ustedes todo el servicio necesario para que puedan adquirir la tecnología de Generla Electric en el campo de Siliconas. (Letter, S-18, cls. 8-9, Siliconas)

(... and we shall give you all the necessary support so that you can acquire the technology of General Electric in the field of silicones.)

[6.93] Creemos en el concepto de desarrollo sostenible ...(Letter S-29, cl. 6)

(We believe in sustainable development ...)

[6.94] ... las empresas establecidas en Colombia deben cumplir con la legislación actual, como son la obtención de la Licencia Ambiental, permisos de vertimientos, emision e y residuos, elaboración del Estudio de Impacto Ambiental y Planes de Manejo Ambiental. (Comp. lit. S-7, cl. 11-12)

(... companies established in Colombia must fulfil the current legislation such as obtaining environmental license, waste and emissions permit, study of environmental impact and plans of environmental management.)

6.4.2.2 Evoked appreciation

The group of aesthetic values which are intended to evoke positive assessment of the product and services being offered can be categorised into similar subgroups as in English.

Composition

This group consists of values related to the physical properties of the product described in terms of its complexity and or proportionality.

[6.95] ... sin que sean necesarios procesos bioquímicos complejos, ... (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 24)

(... without complex biochemical processes being necessary, ...)

- [6.96] Este combustible lo conforman básicamente un conjunto de hidrocarburos gaseosos ... (Comp. lit. S-6, cl. 24)
(This fuel is basically made up of hydrocarbon gases ...)
- [6.97] El sistema utiliza una amplia gama de frecuencias desde 1.3 a 2.7 GHz y 10.5 GHz ... (Comp. lit. S-20, cl. 10)
(The system uses a wide range of frequencies from 1.3 to 2.7 GHz and 10.5 GHz ...)

Valuation

This group comprises those evoked values related to 'suitability' ([6.98], [6.99]), 'cost effectiveness' ([6.100]), 'quality' ([6.101]) and 'availability' ([6.102]) as illustrated below. It should be noted that many of the cases have inscribed evaluation at the start ('excellent', 'eficacia', etc.); so they are acting as a kind of support for the inscribed evaluation.

- [6.98] Excelentes resultados en el abonamiento nitrogenado de cultivos perennes, tales como café, palma de aceite, cítricos y otros frutales. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 29)
(Excellent results in nitrogenated fertilising of everlasting crops such as coffee, oil palm, citrics and other fruit trees.)
- [6.99] Los Uconall's son aceites formulados para todo tipo de servicio, especialmente para alta presión. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 4)
(The Uconall's are formulated oils for all kind of service, mainly for high pressure.)
- [6.100] Menores costos operativos ... (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 3)
(Lower operating costs ...)
- [6.101] ... contruidos con placas de acero inoxidable y soldadura de cobre, cabina fácilmente removible y con los estándares de calidad más altos. (Cat. S-5, cl. 8)
(... constructed with stainless steel and copper welding, easy removable compartment to highest standards.)
- [6.102] SINTELUB ofrece una línea completa de grasas y aceites sintéticos UCONALL'S de polialkilén glicoles (PAG), para compresores, ventiladoes, sonadores, bombas, turbinas, reductores, engranajes, cajas de velocidad, máquinas herramientas, templado de aceros. (Comp. lit. S-3, cl. 26)
(SINTULEB offers a complete line of Uconall's synthetic greases and oils of polyalkylene glycols (PAG), for compressors, ventilators, pumps, turbines,

control valves, gear boxes, velocity boxes, machines, tools, tensed steel, cuts and machined and hydraulic systems.)

Performance

This category relates to how the product fulfils the customer's expectations in terms of effectiveness within technical processes. A performance value is mainly perceived through the process and is intended to be seen as beneficial for the client.

- [6.103] Por su parte, el NH₄, en su estado catiónico, también puede ser asimilado rápidamente por los cultivos, en particular en los estados tempranos de su ciclo productivo y en condiciones de suelos con valores cercanos o superiores a 7.0. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 12)

(On its side, the NH₄, in its cationic state, can also be assimilated quickly by crops, in particular in early states of its productive cycle and under conditions of soils with values near or higher than 7.0.)

- [6.104] Los filtros MPF retienen partículas superiores a un micrón, los filtros PF superiores a 0.1 micrón, y los filtros MPH y MPC superiores a 0.01 micrón. (Cat. S-5, cl. 21)

(MPF filters retain particles larger than a micron, PF filters larger than 0.1 micron and MPH and MPC filters larger than 0.01 micron.)

- [6.105] ... disminuye la contaminación ambiental en más de un 80% con respecto a la gasolina, por reducción en la emisiones del CO y HC. (Comp. lit. S-6, cl. 15)

(... reduces the environmental pollution over 80% with respect to petrol due to [the] reduction of CO and HC emissions.)

The evocation of feelings towards the performance in the following examples is motivated by the presence of negative values in the clause. However, this negative evaluation refers to potential problems within the technical process, which can be avoided by the product/service offered by the company.

- [6.106] En las anteriores circunstancias, a partir de la Urea se puede perder, en forma de gas, más de 30% del Nitrógeno. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 36)

(In the above circumstances, from the urea more than 30% of nitrogen can be lost.)

- [6.107] ... circunstancia que limita la hidrólisis alcalina. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 39)

(... circumstance that limits the alkaline hydrolysis.)

6.5 Statistical analysis

The detailed description of categories at the beginning of this chapter has shown that a cline of values for each category exists and, consequently, a unique assignment of values is impossible. As mentioned earlier, also with the adaptation of Martin's (2000) model, values cannot be straightforwardly assigned to the categories described above. Thus, it would be not surprising that, in some cases, other analysts may assign a particular instance to a different category than that decided on in this study; and indeed, in the case of evoked evaluation, there may even be disagreement over whether an expression is to be counted as evaluative or not.

6.5.1 Sales letters

6.5.1.1 Letters in Spanish

As shown in Table 6.2, values related to valuation-appreciation (the appraisal of the product in terms of benefits for the customer) and judgement (the appraisal of the performance the company) seem to be the most frequently used and with similar levels of frequency. These findings can plausibly be related to the interactive (personalised) nature of letters, which might encourage the highlighting of values related to the performance of the company as well as those associated with the effectiveness of the product. These values are both writer and reader-oriented as explained below.

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	4%	10%	2%	3%	0%	0%	4%	13%	1%	2%	0%
	$\pm 3\%$	$\pm 4\%$	$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 2\%$			$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 5\%$	$\pm 1\%$	$\pm 2\%$	
Evoked			1%	16%	0%	2%	11%	16%	2%	3%	4%
			$\pm 1\%$	$\pm 7\%$		$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 4\%$	$\pm 7\%$	$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 3\%$	$\pm 3\%$
Total subtypes	4%	10%	3%	19%	0%	2%	16%	29%	3%	5%	4%
	$\pm 3\%$	$\pm 4\%$	$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 7\%$		$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 5\%$	$\pm 8\%$	$\pm 2\%$	$\pm 4\%$	$\pm 3\%$
Total types	14% $\pm 5\%$		39% $\pm 12\%$					41% $\pm 9\%$			

Table 6.2: Mean frequencies of evaluations in Spanish letters⁸

In order to assess the product, writers tend to use more values related to valuation, i.e. writers of letters in Spanish are mostly concerned with projecting the worthiness of the product/service in fulfilling the needs of the potential customer. Since values related to the worthiness of the product (under valuation) are rather expressed in social/reader-oriented terms, the prominent choice of this type of values in Spanish also implies a more interactive orientation in the relation, as expected in letters. That is, it is likely that writers hope that customers will perceive a more individual-oriented benefit/concern through values related to the availability, suitability, convenience, scope and cost-effectiveness of the product than through those associated with either the composition or the performance of the product within the technical process.

⁸ Note that more than one type of evaluation may occur in a clause so that the sum of all frequencies may exceed 100%. As outlined in 3.4.2, the frequency of a linguistic feature has been calculated by dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in each text. Then, the mean and standard error of the frequency have been obtained for each language and text type.

In appraising the performance of the company, capacity and propriety values seem to be more often exploited. That is, it is crucial for companies to stress that they have the knowledge and expertise or ability to perform well in business as well as the commitment to fulfil their promises. The emphasis on the capability and commitment to ethical issues of the company can be interpreted as an indicator of the reader-oriented concern in the sense that customers can rely on both the expertise of the company and its plain-dealing. A more individual-oriented benefit/concern with the reader seems more visible through the projection of these values than through inherently company-oriented ones associated with prestige, honesty and boldness.

Affect values seem to be used at a lower level of frequency than those referring to the effectiveness of the product and the company. However, a balanced input of emotions, mainly seen through the choice of language resources expressing happiness, may emphasise the individual-oriented nature of letters. The fact that affect values are more openly expressed will help to create a more friendly and positive environment which supports the overall positive emphasis on the effectiveness and trustworthiness of the company.

It should also be noted that except for affect values, judgement and appreciation values are mainly present through evoked evaluation. This tendency in the use of evoked feelings also supports the interpersonal interactive orientation of the relationship developed in the texts, since the source of this type of evaluation is to be found in the knowledge and experience shared between the two interactants.

6.5.1.2 Letters in English

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	5%	6%	0%	2%	0%	0%	1%	12%	1%	4%	1%
	±3%	±3%	±2%	±2%			±1%	±5%	±1%	±2%	±1%
Evoked			1%	5%	0%	1%	23%	11%	0%	4%	3%
			±1%	±4%		±1%	±4%	±4%		±3%	±3%
Total subtypes	5%	6%	1%	8%	0%	1%	24%	23%	1%	8%	4%
	±3%	±3%	±1%	±4%		±1%	±6%	±6%	±1%	±4%	±3%
Total types	10% ±4%		33% ±8%					35% ±8%			

Table 6.3: Mean frequencies of evaluations in English letters

The overall pattern in the choice of evaluative language resources in Spanish can also be observed in English. As shown in Table 6.3, appreciation (35%) and judgement (33%) are also used with very similar levels of frequency. That is, highlighting values related to the effectiveness of the product is as important as those associated with the performance of the company. As in Spanish, the same tendency can also be related to the personalised interactive nature typically associated with letters.

The similarities to the Spanish letters can also be seen in the more detailed aspects of evaluation. In assessing the product, the highest frequency of use is also seen in values related to valuation (23%). The choice of this type of values also implies a more individualised type of interaction, which is expected in letters. That is, it is likely that writers hope that customers will perceive a more reader-oriented benefit/concern through values related to the availability, suitability, convenience, scope and cost-effectiveness

of the product than through those associated with either the composition or the performance. Here, social or reader-oriented values are understood as those qualities related to the product that can be perceived as beneficial to all groups in the business community. For example, 'cost effectiveness' is regarded as a positive value in any commercial transaction.

In contrast to Spanish, in appraising the performance of the company, the most frequently used values under judgement are related to propriety (24%). That is, the emphasis is placed on those values related to social sanction, in particular, those which show that the company complies with ethical issues such as fulfilling norms and regulations established in the business world. As in Spanish texts, this finding can be interpreted as an indicator of the individual-oriented concern in the sense that customer can rely on the commitment of the company to fulfil its promises. Values associated with capacity are much less (8%) frequently projected than propriety as described above. In other words, the evocation of positive feelings regarding the company's leadership, knowledge and experience to deal with the customer's affairs satisfactorily supports the reader/socially-oriented concern with less frequency than in Spanish.

Affect values again seem to be used at a lower level of frequency than those referring to the effectiveness of the product and the company. In this case, the socially-oriented concern is reflected in the balance of language resources expressing happiness and security. Though these values occur with low frequency, they signal a personalised atmosphere, since the feelings of the interactants are conveyed openly.

As in Spanish, except for affect values, judgement and appreciation values are mainly present through evoked evaluation. This tendency in the use of evoked feelings also supports the interpersonal interactive orientation of the relationship developed in the

texts, since the source of this type of evaluation is to be found in the knowledge and experience shared between the two interactants.

6.5.1.3 Comparison

The individualised interactive nature associated with letters is reflected in the pattern of choice of evaluative language resources in both languages. The overall pattern of appreciation, judgement and affects values indicates that this individualisation is realised in similar ways in both languages. The highlighting of values related to the performance of the company as well as those concerned with the effectiveness of the product can be related to the interactive nature of letters, since these values are expressed in terms of interest of both, the writer/company and the reader/customer. On a lower scale, the interpersonal interactive nature is also present in the unmarked input of emotions related to happiness.

Similarly, the more individualised commitment is also reflected in the choice of specific values used to appraise the effectiveness of the product and company in both languages. In appraising the effectiveness of the product, the individualised concern in both languages is seen in the prominent choice of values related the worthiness of the product/service expressed in social/reader-oriented terms. That is, the writer appears to be concerned with the benefit of the client in terms of availability, suitability, convenience, scope and cost-effectiveness of the product rather than through those associated with either the composition or the performance of the product within the technical process.

However, within the social assessment of the company, the orientation of the individualised commitment differs slightly in each language. The individualised

commitment in English is expressed through the choice of values related to ethical issues which project the company mainly as helping the customer and/or being open to negotiation. In Spanish, this interactive individualised concern seems rather self-focussed, in the sense that it is expressed through values related to the capability of the company to perform satisfactorily. This capability is usually supported with references to successful partnerships dealt in particular with internationally well reputed companies. The explanation for such differences in the way writers deal with social assessment in each language will certainly require a deeper understanding of the business and social contextual factors in which the texts are produced. Finally, in both languages the interpersonal interactive orientation of the relationship developed in the texts is also present through the large input of evoked evaluation in values related to judgement and appreciation.

6.5.2 Company literature

6.5.2.1 Company literature in Spanish

In company literature in Spanish, appreciation (51%) seems to be again the most frequently used type of evaluation.⁹ There is a strong indication that, in both languages, this type of evaluation is more often used than in letters. Judgement occurs with a relatively similar level of frequency of use as in Spanish letters. That is, here, writers also give importance to social assessment of the behaviour of the company. However, this time, the gap between the two main types of appraisal becomes more apparent. The increase of values related to the appraisal of the product may indicate the preference for a more information-oriented interaction.

⁹ Following the discussion in section 3.4.2.2, the rather large confidence limits would not allow to resolve straightforwardly a frequency difference between appreciation and judgement. However, the data indicate strongly a tendency towards the more frequent use of appreciation.

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	0%	0%	3%	2%	0%	1%	1%	10%	0%	3%	0%
Evoked			±4%	±2%		±1%	±1%	±9%		±4%	
			2%	14%	0%	5%	6%	12%	1%	9%	15%
			±3%	±10%		±5%	±9%	±6%	±1%	±6%	±15%
Total subtypes	0%	0%	5%	16%	0%	6%	7%	22%	2%	12%	16%
			±6%	±10%		±5%	±9%	±11%	±2%	±8%	±15%
Total types	0%		33% ±18%					51% ±28%			

Table 6.4: Mean frequencies of evaluations in company literature in Spanish

In appraising the effectiveness of the product, however, valuation, i.e. the appraisal of the worthiness of the product expressed in rather social/reader-oriented terms, is still relatively highly used (22%) as in letters. This may suggest that despite the move towards an information-based interaction, it is likely that writers still favour the choice of an individual-oriented benefit/concern through values related to the availability, suitability, convenience, scope and cost-effectiveness of the product. Nevertheless, performance (16%) and composition (12%) tend to occur more frequently here than in letters. It seems that, in Spanish, the combination of these two values outnumbers the frequency of use of values related to valuation (reader-oriented values) in this text type. This implies that despite the presence of individual-oriented values to appraise the product or service in terms of benefits to the reader, an increasing preoccupation with information-oriented values is also emerging in the choice of evaluative resources associated with the nature, physical properties and/or the performance of the product within the technical process.

Within judgement, capacity again outnumbers the frequency of use (16%) of the other subtypes; that is, the company is valued mainly in terms of the ability to meet satisfactorily the needs of the customer, though with a slightly lower level of frequency of use than in letters in Spanish. It also appears, that this time, the individual-oriented concern within values related to the company are primarily indicated in the expertise of the company. In contrast to letters, the reader-oriented benefit/concern is not prominently visible in the choice of values related to ethical issues. However, the difference between capacity and the remaining categories namely, propriety (commitment to ethical issues), veracity (honesty, trustworthiness) and normality (prestige, popularity of the company) is smaller here than in letters. With a similar level of frequency these judgements, mostly inherently company-oriented, seem to be echoing the positive image of the company.

In contrast to letters, in this type of text, values related to affect seem to be too low to be registered. The absence of affect may also indicate a shift from the individual-oriented interaction into a more informative one.

Finally, as in letters, it should also be noted that most of the values are expressed through evoked evaluation. As stated before, this tendency in the use of evoked feelings also supports the interpersonal interactive orientation of the relationship developed in the texts, since the source of this type of evaluation is to be found in the knowledge and experience shared between the two interactants.

6.5.2.2 Company literature in English

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	1%	2%	0%	3%	0%	0%	1%	22%	2%	6%	1%
Evoked	±1%	±2%	1%	11%	0%	1%	1%	14%	1%	13%	30%
Total subtypes	1%	2%	1%	14%	0%	1%	2%	35%	3%	19%	31%
	±1%	±2%	±1%	±10%		±2%	±2%	±11%	±3%	±7%	±11%
Total types	4% ±3%		18% ±12%					89% ±17%			

Table 6.5: Mean frequencies of evaluations in company literature in English

In company literature in English, the gap between appreciation and judgement is even wider than in Spanish. As the results show, appreciation is again the most frequently used type of evaluation with an overriding majority (89%), whereas judgement values occur at a much lower level of frequency (18%). As can be seen, writers of company literature texts in English are primarily concerned with highlighting values related to the effectiveness of the product or service being offered than those related to the performance of the company. These findings suggest a higher frequency in the use of information-oriented values in this type of text in English than in Spanish.

In appraising the effectiveness of the product, valuation, i.e. the worthiness of the product expressed in socially-oriented terms, is once again highly frequently used (35%), with a higher level of frequency than in the previous texts. These findings suggest that despite the strong tendency towards a more information-oriented concern, there still

seems to be a rather high individual-oriented benefit/concern conveyed through values related to the availability, suitability, convenience, scope and cost-effectiveness of the product, as shown in letters. In contrast to company literature texts in Spanish and letters in both languages, the worthiness of the product is mostly claimed openly through inscribed evaluation.

Nevertheless, in English, as in Spanish, the prominent choice of valuation, which is thought to imply a more reader-oriented purpose, is closely followed by the frequency of use of values related to performance (31%). Similarly, appreciation-composition is also highly frequently used (19%), though with a lower level of frequency than performance values. As can be seen, the choice of values associated with the quality of the information regarding the composition and/or the performance of the product within the technical process outnumbers the frequency of use of values related to the worthiness of the product expressed in social terms. Since the former group of values rely on the knowledge of the context of the product/service that the two interactants may share, it can be argued that the interaction is more concerned with mutual assessment of the quality of the information provided than with stressing personal interests of each interactant. As can be seen, although there is a great deal of personalised interactive concern in the assessment of the effectiveness of the product, the information-oriented interaction appears to become far more crucial in the English texts than in Spanish.

With respect to the appraisal of the company, as in Spanish, judgement-capacity is the most frequently used value (14%) in English. However, as in Spanish, the frequency of use of these values is much lower than that of the values appraising the product. This again means that the shift from a more socially-oriented concern into a more information-oriented one becomes apparent.

Affect values seem to be very rarely present (4%), though with a higher frequency than in Spanish. As can be seen, the more information-oriented interaction is also reflected in the infrequency of use of this type of values.

As in the previous texts types, the tendency in the use of evoked feelings also supports the interpersonal interactive orientation of the relationship developed in the texts, since the source of this type of evaluation is to be found in the knowledge and experience shared between the two interactants. However, in English the social/reader-oriented appraisal of the product is conveyed more often through inscribed evaluative resources than evoked feelings. This may suggest that in terms of socially-oriented values company literature is more interactive in English than in Spanish, since the writer states more openly the benefits to the reader.

6.5.2.3 Comparison

At a very general level, the overall pattern of evaluative language resources in both languages shows that writers are more concerned with projecting values related to the effectiveness of the product than in letters. To a certain extent, this finding may imply that the writers tend to favour a more information-oriented way of interacting with the reader in this type of text. This claim is also supported by the low frequency of use of affect values which indicates a shift to a rather less personalised type of interaction in both languages.

Similarly, the more information-oriented concern can also be seen at the level of the subsets of values. In contrast to letters, a higher frequency of use of values related to performance and the composition of the product is seen in both languages, though to a greater extent in English than in Spanish. The higher level of frequency of these types of

values over other subsets of values reflects the preference for an information-oriented interaction in which writers are mainly concerned with raising positive assessment regarding the nature and efficiency of the product/service within the technical process.

On the other hand, in spite of the increasing tendency towards the choice of information-oriented ways of interacting with the reader, the personal orientation in the interaction still seems to be important in this type of text in both languages. However, this interactive nature here appears to be expressed through different types of values in each language.

Although the overall pattern of subsets of values shows that the personal interaction conveyed through values related to the worthiness of the product seems to be more predominant in both languages, the frequency of use of these values is higher in English than in Spanish. Conversely, a more personal interaction through the choice of judgement values is favoured by writers of the text in Spanish more than in English. Although in Spanish the use of other judgement values related to the popularity of the company (normality) is low, they seem to support the positive image of the company more than in English.

As can be seen in company literature in Spanish, the more individual-oriented concern is related to the effectiveness of the company, whereas in English it is rather seen through values related to the worthiness of the product. This probably means that in Spanish the individual concern is more self-focussed, whereas in English it is more reader-oriented, as it appears to stand out for the benefit of the client.

Despite this mutual personalised concern in both languages, looking at results from another perspective seems to indicate that interactive personalised values are more

crucial in Spanish than in English. If we compare the sum of the frequencies of use of individual-oriented values expressed through language resources related to capacity and valuation with those of information-oriented ones related to the composition and performance of the product in each language, we will see that the former group of values tends to be higher in Spanish than in English. In contrast, the frequency of use of the above two groups of values is very similar in English. In short, both interactive and information-oriented values seem to have more space in the interaction in English; whereas in Spanish, personalised values appear to be more crucial than information-oriented ones. In this way, company literature in Spanish seems to be closer to letters than in English.

6.5.3 Catalogues

6.5.3.1 Catalogues in Spanish

A similar profile as observed in company literature texts can be seen in catalogues. As shown in Table 6.6, appreciation is again the most frequently used type of evaluation (78%). However, the gap between appreciation and judgement is even wider in this text type, particularly compared with both letters and company literature in Spanish. In catalogues in Spanish, writers are more concerned with highlighting values related to the effectiveness of the product than with the performance of the company. As in company literature, this may indicate a shift towards a more information-oriented interaction, which is also supported by the absence of affect values.

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	0%	0%	0%	12%	0%	0%	1%	9%	2%	4%	1%
Evoked			±5%	±5%	±5%	±7%	±11%	±13%	±21%		
Total subtypes	0%	0%	2%	15%	0%	5%	7%	25%	2%	24%	27%
	±5%	±22%	±5%	±22%	±5%	±9%	±11%	±3%	±12%	±22%	
Total types	0%		28% ±24%					78% ±31%			

Table 6.6: Mean frequencies of evaluations in catalogues in Spanish

With regard to specific values appraising the product, performance (27%), valuation (25%) and composition (24%) are used at a similar level of frequency. As can be seen, the primary concern of writers seems to be with raising positive evaluation regarding the information on the performance and physical properties. In this respect, the information-oriented interaction becomes more prominent here than in the previous text types. Nevertheless, the high frequency of valuation as shown above also reflects the choice towards a still individualised concern.

Despite the salient preference for appraising the product, values assessing the performance of the company still appear to be relatively important. Within judgement, capacity outnumbers the frequency of use (15%) of the other subtypes. We can then say that the individualised concern is rather oriented to the capability of the company to meet the clients' needs. The orientation towards a personalised interaction is, to a certain extent, also echoed as in company literature in Spanish in the low level of frequency of

use of the remaining categories namely, propriety (7%) veracity (5%) and normality (2%), which refer to social issues such as reliability, trustworthiness and image.

As in previous texts, it should also be noted that most of the values are expressed through evoked evaluation. As said before, this may also point out towards a more personalised interest related to the particular knowledge-sharing with the reader.

6.5.3.2 Catalogues in English

Evaluation											
Type	Affect		Judgement					Appreciation			
Subtype	Security	Happiness	Normality	Capacity	Tenacity	Veracity	Propriety	Valuation	Reaction	Composition	Performance
Inscribed	0%	1%	0%	3%	0%	0%	0%	9%	2%	6%	1%
Evoked		±1%	1%	4%	0%	3%	1%	11%	0%	25%	43%
			±1%	±5%		±2%	±1%	±7%		±9%	±14%
Total subtypes	0%	1%	1%	8%	0%	3%	1%	19%	2%	31%	44%
		±1%	±1%	±7%		±2%	±1%	±8%	±3%	±12%	±14%
Total types	1% ±1%		24% ±9%					96% ±18%			

Table 6.7: Mean frequencies of evaluations in catalogues in English

As in catalogues in Spanish, the difference between the frequencies of appreciation (96%) and judgement (24%) is much larger than in the other text types, though, as in the case of company literature, the gap is wider in English than in Spanish. This finding seems to indicate that the tendency towards the choice of an information-oriented interaction is stronger in English than in Spanish. Similarly, the information-oriented

concern is supported by the very low frequency of affect values, though unlike Spanish they do appear to be used here.

As in Spanish, within appreciation, performance is the most frequently used (44%), though with a higher frequency in English. This time, these values are closely followed by composition (31%), whereas valuation occurs at a lower level, though its frequency is relatively high. As we can see, values intended to raise positive evaluation of the efficiency and physical properties or composition of the product within the technical process seem to override those related to the social worthiness of the product. As one might expect from catalogues, the information-oriented interaction here is far more crucial than the individualised concern. However, this information-oriented concern is more predominant in English than in Spanish.

The frequency of use of values related to judgement is even lower than in Spanish. Here, the individual concern associated with values related to the performance of the company is given little importance, thus giving way to a more information-oriented type of interaction with the reader. This information-oriented concern is also supported in the highly frequent use of evoked values.

6.5.3.3 Comparison

The overall pattern of choice of values in catalogues reveals that writers are more concerned with the appraisal of the product. As in company literature, these findings seem to indicate a more information-oriented interaction which can be seen through the choice of the similar values in both languages.

At a general level, this choice is reflected in the overriding majority of appraisal of the product over values related to judgement of the company and affect. However, it seems

that in Spanish, assessment of the performance of the company still occupies a slightly more prominent place in the interaction than in English. The information-oriented concern is also revealed in the subsets of values. The product tends to be more valued according to its efficiency within the technical process as well as the positive values seen in its nature.

At a more delicate level, the findings suggest that a slightly higher preoccupation of writers to interact with the reader in a more personalised way can be seen in Spanish. This personalised concern is seen in values related to capacity and valuation. Through capacity, as in other text types, mainly in Spanish, writers want to demonstrate how capable they are to fulfil the needs of the client. As can be seen, the more individualised concern here is both self-oriented and reader-oriented. In English, the concern with an individualised interaction is given less space. When it does occur, it is mainly seen through the values associated with the worthiness of the product, that is, the individualised concern is rather reader-oriented.

6.6 Conclusion

The analysis of evaluation in promotional texts has revealed important features that can be seen as potential markers to define generic boundaries, not only at the level of the concept of promotion as a whole across languages, but also within the same language. Similarly, the interactional resources revealed in the analysis may also have implications for the identification of subgeneric features of one text type as opposed to the others, not only within the same language, but also across languages. Table 6.8 gives an overview of the main findings presented so far, as a basis for highlighting the main similarities and differences that have emerged.

		Affect	Judgement	Appreciation
Spanish	Letters	14% ±5%	39% ±12%	41% ±9%
	Company literature	0%	33% ±18%	51% ±28%
	Catalogues	0%	28% ±24%	78% ±31%
English	Letters	10% ±4%	33% ±8%	35% ±8%
	Company literature	4% ±3%	18% ±12%	89% ±17%
	Catalogues	1% ±1%	24% ±9%	96% ±18%

Table 6.8: Mean frequencies of evaluations in Spanish and English

It is important to note that most of the values are indirectly expressed or intended to be evoked. This may have implications for the type of the relation the writer wants to establish with the reader, namely one in which the expertise of the customer is expected to be used as the source of recognition of the positive value of the offer. In this respect, the interaction here is reader-oriented, since it is the addressee who can ultimately agree or disagree with the positive evoked values of the product or service. In this way, evoked evaluation allows for open negotiation. In contrast, through inscribed evaluation whose source is seen in the writer, beliefs may sound imposed on others. After all, any kind of assessment made by the customer himself/herself is more reliable for his/her own benefits than a judgement provided by the seller.

At a very broad level of the analysis, it has been demonstrated that writers of promotional texts in both languages are primarily concerned with projecting aesthetic values related to the effectiveness of the product, its nature and the quality of its performance, rather than highlighting social values attached to the performance of the company.

Other distinctive markers at a generic level can be found within the various subsets of values. Appreciation-valuation has a constantly high frequency of occurrence in all text types and in both languages. Since the primary purpose of the texts is to persuade the customer to buy their products/services, it is not surprising that many of the evaluative resources emphasise the worthiness of the product in social/reader-oriented terms, i.e. the potential benefits of the product to fulfil the customer needs. Therefore, it is common to find that many of the appraisal resources used in the texts typically refer to values such as the availability, usefulness, suitability, cost-effectiveness and efficiency of the product to accomplish customer's expectations.

This may indicate that writers in promotional texts invest a great deal of effort to make the reader aware of the benefits s/he will get out of the product. Although promotional texts, at a very broad level, seem to be less concerned with assessing the behaviour of the company in social terms, it is common to find that writers aim to evoke positive feelings regarding their capacity to meet their customers' needs than any other type of appraisal related to the performance of the company that has to do with image, prestige and/or values related to social sanction (e.g. ethical issues, trustworthiness). The evaluation becomes then more self-oriented in the sense that stating explicitly the ability to do the job properly may enhance the image of the company, though self-orientation implicitly contributes to the promotion of the product/service.

As one would expect, the second most frequently used values are those in which the problem solving capacity (i.e. the efficiency based on experience and knowledge) portrays the company as the right alternative. In the promotional texts studied, as a whole, values indicating the prestige and popularity of the company as well as values which refer to ethical issues such their willingness for open negotiation, interest in

keeping their promises or assistance to the customer are not paramount; even more, values related to how resolute and brave they are in trying to fulfil the needs of the clients seem to be absent in this type of genre.

Although affective values are given far less space in this genre, it should be noted that happiness/cheerfulness is the most common affective value (although it does not occur in catalogues and company literature in Spanish). Perhaps, this low input of affective values reflects the pragmatic purpose of the interaction, namely, one in which needs are better solved (problem solving) by the ability to make things happen than through expressing emotions which may not help persuade the reader.

Besides the similarities of promotional texts in both languages, at a more detailed level, the analysis also yielded important features that may have implications for the distinction of the genre of promotion in English and Spanish. Although writers of promotional texts give, on the whole, less importance to judgement values, the major difference in the two languages could be seen in that the frequency of use of evaluative resources to project social values related to the performance/behaviour of the company is higher in Spanish than in English. Among these social values, Spanish writers make 'their capacity to fulfil the client's needs' more prominent. However, a subtle difference can still be found in the less frequently occurring social subset of values related to prestige, acceptability and social sanction such as trustworthiness and those related to ethical issues. In Spanish, such values appear to be slightly more frequently used than in English. Such differences in the use of social values to assess the performance of the company in the two languages, perhaps, could be seen as the result of a greater focus of the companies in the North Colombian context on establishing their own niche within the business community.

The analysis also identified differences in the ways of interacting at the level of subgenre in both languages. A more individualised nature expected in letters and a more information-oriented type that catalogues are probably associated with has been found in both languages. For instance, within the main categories, the difference between judgement and appreciation is more pronounced in catalogues and company literature than in letters. This suggests that more space for information-oriented interaction is provided in catalogues and company literature through values related to the efficiency of the product. In contrast, affect values are more typical of letters. Similarly, within the subset of values, appreciation-valuation (mostly reader-oriented) is more frequently used in letters, whereas performance and composition (mainly product-oriented) are typical of catalogues and company literature, although performance related values are more often found in catalogues.

At the same level of analysis, important features were also found which could help to establish differences between texts of the same type in each language. The most striking difference can be seen in the fact that the evocation of positive feelings regarding the ability of the company to fulfil the client's needs is more frequently projected in Spanish, whereas in English the use of evoked values related to the ethical issues (propriety values) are more common. It seems as if Spanish writers are more self-focussed in the interaction in the sense that the use of social values to appraise the company is intended to highlight its efficiency. In contrast, in English, writers apparently take the customer needs more into account by projecting their willingness to assist the customer, their readiness for an open negotiation and inclination to keep their promises.

Finally, an important feature which might help distinguish text types in each language can be found in the more information-oriented texts. Although in catalogues and company literature, at a very general level, writers seem to be more concerned with the appraisal of the product, the gap between judgement and appreciation is much wider in company literature and catalogues in English than in Spanish. Judgement capacity is less used in catalogues in English. This finding may suggest there is a strong need for self-repositioning of North Colombian companies within the business community.

7 The analysis of modality

The analysis deals with the identification of the semantic and syntactic resources of modality that writers of promotional texts use as strategies to express their responsibility and commitment with the validity of their information, degree of pressure of actions assigned to others as well as their determination to fulfil their promises during the interaction. As in the case of interpersonal meanings, the categories which comprise the system of modality have been explored and the outcome used to develop a set of contextualised tools, which allow us to identify interpersonal meanings in the cross linguistic analysis of interaction in the present work.

The purpose of the analysis is to find out the extent to which modal meanings express open negotiation and the relationship between writers' attitude, the type of interaction and social relations developed in the texts. The ultimate aim of the analysis is to see whether the same type of negotiation is maintained across languages and across text types.

This chapter is structured in the following way. The first section provides an overview of the results of the exploration of the modality system in the context of promotion. This is followed by a presentation of a set of refined categories developed for the statistical analysis which aims to identify tendencies in the choice of modal meanings across languages and texts types. Afterwards, the findings of the statistical analysis are presented. At the end of the chapter, I shall discuss the implications of the findings for the type of interaction developed in the discourse of promotion across languages and across text types.

7.1 The semantic and syntactic categories of modality in the context of promotion: an overview

In the study of interpersonal meanings in the present work, modality has proven to be the most complex one to apply in both languages. The various categories devised for the analysis incorporate not only functions of modality inherent to the context of promotion, but also those differences in the way each language system, namely English and Spanish, uses their resources to convey modal meanings. As discussed earlier, the Spanish language conveys modal meanings through resources such as subjunctive, future and conditional tense which do not count in Halliday's system of modality in English (Halliday 1994: 357). However, in order to facilitate the comparison, this theoretical problem has been resolved with the inclusion of those syntactic and morphological structures in Spanish which express a similar kind of meaning of modal expressions in English.

On the whole, modal meanings are often conveyed through similar language resources in both languages, except for subjunctive and future and conditional forms in Spanish as mentioned above. It could be argued that in Halliday's model the two sets of resources ('will' and 'would' in English vs. 'future' and 'conditional' tense in Spanish) are not expressing the same meaning, since they are different kinds of forms and form cannot be separated from meaning (Halliday, 1994). However, according to the findings in this work the verb endings '-re' and '-ra' in Spanish are used to express probability and modulated inclination (see section 7.3). Modal 'will' and 'would', respectively, and 'future' and 'conditional' tense inflections plus beneficiary process are used to express combined meanings of probability and inclination.

Type of modality	Semantic resources	Typical lexico-grammatical realisation	Examples of lexico-grammatical items	
			English	Spanish
Modalisation	Probability	Modal operator (Active and passive process)	will, would, can, may	puede (ocurrir) pueden (estar)
		Modal adjunct	really, obviously,	realmente
		Metaphor	available, it is assumed, it is possible	realidad, aseguran, creemos
		<i>Subjunctive</i>	x	(que se) <i>pueda</i> (presentar)
		<i>Future tense suffix (re/ra)</i>	x	<i>serán, tendrá</i>
	Usuality	Modal adjunct	always, often, normally	siempre
		Metaphor	x	mes a mes
Modulation	Obligation	Modal operator	must, will have to	deben (cumplir), hay que
		Expanded predicator (Adjective and passive verb)	it is essential, as required	sigue fielmente, requirió
		<i>Subjunctive</i>	x	que <i>tengan</i> que
	Inclination	Modal operator	will, may	(para) poder (brindarle)
		Expanded predicator (adjective)	do our most, be pleased, take pride in offering, advise, recommend, wish	estamos atentos a (resolver)
		<i>Future tense suffix (re/ra)</i>	x	<i>facilitaremos, daremos</i>

Table 7.1: Semantic and syntactic resources of modality in the context of promotion in English and Spanish

However, the focus of the analysis is not placed on the type of lexico-grammatical resources, per se, which are used to convey modal meanings such as 'must' and 'should'. On the whole, the modal resources identified in the texts are regarded here as a set of contextual tools to identify tendencies in the choice of a particular meaning or meanings in the Spanish and English corpus. In other words, the focus of this work is not to see whether, e.g. probability is expressed in the texts through modal verbs, adjuncts or

tense forms. Here, the aim is to find out the tendency of the writer to use 'probability', whether the same tendency exists in both languages and the implications that such tendency may have for the type of relation established in the text.

Table 7.1 provides an account of the semantic, lexico-grammatical and morphological resources found in the exploration of the various ways in which each language system conveys modal meanings. The *italicised* syntactic and morphological resources only apply in Spanish.

The semantic and syntactic resources identified in each language are illustrated and classified in the next section. The findings are discussed in terms of the degree of commitment and modal responsibility conveyed through the various types of semantic and syntactic resources. That is, the categories include modal values for the analysis of modal commitment (high, median, low) and modal responsibility (subjectivity, objectivity) as described in chapter 2.

7.2 Refined categories in English texts

7.2.1 Modalisation

This category is made up of those modal resources which typically express the degree of certainty, with which the writer presents the information regarding the quality and benefits of the product/services and processes that take place during the interaction. In doing so, the writer evaluates the extent to which the product/services should fulfil the expectations of the customer, in terms of likelihood and frequency. Thus, following Halliday (1994), resources conveying modalised meanings in the texts can be categorised under probability and usuality.

7.2.1.1 Probability

Probability is expressed in the texts with high, median and low degrees of the writer's commitment that the product and/or services are relevant to meet the customer's needs.

High probability

High probability in the texts is seen through the modal verb 'will' and/or adjuncts as in:

- [7.1] Under normal operating conditions the position of the power control potentiometer on the instrument panel will set the value of work coil current (Letter E-11, cl. 14)
- [7.2] In many cases, we will have stocks of those products (Letter E-17, cl. 11)
- [7.3] We will obviously do our utmost to hold the new prices for as long a period as possible (Letter E-23, cl. 5)

In all the above examples, the likelihood of the product to function properly and the company to provide the service to the customer is presented as high. It should also be noted that, in some cases, high probability also occurs in the contexts of making promises, to express how determined the writer is to fulfil in his part in providing goods and services. In [7.3] 'will obviously' reinforces the writer's willingness to carry out his promise (see also modulated inclination below).

Median probability

Median probability is conveyed through those language resources in which the strength of the writer's assumptions about the quality and/or performance of the product and processes offered is less emphatic than in the previous examples. This type of probability is realised in the texts through the choice of the modal verbs 'should', 'would' and 'can' (in those cases in which it refers to the writer's ability to deal with the offer) and also through metaphors of modality such as 'available'. Typically, the motivation in such cases appears to be less uncertainty than politeness. Although the use

of the above language resources indicate that the writer is fairly sure of the validity of his/her words, s/he does not like to impose his/her assessment on the reader.

- [7.4] ... [manual] which should give you some idea of the day-to-day running of the YAG (Letter E-12, cl. 3)
- [7.5] Despite this large angle and the built in miniature electron gun the unit can be mounted on an FC150 (200mm/8" OD) flange. (Comp. lit. E-2 cl. 2)
- [7.6] ... we can manufacture chambers to our standard or your custom designs ... (Comp. lit. E-25, cl. 3)
- [7.7] Options available include 2, 3 and 4 mesh versions, PC compatible data analysis systems right-angled viewing hood with video camera adaptor. (Comp. lit. E-2, cl. 6)

Low probability

In contrast, the writer's views can also be projected with less certainty than in the above examples. In the following, it could be said that the writer's assessment of the probability is low.

- [7.8] ... who use or may use vacuum equipment or systems (working range 10^{+3} to 10^{-3} mbar) in processes such as drying and distillation. (Comp. lit. E- 13, cl. 15)
- [7.9] It is assumed that participants will have some understanding of basic vacuum technology. (Comp. lit. E- 13, cls. 11, 12)

Probability source

Probability in the texts can be subjectivised or objectivised. In other words, the writer takes responsibility for the validity of her/his words or avoids it by projecting the degree of certainty of the message as part of the event itself. In [7.1] and [7.4] the writer is the source of the validity of the proposition, since s/he expects that the 'value of the coil current is set' and that the customer gets 'some ideas on the day-to-day running'. In contrast, the source of the validity of the proposition in [7.9], for instance is projected as a 'fact' (Thompson, 1996: 209) of the event that can take place during the interaction.

7.2.1.2 Usuality

The second type of modalisation found in the texts is related to usuality. Here, the writer is making claims about the frequency of the occurrence of certain processes ([7.11]) associated with the product and communication being offered ([7.10] and [7.12]) that may take place during the interaction. It is conveyed through modal adjuncts which express high (e.g. 'always') and median (e.g. 'often') degree of certainty.

[7.10] You can always contact me, ... (Comp. lit. E-8, cl. 4)

[7.11] ... and often [it is essential] to control the total pressure ... (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 24)

[7.12] You should normally be able to get hold of me or Clive McGovern at the Coherent office. (Letter E-6, cl. 10)

Usuality is used in the texts either to strengthen the proposition as in [7.10] or soften it as in [7.11] or [7.12].

7.2.2 Modulation

This type of modal meaning is related to the writer's attitude towards the performance of social functions as part of the activity of promoting goods and services. The semantic resources related to this category can be split in two groups: 'obligation' and 'inclination'.

7.2.2.1 Obligation

The first category is made up of those modal resources which convey the writer's attitude towards social issues such as duties and commercial and industrial regulations to be fulfilled during the business relation. As with the case of modalised meanings they can also be expressed with high, median and low commitment.

High obligation

This type of obligation is typically used to emphasise the importance of certain requirements related to the processes within a given field of work that have to be followed in order to achieve satisfactory results. This type of modal meaning is conveyed through modal operators such as 'must' in [7.13] and metaphors such as the underlined expression in [7.14], [7.15] and [7.16].

- [7.13] ... pressure-measuring devices must be correctly sited ... and [must be] properly adjusted and calibrated. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 29)
- [7.14] ... (vacuum) which has become essential to achieve the desired results in many processes. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 36)
- [7.15] The efficient location of a leak and the accurate assessment of its size demand considerable experience from the operator of the detector. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 48)
- [7.16] ... it is essential to measure ... (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 23)

Median obligation

This type of modal value provides less pressure on the fulfilment of regulations or conditions attached to the performance of the product or service offered than in the previous types of obligation. It is conveyed through modal verbs indicating median pressure such as 'would' and 'should' ([7.17]) and metaphors of obligation such as 'expect' ([7.18]).

- [7.17] ... that it should provide an opportunity for systematic training in vacuum technology from basic principles to very specialised applications. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 4)
- [7.18] First results can be expected in the following months. (Comp. lit. E-9, cl. 6)

Low obligation

This modal value is expressed in terms of advice or recommendations. The fulfilment of the regulations or requirements depends entirely on the will or interest of the performer.

It is realised in the text through lexical items (e.g. 'advise' and 'recommends') as in:

- [7.19] Lambda Physik still recommends the use of the mirror inserted in the oscillator block, as a precaution against high peak powers. (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 5)

Obligation source

The writer as a source of the pressure to fulfil duties and regulations can be seen in the three degrees of commitment of projecting obligation. In examples [7.13] and [7.17], it is the writer directly who assigns pressure on the fulfilment of requirements to achieve the desired results. However, in other cases, the source of the pressure is assigned to an external factor realised through the empty subject 'it' as in [7.16] or to an entity other than the writer, e.g. the company as in [7.19], or even another company's entity involved in the interaction as in example [7.15].

7.2.2.2 Inclination

The second group of modulated meanings can be seen in those resources which express the writer's determination to keep his/her promises and provide assistance to customers as established in his/her offer. These resources are covered under the heading inclination and can be illustrated as follows. As with obligation, they can also be expressed with high, median and low commitment.

High inclination

This type of modulated inclination expresses the writer's full commitment to carry out his/her promises. It is typically expressed by the modal verb 'will', which may be accompanied by an idiomatic expression of willingness or effort to reinforce the writer's determination ([7.20] and [7.21]).

- [7.20] The complete range of OMICRON Variable Temperature STM instruments will be offered during the first half of 1995. (Comp. lit. E-8, cl. 9)
- [7.21] We will obviously do our utmost to hold the new prices for as long a period as possible. (Letter E-23, cl. 5)

Median inclination

Median inclination implies that writers are keen to provide the service. However, less pressure on customers to accept the offer is conveyed through modal verbs such as 'would', expressions of inclination such as 'be pleased' ([7.19]) or metaphors of inclination such as 'at your disposal' ([7.22]) and 'take pride in offering' ([7.24]).

- [7.22] We would be pleased to tailor such courses to your requirements. (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 27)
- [7.23] Clariswork office is now at your disposal ... with all the tried and tested productivity-boosting features. (Comp. lit. E-5, cl. 4)
- [7.24] As the leader in vacuum technology we take pride in offering a number of general vacuum courses and specialist seminars on subjects ... (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 1)

Low inclination

This type is concerned with the degree of desirability of the occurrence of an event. It can be seen in the context of expectations on others to fulfil certain tasks as in [7.25] and [7.26].

- [7.25] It is hoped that participants will raise specific points regarding ... (Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 14-15)

- [7.26] Companies or institutions may wish to arrange special courses for their staff.
(Comp. lit. E-12, cl. 26)

The source of inclination

As in the previous types of modal meanings, the source of inclination can also be found in the writer or in an external entity other than the writer himself/herself. In [7.21] and [7.22] the writer openly states that it is his/her determination or willingness to accomplish the offer. However, instances of objectivised messages can also be seen in [7.20] and [7.25], where the determination or willingness is presented as coming from the event itself or from an entity other than the writer that also participates in the relation.

7.3 Refined categories in Spanish

The analysis yielded similar findings to those identified in English. That is, modal meanings can be grouped into modalisation and modulation. With the exception of subjunctive forms and future and conditional tense verb inflections ('-re'/'-ran', '-ria'/'-n'), modal meanings are expressed through similar syntactic resources, e.g. adjuncts, modal verbs, metaphors and syntactic structures such as expanded predicators.

7.3.1 Modalisation

As in English, this category includes semantic resources related to probability and usuality. The discussion of both types of modalisation is centred on the degree of commitment with which writers express the validity of their messages.

7.3.1.1 Probability

This type of modal meanings is concerned with the validity of the writer's views regarding the effectiveness of the product and trustworthiness of the company to provide the service. As in English, it can be expressed with high, median and low degree of writer commitment.

High Probability

Writer's high commitment to the validity of his views regarding the effectiveness of the product and trustworthiness of the company to provide the service can be expressed in Spanish in three ways mainly: through metaphors ([7.28]), verb inflections (future tense) ([7.75]) and modal adjuncts ([7.27]). It should also be noted here that, in some cases, high probability also occurs in the contexts of making promises to express how likely it will be for the writer's promises and attitude towards providing goods and services to take place during the interaction as in [34].

[7.27] La infraestructura de la planta de producción y oficinas administrativas es realmente funcional. (Letter S-17, cl. 2)

(The infrastructure of the production plant and administrative offices is really functional.)

[7.28] Reservas abundantes aseguran un abastecimiento libre de problemas por muchos años. (Letter S-5, cl. 4)

(Abundant reserves guarantee trouble-free stock for many years.)

[7.29] Adicionalmente los funcionarios de su Empresa serán atendidos en forma especial. (Letter S-14, cl. 5)

(In addition, the employees of your company will be assisted with special care.)

Median probability

Median probability is used to show that the writer's commitment with the validity of the effectiveness of the product and processes offered is less emphatic than in the previous

examples. Although it seems that the writer is fairly aware of the validity of his/her saying, s/he does not like to impose his/her assessment.

[7.30] ... y estamos atentos a resolver cualquier inquietud que se pueda presentar al respecto. (Letter S-12, cl. 17-18)

(... and we are ready to solve any query that can arise on this matter.)

[7.31] ... que pueden estar disponibles en las partículas coloides de ciertos suelos. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 17)

(... that can be available in the colloid particles of certain soils.)

Low probability

Low probability can be seen in those propositions expressing the likelihood of certain technical events or processes within the technical field.

[7.32] Entidades que presentan los servicios públicos con el menor deterioro posible del medio ambiente ... (Letter S-4, cl. 2)

([Institutions] that deal with public services with less possible damage to the environment ...)

[7.33] ... y también en posibilidad de ser retenido o almacenado en virtud de las cargas positivas no satisfechas. (Comp. Lit. S-16, cl. 16)

(... and also with the possibility of being stored due to uncompensated positive charges.)

The source of probability in Spanish

Probability in Spanish texts can be subjectivised or objectivised as in English. In other words, the writer can either adopt responsibility for the validity of her/his words or avoid it by projecting the assertion or non-assertion of the message as part of the event itself. In [7.27] and [7.75], for instance, the writer him/herself is the source of the validity of the proposition, since s/he expects that the reader identifies the judgement on 'the infrastructure of the plant' and the objectives of 'the environmental audit' as his/her own one. In contrast, in [7.33] the writer's responsibility for the validity of the message is

objectivised. The use of ‘en posibilidad’ (*with the possibility*) allows the writer to shift the validity of the proposition as part of the technical event itself.

7.3.1.2 Usuality

The cases of modal meanings related to usuality found in Spanish are conveyed through high commitment and intended to reinforce the trustworthiness of the company. It is realised through modal adjuncts which express the writer’s high commitment as in:

- [7.34] ... en donde siempre encontrará personal altamente calificado y entrenado ...
 (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 33)
 (... where you will *always* find highly skilled and qualified personnel ...)

7.3.2 Modulation

7.3.2.1 Obligation

High obligation

This type of modality is also used in Spanish to show the writer’s strong position towards the fulfilment of regulations. It is realised through modal verbs followed by lexical items expressing obligation such as ‘cumplir’ (*fulfil*), ‘tener en cuenta’ (*taken into account*) which reinforces the fulfilment of a duty or regulation ([7.35], [7.36]) and metaphors of obligation such as ‘requirió’ (*required*) and ‘sigue fielmente’ (*follows faithfully*) ([7.37], [7.38]).

- [7.35] ... las empresas establecidas en Colombia deben cumplir con la legislación actual. (Comp. Lit. 7, cl. 7)
 (... the companies established in Colombia *must fulfil* the current legislation.)

- [7.36] Hay que tener en cuenta factores como la inmediata operacionalidad de la empresa con sus licencias pertinentes ... (Letter S-17, cl. 22).
(Factors as the immediate operativeness of the company have to be taken into account.)
- [7.37] Ese cambio requirió de grandes esfuerzos. (Letter S-13, cl. 9)
(This change required/demanded great effort.)
- [7.38] Las construcción de las máquinas sigue fielmente las exigentes especificaciones de las normas internacionales DIN. (Cat. S-3, cl. 3))
(The construction of the machine follows faithfully the high specifications of the international standards DIN.)

Low obligation

This type of modal meanings expresses permission to make proposals such as giving advise and/or the conditions which enable the writer to carry out a particular task.

- [7.39] Permítanos asesorarlos en el cubrimiento de sus necesidades para el tratamiento de aguas residuales industriales, mediante la utilización del sistema BIOTHANE. (Letter S-7, cl. 12)
(Allow us to advise you how to cover your needs regarding the treatment of industrial wastewater through the use of the BIOTHANE system.)
- [7.40] Los excelentes resultados mostrados nos permiten pensar en un corto plazo en la instalación de nuevas estaciones y talleres en éstas y otras ciudades de Colombia. (Comp. lit. S-5, cl. 17)
(The excellent results shown allow us to think in a short term the installation of new stations and workshops here and in other cities.)

The source of obligation

The writer as a source of the pressure to fulfil duties and regulations can be seen in the three degrees of commitment of projecting obligation. In examples [7.35] and [7.40], it is the writer himself/herself who assigns pressure on the fulfilment of requirements to achieve the desired results. However, in other cases, the source of the pressure is

assigned to an external factor realised through the impersonal subject 'hay'¹⁰ as in [7.36], or to an event as in [7.37] where the pressure to make 'great efforts' is projected as coming from a source other than the writer.

7.3.2.2 Inclination

High inclination

This type of modulated inclination expresses the writer's full commitment to carry out the his/her promises. It is typically realised through beneficiary processes, but reinforced by the future tense which strengthens the determination to fulfil the promise.

[7.41] ... así mismo le facilitaremos asesorías y diseños completamente gratuitos para sus proyectos, reformas o construcciones, con la seguridad ... (Letter S-9, cl. 3)
(... in this way, we shall provide you with advice and designs completely free of charge for your projects, renovations or constructions.)

[7.42] ... y les daremos a ustedes todo el servicio necesario. (Letter S-8, cl. 18)
(... and we shall give you all the necessary service.)

Median inclination

In Spanish, median inclination also implies that writers are keen to provide the service, but with less pressure on customers to accept the offer. It is typically realised through metaphors of inclination as in:

[7.43] Tenemos el agrado de poner a su disposición nuestro completo y variado surtido de lámparas de techo, pared, de mesa, de pie, reflectores halogenós, ojos de buey, faroles, etc. (Letter S-11, cl. 1)
(We have the pleasure to offer you our complete and varied stock of ceiling, standing, wall lamps, halogen reflectors and cat's eyes...)

[7.44] ... y estamos atentos a resolver cualquier inquietud ... (Letter S-12, cl. 17)
(... and we are keen to answer any query ...)

¹⁰ 'hay' is a conjugated form of 'haber de' which is equivalent to the empty subject 'it' as in 'it is necessary'.

Low inclination

This kind of modal meaning is used to encourage customers to request assistance from the company as in:

- [7.45] Sin embargo, en caso de que deseen hacernos alguna consulta o necesiten alguna aclaratoria, ... (Letter S-15, cl. 5)
(However, in case you wish to ask for advice or clarification,...)

The source of inclination

As the previous types of modal meanings, the source of inclination can also be found in the writer or in an external entity other than the writer himself/herself. In [7.41] and [7.42] the writer openly states that it is his/her determination or willingness to accomplish the offer. However, in other cases, willingness can be seen as coming from an entity other than the writer that also participates in the relation as in [7.45], where the need to make enquiries turns into a desire or inclination coming from the customer: ‘de que [ustedes] deseen’ (*in case you wish*).

7.4 Statistical analysis of modality

The statistical analysis involved the identification of the type of modality through which writers try to persuade customers to buy their products and services, namely, modalised probability and usuality as well as modulated obligation and inclination. It also included the analysis of degrees of modal commitment and responsibility that writers assume for what is expressed.

The analysis seeks to answer the following questions:

- (a) To what extent are writers of promotional texts committed to the validity of the information, the social issues concerning moral responsibility attached to others and/or her/his determination to fulfil her/his promises in the interaction?
- (b) How far does s/he accept responsibility for her/his commitment?
- (c) Is the discourse of promotion realised in similar ways across languages and across text types in terms of choices of modality?

It should be noted that, although the analysis of modality is based primarily on Halliday's model, it has been extended to other grammatical forms which are not explicitly included in that model. This allows for the consideration of a broader range of meanings that may be encountered in the cross-linguistic analysis. At the same time, the features investigated have been restricted to those which have a transparent relationship with the semantic concept of modality. Thus, not all features which could be included in the wider category of 'hedging' have been considered. As with all interpersonal features, the detailed description of the categories has shown that there is a cline of values for each category. Thus, it is possible that other analysts may assign a particular instance to a different category; and there may be disagreement over whether an instance should be counted as modal or not.

7.4.1 Sales letters

7.4.1.1 Letters in English

Results indicate that modalisation is the most frequently used type of modality in letters in English (27%). As can be seen in Table 7.2, writers appear to be more concerned with the validity of the information than with social-interactional functions such as putting

pressure on the actions assigned to others or/and the engagement in fulfilling promises. This suggests that writers in letters in English prefer to interact with the reader on a more information-oriented basis.

However, the frequency of use of expressions of probability in which the writer's viewpoint appears to be committed at a median level of certainty seems to be higher (12%) than other types of modal commitment. In asserting the validity of those propositions as in [7.46] and [7.47], writers tend to express their views without imposing them on the reader. In other words, writers leave space for others to agree or disapprove the content of the message.

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							Subtotal		
		Subjectivity			Objectivity						
		Commitment			Commitment						
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low				
Modalisation	Probability	8% ±3%	12% ±4%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	4% ±2%	25% ±5%	27% ±5%		
	Usuality	2% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2% ±2%			
Modulation	Obligation	3% ±2%	3% ±2%	0%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	7% ±3%	15% ±4%		
	Inclination	0%	8% ±3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	8% ±3%			
Subtotal		13% ±4%	23% ±5%	1% ±1%	1% ±1%	0%	4% ±3%	42% ±7%			

Table 7.2: Mean frequencies¹¹ of types of modality in letters in English

[7.46] By now you should have received a copy of the quantel Nd-YAG ... (Letters S-12, cl. 2)

¹¹ As outlined in 3.4.2, the frequency of a linguistic feature has been calculated by dividing the number of occurrences by the number of clauses in each text. Then, the mean and standard error of the frequency have been obtained for each language and text type.

- [7.47] ... an additional potentiometer could be sited at some distance from the generator and the potentiometer on the generator be disconnected. (Letter E-11, cl. 15)
- [7.48] ... that it would be more cost effective to replace the existing controllers with reliable, trouble-free, industry standard controllers. (Letter E-26, cl. 13)

Nevertheless, the frequency of high probability is not too different from that of median probability. It is possible to find (8%) that writers also exchange information by committing themselves with a high degree of certainty or confidence. It is likely that the choice of high degree of certainty conveyed in the modal expression 'will' avoids writers sounding insecure in the context of providing technical specifications and/or promoting the company.

- [7.49] This value will automatically stabilise at 0.1% against variations in mains input voltage and component drift. (Letter 11, cl. 18)
- [7.50] ... [this experience] will help to strengthen our position within the industries. (Letter E-21, cl. 16)

The results in Table 7.2 show that writers prefer to take responsibility for what they say. This is also reflected in the low frequency of objectivised ways (5%) used to express their confidence in the validity of the information. It is very unlikely that writers would be inclined to sound more objective, for instance, by adding expressions such as 'probably' or 'it is likely that':

Probably, [this experience] will help to strengthen our position within industries.

Or:

It is likely that we will be sending you information on a number of new products.

As the examples show, the use of those objectivised expressions of probability will reduce the likelihood of raising trustworthiness and reliability, thus putting at risk the relation and the attainment of their ultimate purpose, namely, to persuade customer to buy their products/services. In addition, in most cases when objectivised probability is used, it is low commitment, which might be interpreted as a sign of insecurity in the

writer's views. For this reason, this choice of modality value and responsibility cannot be favoured in the interaction. Raising feelings of insecurity is certainly not the best strategy to achieve persuasion.

The salient choice of both median and high probability may construe a more personalised interaction as expected in letters. Since writers seem to be interested in establishing a lasting interaction with the customer, it may be important that writers approach the reader with care. In the case that both, writers and readers, share a similar background-knowledge in the field of work, the choice of median probability is likely to be preferred to acknowledge the status of the reader. Through the use of median probability the views of the writers are not imposed on the reader and the s/he is invited to participate in the interaction. Similarly, the choice of high probability which highlights the company's trustworthiness and reliability indicates a personalised orientation in the interaction, though it may construe a less open negotiation.

Also, the personalised orientation through the choice of high and median values to express probability seems to be supported by the writer's attitude to assume responsibility for the validity of his/her words.

In the case of modulation, as stated above, writers seem to be less concerned with social-interactive functions such as putting pressure on the actions performed by others as well as being determined to fulfil their promises. As can be seen in Table 7.2, modulation (obligation and inclination) is much less frequently used (15%) than modalised probability (25%). Given that the overall function of the texts is to offer and not to demand goods and services, it is surprising that the frequency of modulated inclination is not significantly higher than the frequency of modulated obligation. In fact, both types of modulation have similar levels of frequency (7% and 8%), although the

degree of commitment of the writers in assigning pressure to others (obligation) or fulfilling their own promises (inclination) is different. In most cases of modulated obligation, they commit themselves to the proposal with high degree of pressure as in:

[7.51] ... then you will have to disconnect connections 402 and 404 and [will have to] supply a separate 5 Volt signal ... (Letter E-1, cl. 21)

and median degree of pressure as in:

[7.52] ... would ask you to pass it ... (Comp. lit. E-1, cl. 14)

It should be noted that, here, high obligation is used to provide instructions that have to be followed in the technical process. Median obligation, on the other hand, is used to make requests to the customer on a more social interactional basis as in [7.52]. In contrast, in showing how inclined they are to provide support to the customer on various matters, they prefer to apply a median degree of pressure on the fulfilment of the task assigned to the reader. As in the case of modalised probability, this finding suggests that writers do not want to force the reader to accept their assistance. In this way, the interaction may be developed in a friendlier environment.

[7.53] ... [project] which you would like to discuss with us then. (Letter E-21, cl. 30)

[7.54] Further to our recent telephone conversation I am pleased to attach quotations for both prime and test quality wafers. (Letter E-2, cl. 1)

As in the case of modalised probability, in most cases of modulated obligation writers assume responsibilities for assigning pressure on others to fulfil their tasks, as can be seen in the examples above. This finding can be interpreted as a sign of writers' strategy to establish a more personal and therefore close relation with the reader. This interpretation is also supported by the infrequent use of objectivised obligation. Objectivised obligation can be seen in the context of rules and requirements that have to be followed in the technical processes. In this case, the pressure to follow such rules originates in the technical event, i.e. it is part of the event itself not as a rule imposed by

the writer. In addition, objectivised pressure as part of the technical requirement is projected as unquestionable through the choice of high commitment. As a result, the choice of high objectivised modulated obligation, as in examples [7.55] and [7.56], may reinforce the development of a distant relation. Thus, it could be argued that the choice of high objectivised modulated obligation is not preferred in promotional letters in English because, in general, writers of this text type appear to be interested in a closer relation with the reader.

[7.55] It is important to understand ... (Letter E-20, cl. 2)

[7.56] If it is required an additional potentiometer could be sited at some distance from the generator. (Letter E-11, cls. 16-17)

7.4.1.2 Letters in Spanish

At a general level, results in Table 7.3 indicate that modulation (27%) is more frequently used than modulation (17%). This suggests that writers in Spanish give more importance to social interactional functions such as putting pressure on the actions assigned to others and/or the engagement in fulfilling promises.

As we can see in Table 7.3, within modulation, the frequency of use of modulated obligation (14%) and modulated inclination (11%) are relatively similar. However, the degree of pressure to carry out the commands and to fulfil the promises varies in each case. As Table 7.3 shows, the pressure applied to the fulfilment of the demands on the actions performed by either of the two interactants is mostly of low commitment (9%). It seems that writers tend to avoid imposing their own demands on the reader. Thus, the reader has more freedom to decide whether to follow the requests from the writers as in:

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							Subtotal		
		Subjectivity			Objectivity						
		Commitment			Commitment						
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low				
Modalisation	Probability	7% ±4%	6% ±3%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	3% ±2%	16% ±4%	17% ±5%		
	Usuality	1% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1% ±1%			
Modulation	Obligation	3% ±2%	1% ±1%	9% ±4%	0%	0%	1% ±1%	14% ±4%	25% ±5%		
	Inclination	0%	10% ±3%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	11% ±3%			
Subtotal		11% ±4%	18% ±4%	10% ±4%	0%	0%	3% ±1%	42% ±6%			

Table 7.3: Mean frequencies of types of modality in letters in Spanish

[7.57] Me permito presentar a ustedes, mi nombre y el de mi empresa E&I Servicios Ltda. (Letter S-8, cl. 1)

(I allow myself to introduce my name and the name of my company E&I Servicios Ltda.)

[7.58] Le invitamos a considerar la posibilidad de utilizar G.N.C. como combustible para su vehículo. (Letter S-5, cl. 7)

(We invite you to consider the possibility of using G.N.C. fuel for your vehicle.)

High degree of pressure, which appears to be less frequently used than low commitment, is only seen in cases in which the message involves writer-related duties in fulfilling the requirements as part of the technical process or in dealing with transactions as in the examples [7.59] and [7.60]. It is also noted that in those cases the responsibility adopted for assigning such degree of pressure is mostly objectivised. It is plausible to argue that this way of conveying the message may also support the view that writers want to sound more neutral in the fulfilment of rules. As can be seen in the above examples, the

pressure to fulfil the requirement is presented as coming from a source other than the writer.

[7.59] Sistemas que se requieren en la industria local ... (Letter S-7, cl. 14)
(Systems that are required by the local industry ...)

[7.60] Es indispensable contar con la información técnica ... (Letter S-32, cl. 8)
(It is crucial to have the technical information ...)

Modulated inclination is mostly expressed with a median commitment (10%), i.e. in showing how inclined they are to fulfil their promises, the writers prefer to remain safe in the middle grounds of commitment. As in English, it seems that writers resort to ways in which they appear open to negotiation without imposing their offers. Thus, this attitude may be seen as construing a closer relation with the reader.

[7.61] Hoy en día, como una respuesta a las necesidades del sector industrial y a las exigencias de las entidades gubernamentales, nos complace informarles ... (Letter S-7, cl. 3)
(Today, as an answer to the needs of the industrial sector and the demands posed by governmental institutions, we are pleased to inform you ...)

[7.62] Queremos ofrecerle a usted el grupo de compañías mas idóneo. (Letter S-29, cl. 4)
(We want to offer you the most efficient group of companies.)

As in the case of modalised probability and modulated obligation, writers assume responsibility in expressing their promises and offers. This may be related to the individualised nature associated with these texts. Thus, it is not surprising that the presence of the interactants is overtly signalled.

As stated before, modalisation is less frequently used than modulation. In contrast to obligation and inclination, modalised probability is mostly expressed with a high (7%) and median (6%) degree of commitment. The choice of high degree of certainty may indicate that the writer wants to emphasise that, in fact, he/she has the expertise required to deal with any field related issues that may arise during the relation ([7.63], [7.64]). In

other words, this tendency is mainly observed in those cases in which the writer's expertise seems to be at stake.

[7.63] Estamos seguros que al contar con los equipos de sistema ... (Letter S-12, cl. 12)

(We are sure that counting on the computer equipment ...)

[7.64] Obviamente el logro de esa empresa aparecerá en cada uno de dichos impresos. (Letter S-19, cl. 5)

(Obviously, the achievement of this enterprise will be shown in each printed material.)

In cases where the writer's assertions involve a more reader-oriented concern, the validity of the propositions is expressed with median degree of commitment.

[7.65] ... de tal forma que pudiésemos llenar las expectativas de ustedes, nuestros clientes. (Letter S-13, cl. 7)

(... so that we would be able to fulfil the expectations of yours, our clients.)

[7.66] Los circuitos de datos sincrónicos pueden ser multiplexados en un solo circuito de 64 kBps. (Letter S-20, cl. 15)

(The circuits of synchronous data can be multiplexed in one single circuit of 64 kBps.)

As in English, high and median probability can be seen as construing a personalised interaction. High probability is most likely chosen by the writers to project themselves and the company as trustworthy and reliable partners. The choice of median probability may be used to invite the reader to take part in the negotiation of meanings as explained earlier. Furthermore, the personalised orientation can also be construed by the writer's attitude to adopt responsibility for the validity of his/her messages. This interpretation is supported by the infrequency of objectivised ways of expressing opinions through explicit forms, e.g. 'es posible/probable ...' (it is *possible/probable* ...), or implicit forms, e.g. 'obviamente' (*obviously*) as in [7.64].

7.4.1.3 Comparison

In terms of social interactional resources, Spanish writers appear to exploit the inherently personalised nature of letters more than English writers. Modal resources are mostly used to describe the writer's attitudes towards the fulfilment of duties and their inclination to keep their promises. In contrast, in English, modal resources seem to be oriented towards the exchange of information, i.e. the validity of the writer's judgement on the effectiveness of the product and service is emphasised.

Nevertheless, in both languages, the preference to a more reader-oriented interaction may be related to the interactive nature associated with letters. This preference can be also seen in the prominent choice of median and low commitment to express modalised and modulated meanings. It is plausible to argue that this choice of modal value may prevent the writer from imposing his/her views and/or pressurising the reader to follow commands and accept his/her offers. Thus, the reader is invited to take actively part in the negotiation of meanings. It is likely that this attitude of the writer facilitates the development of a closer relation between the two interactants. It should be noted that, in Spanish, the choice of a reader-oriented interaction is stressed by the use of low obligation in the form of mitigated requests and invitation to participate in the interaction.

It is plausible to say that allowing the reader more freedom in the negotiation of meanings can also be regarded as construing an equal status for both interactants, which could be motivated by the writer's awareness of the expertise of his/her audience. As described in chapter 3, the relation is established among company representatives who share a specific field of knowledge.

As discussed earlier, a less questionable and thus distant negotiation projected through the choice of high values tends to be appearing with less frequency of use in both languages. Though this choice of commitment projects a self-focussed concern, it is also used to establish a trustworthy and reliable relationship.

The individualised nature associated with letters is also present in the subjectivised ways of expressing the validity of the information, demands and promises. It should be noted that objectivised responsibility does occur, but at a low level of frequency. Objectivised ways of validating the information and putting pressure on others may be interpreted as a sign of weakness. In the particular context of promoting goods and services, we would expect that writers assume responsibility for what they say during the interaction.

7.4.2 Company literature

7.4.2.1 Company literature in English

In company literature in English, modal resources are less frequently used (32%) than in letters (42%). This suggests that the interaction tends to be information-oriented. As shown in Table 7.4, in company literature in English, modalisation (20%) is more frequently used than modulation (13%), which also indicates that the interaction is more concerned with the validity of the information than with social interactional functions.

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							Subtotal	
		Subjectivity			Objectivity					
		Commitment			Commitment					
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low			
Modalisation	Probability	4% ±3%	12% ±5%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	1% ±2%	19% ±6%	20% ±6%	
	Usuality	0%	1% ±2%	0%	0%	0%	0%	1% ±2%		
Modulation	Obligation	1% ±2%	4% ±3%	3% ±2%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	10% ±4%	13% ±5%	
	Inclination	0%	2% ±2%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	3% ±3%		
Subtotal		6% ±4%	20% ±6%	4% ±2%	1% ±1%	0%	1% ±4%	32% ±8%		

Table 7.4: Mean frequencies of types of modality in company literature in English

Within the information-oriented concern, modalised probability is mainly expressed with median value of certainty (7%). As in letters, the prominent choice of a median commitment may indicate that writers prefer to take no risks by avoiding imposing their views on the reader. The attitude of the writer is to allow the reader to participate in the discussion of field related issues as in:

[7.67] So accessing to the net could hardly be simpler. (Comp. lit. E-4, cl. 13)

[7.68] Any temperature can be arbitrarily selected by adjustment of the cooling and/or heating power. (Comp. lit. E-8, cl. 5)

This type of value used to express probability can also be found, though with very low frequency, in the context of expectations on the reader's capacity to deal with field related issues as in:

[7.69] Some knowledge of physics would, however, be an advantage. (Comp. lit. E-13, cl. 5)

On the whole, there seems to be a tendency for writers to appear responsible (11%) when referring to the validity of their views, i.e. a more overt writer is seen in the interaction in comparison to letters. This implies that the overall purpose of exchanging information is still partly developed within an interactive atmosphere. In other words, the persuasive goal encourages an overt interaction with the reader.

With regard to modulation, obligation (10%) is more frequently used than inclination (3%). As in letters, this reflects the fact that a relatively prominent space is given to the rules that have to be followed in the technical contexts. However, in contrast to letters, when assigning pressure to follow such rules writers move towards a median and low commitment, though the frequencies of use are low. This suggests that writers soften the pressure on the fulfilment of duties and regulations.

As in the case of probability, writers seem to take responsibility when making their requests or suggestions which is reflected in the infrequent use of objectivised ways of putting pressure on the reader (1%).

With regard to modulated inclination, it appears that writers of this type of text are not particularly inclined to make any promises or offers. And as observed in modulated obligation, writers prefer to express their promises with median and low value, but with overt responsibility. Again this finding can be interpreted as writers overtly allowing the readers to decide whether to accept or refuse the offer. This concern with the freedom of the reader may be judged by the writers as providing an appropriate social environment to attract customers.

7.4.2.2 Company literature in Spanish

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							Subtotal	
		Subjectivity			Objectivity					
		Commitment			Commitment					
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low			
Modalisation	Probability	5% ±5%	4% ±4%	0%	1% ±2%	0%	1% ±1%	11% ±7%	14% ±8%	
	Usuality	2% ±3%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3% ±3%		
Modulation	Obligation	8% ±8%	1% ±1%	7% ±4%	0%	2% ±4%	0%	18% ±10%	20% ±9%	
	Inclination	0%	0%	2% ±2%	0%	0%	0%	2% ±2%		
Subtotal		15% ±13%	5% ±4%	10% ±5%	1% ±2%	2% ±4%	1% ±1%	34% ±15%		

Table 7.5: Mean frequencies of types of modality in company literature in Spanish

In company literature in Spanish, the frequency of use of modal resources seems to be also lower (34%) than in letters (42%)¹² which, as in English, would point towards a more information-oriented interaction. However, this interpretation is not supported by the similar frequencies of use of modalisation (14%) and modulation (20%).

Nevertheless, the tendency towards the use of modulation may indicate that the interaction is likely to develop between discussing the validity of the information and assigning social interactional roles, i.e. demanding and/or providing goods and services. This suggests that the choice of modality in company literature in Spanish is half way between a personalised (as in letters) and an informative interaction (as in catalogues).

¹² It should be noted that the confident limits of both mean frequencies are rather large so that each mean lies in the confidence limit of the other. Thus, following the description given in section 3.4.3.1, it would be not possible to distinguish the means, although the frequencies may indicate a tendency.

As observed in English, one particular feature in the discourse is that modulated inclination resources which express the writer's determination or willingness towards providing goods and services seem less exploited in this text type than in letters. As can be seen, the frequency of modulated inclination (2%) is very low, though cases of modulated inclination may appear combined with probability to raise the company's trustworthiness as described below. The infrequency of modulated inclination resources may be related to the generalised nature of company literature, as opposed to the more individualised or personalised nature of letters.

Modulated resources in the texts are mostly used to convey obligation (18%). They occur in the context of fulfilling regulations and describing the condition which allows the writer or company to provide the product or service being beneficial for the customer. As shown in Table 7.5, modulated obligation is expressed with high (8%) and low commitment (7%), as in:

High obligation

- [7.70] Para el caso de futuras plantas de producción, el interesado deberá solicitar en la etapa de factibilidad a la autoridad ambiental competente. (Comp. lit. S-9, cl. 3)
(In the case of future production plants, the customer will have to request to the current environmental authority during the feasibility stage.)
- [7.71] Nuestra responsabilidad es asesorar a las empresas en el diseño, desarrollo e implementación de los programas. (Comp. lit. S-7, cl. 11)
(Our responsibility is to advice companies on the design, development and implementation of the programmes.)
- [7.72] ... que haya requerido la activación del Plan de Contingencia. (Comp. lit. S-10, cl. 17)
(... that the implementation of the contingency plan has required.)

Low obligation

- [7.73] Los excelentes resultados mostrados nos permiten pensar en un corto plazo en la instalación de nuevas estaciones y talleres en éstas y otras ciudades de Colombia. (Comp. lit. S-5, cl. 17)

(The excellent results shown allow us to think in a short term of the installation of new stations and workshops here and in other cities.)

- [7.74] ... ofreciéndoles algunas recomendaciones importantes. (Comp. lit. S-11, cl. 17)

(... offering some important recommendations.)

This choice between the two extremes of commitment appears to be employed to separate those obligation resources emphasising the ability of the company to cope with field-oriented regulations ([7.70], [7.71] and [7.72]) from those highlighting the benefits for the reader ([7.73] and [7.74]). This distinction strengthens the suggestion made earlier that writers tend to use higher values to enhance the image of the company, and lower values of commitment to express their attitudes towards reader-oriented issues. The choice of modal commitment seems to indicate that the relation fluctuates between a more interactive environment in which the reader is allowed to make his/her own judgement, and a less open negotiation in which the writer is more concerned with building up the company's trustworthiness even in the context of introducing benefits to the customer.

A similar orientation in the interaction is reflected in the pattern of modal commitment used to express probability. As can be seen in Table 7.5, modalised probability is mainly expressed through high and median values of commitment. As in Spanish letters, it looks as if writers in this language tend to choose a high level of certainty when providing information intended to build up the company's trustworthiness in the context of keeping promises ([7.75]) and describing the performance of the company in the business context ([7.76]).

[7.75] La Auditoría Ambiental ... tendrá los siguientes objetivos específicos: ... (Comp. lit. S-10, cl. 10)

(The environmental audit will have the following objectives: ...)

[7.76] ... llevaremos a los gerentes de las empresas del sector a ser gerentes internacionales, con una visión clara de los aspectos. (Comp. lit. S-11, cl. 14)

(... we will change the managers of the local companies into international managers with a clear vision of the aspects.)

In contrast, in those field-related issues concerning expertise within the technical process more space is allowed for the opinion of the reader in the interaction, as in:

[7.77] Las mejores Herramientas y los medios más actualizados para la corrección de los problemas y faltas que pueden presentar sus equipos. (Comp. lit. S-1, cl. 35)

(The best tools and the most updated means to correct problems and failures that your equipment can have.)

[7.78] ... tal como puede ocurrir con la Urea. (Comp. lit. S-2, cl. 25)

(... as can occur in the case of Urea.)

It should be noted that writers appear to accept responsibility when expressing probability and obligation. It could be argued that if the writer projects himself as the source of the message himself/herself, the confidence of the reader in the product/service is raised.

7.4.2.3 Comparison

In company literature in both languages, the lower frequency of use of modal resources compared to letters seems to point to a more information-oriented concern in the interaction. This concern with information is most likely to be related to the standardised and institutionalised nature of the texts as explained earlier. The choice of social interactional roles seems to be more concerned with fulfilling field-related regulations than with expressing determination or willingness towards providing goods and services. As discussed earlier, modulated inclination is associated with the beneficiary role of the

reader. Thus, the infrequency of this type of modal resource may contribute to construing a less interactive nature in the texts.

However, the information-oriented interaction associated with these texts can be distinguished more easily in English than in Spanish. It is likely that in Spanish the interaction develops half way between informing (modalisation) and assigning social interactional roles (modulation), though at the same time, it looks as if the latter tends to be more frequently used as can be seen in Table 7.5.

Within the two main orientations of the interaction, the choice of modality value also seems to point to the differences in the way in which the two interactants relate to each other in each language. As stated earlier, the choice of modal value can construe a self-centred concern, which enhances the image of the company, or a more reader-oriented interaction, which emphasises the beneficiary role of the reader.

It could be argued that, in English, a closer relation with the reader is favoured. The reader is allowed more freedom of judgement through the prominent choice of a median commitment of certainty to express the validity of the information. This also implies that the reader is treated as of equal status in the interaction. On a lower scale, the same tendency can be seen in the preferred choice of low commitment used to express social functions such as exercising pressure to follow regulations or to accept the offers made by the writer.

In contrast, in Spanish, it seems that writers tend to interact half way between adopting a more powerful position and allowing the reader more freedom of action. This half way position can be seen in the social context of emphasising the fulfilment of rules and duties and in the context of providing field-related information. The reader's freedom of

judgement is conveyed in the choice of low pressure assigned by the writers to follow suggestions and accept or the offer as well as in the median degree of certainty to express the writer's opinion with regard to technical processes. As in English, the reader is treated here as having the same status in the interaction. However, a more powerful position could be seen in the salient choices of high commitment in both assigning pressure to fulfil regulations and expressing the validity of the information in the context of keeping promises. In both cases, the choice of this value seems to be related to the expectations of the writers of gaining trust and reliability which strengthen their position within the business context. Perhaps, in the social context in which the Spanish texts are produced, the commitment to ethical issues such as conforming to regulations may be seen as a sign of trustworthiness. As a result, this social strategy would become an effective tool to influence the reader's behaviour.

7.4.3 Catalogues

7.4.3.1 Catalogues in English

In catalogues in English, the overall frequency of use of modal resources (24%) is even lower than in company literature (32%). As observed before, this may be interpreted as a preference to a more information-oriented interaction, as one would expect in this type of text. This interpretation is also supported by the observation that modulation (19%) is significantly more used than modulation (6%). Modulated resources occur less frequently in this text type than in company literature or letters, i.e. social-interactional resources seem not to be favoured in this text type.

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							
		Subjectivity			Objectivity			Subtotal	
		Commitment			Commitment				
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low		
Modalisation	Probability	2% ±2%	10% ±6%	1% ±2%	0%	0%	3% ±4%	17% ±7%	19% ±6%
	Usuality	0%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	2% ±1%	
Modulation	Obligation	2% ±2%	0%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	1% ±2%	5% ±3%	6% ±3%
	Inclination	0%	1% ±1%	1% ±1%	0%	0%	0%	1% ±1%	
Subtotal		5% ±2%	11% ±7%	4% ±2%	0%	0%	4% ±4	24% ±8%	

Table 7.6: Mean frequencies of types of modality in catalogues in English

Similar to the other text types in English, it seems that writers prefer to take no risk by situating their claims mainly at a median level of certainty when expressing the validity of the information. Perhaps, in this way, it is expected that the interaction allows the reader more freedom and the relation becomes less distant; the customer may feel treated as someone who share the same level of knowledge. As can be seen in the examples [7.79] and [7.80], writers describe the potential benefit of the product without imposing their views on the reader. It is the reader who may agree or disagree with the information provided on aspects related to technical processes.

[7.79] ... so can be attached directly to the rotating probe. (Cat. E-3, cl. 22)

[7.80] With full CAD facilities the system can be produced from a rough sketch to full customer supplied drawings. (Cat. E-6, cl. 2)

As stated above, writers of catalogues in English seem not to be particularly concerned with putting pressure on the actions to be performed by others as well as being

themselves determined to fulfil their promises. This can be also observed in the low frequency of modulated obligation (5%) and inclination (1%). These findings may support the more information-oriented interaction suggested above. The few instances, in which the social function of assigning pressure is used, are related to the demands on fulfilling regulations within the technical context.

Within the social functions of fulfilling of field-related regulations, the writer's commitment is signalled in the proposal with high degree of pressure, as in:

[7.81] As an all metal valve, baking to the high temperatures is required to achieve ...
(Cat. E-2, cl. 4)

The choice of high obligation in the fulfilling field-related regulations, as in [7.81], portrays the writer in a more powerful and stronger position in terms of reliability and trust which may be essential to build up customers' confidence. This choice of commitment could also be regarded as projecting a less open negotiation.

In contrast, in the very few instances of revealing their willingness to keep their promises, the writers prefer to choose median value of commitment in order to avoid pressurising the customer to accept their offer. As in the case of median probability explained above, it is likely that the choice of median inclination contributes to developing a closer relationship with the reader.

7.4.3.2 Catalogues in Spanish

Type of modality		Modal commitment and responsibility							Subtotal	
		Subjectivity			Objectivity					
		Commitment			Commitment					
		High	Me- dian	Low	High	Me- dian	Low			
Modalisation	Probability	3% ±5%	4% ±5%	1% ±2%	0%	0%	2% ±3%	11% ±9%	11% ±9%	
	Usuality	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%		
Modulation	Obligation	2% ±2%	0%	3% ±2%	0%	0%	0%	5% ±4%	8% ±6%	
	Inclination	3% ±5%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	3% ±5%		
Subtotal		9% ±5%	4% ±5%	4% ±4%	0%	0%	2% ±3%	19% ±6%		

Table 7.7: Mean frequencies of types of modality in catalogues in Spanish

As in English, the results show that modal resources are less frequently used in Spanish catalogues (19%) than in letters (42%) or company literature (32% - 34%). The infrequent use of the modal resources can be seen as construing a less open negotiation of meanings within the informative nature associated with catalogues. However, as in Spanish company literature, the similar frequency of modalised and modulated resources may suggest that the relation develops half way between exchanging information and assigning social-interactional roles.

The overall pattern of modal commitment related to modalisation and modulation (see subtotals in Table 7.7) indicates that writers prefer a self-focussed to a more reader-oriented interaction. A reader-oriented interaction would be seen in the preferential choice of median and low modal values which conveys the writer's commitment. It

could be argued that this choice contributes to construe a closer relation, since it is more concerned with the beneficiary role of the reader (reader-oriented emphasis). In contrast, a self-centred concern, though it contributes to promotion, could be seen as construing a less open negotiation and distant relation, since it is mainly used to highlight the company's image.

In [7.82] and [7.83], high modalisation is used to stress the capacity of the company to provide good quality products or services.

[7.82] ... quien obtiene a través de IMOCOM S.A., aire seguro, siempre disponible y con los menores costos operativos. (Cat. S-4, cl. 12)

(... who obtain through IMOCOM S.A., air with certainty, always available and at low operating costs.)

[7.83] ... con un 99.99% de eficacia y cuyo medio filtrante es una fibra en corosilicato. (Cat. S-5, cl. 18)

(... with a 99.99% efficacy and whose filter device is a coro-silicate fibre.)

Similarly, high obligation is used to stress company's reliability in the context of following regulations as in:

[7.84] Dada la importancia, no sólo de la cantidad y presión, sino de la calidad del aire, es indispensable realizar un tratamiento al aire comprimido. (Cat. S-5, cl. 1)

(Due to the importance, not only in terms of quantity and precision, but also in terms of the quality of air, it is essential to carry out [a] compressed air treatment.)

[7.85] COMBI: Adecuado para pequeñas empresas, talleres industriales o laboratorios en donde los trabajos de mecanizado o la construcción de prototipos exigen la utilización de torno y fresadora en forma combinada. (Cat. S-3, cl. 7)

(COMBI: suitable for small companies, industrial workshops or laboratories where the work on automation or the construction of prototypes requires the use of ...)

In contrast, median and low modalisation and modulation values are used to express more freedom for the reader to negotiate the validity of the information as in:

[7.86] La señal de pulso puede ser convertida a una salida de voltaje o corriente (Cat. S-1, cl. 25)

(The pulse signal can be converted into a voltage or current output.)

- [7.87] ... que se puedan ajustar a su trabajo y a su presupuesto. (Cat. S-7, cl. 3)
 (... that can be adjusted to your work and budget.)

and to follow suggestions and recommendations as in:

- [7.88] Los invitamos a conocer nuestros productos y sus beneficios. (Cat. S-4, cl. 14)
 (We invite you to get to know our products and their benefits.)

- [7.89] ... que permiten la producción de un amplio rango de roscas métricas, en pulgadas, módulo y diámetro pitch sin necesidad de recambio de engranajes. (Cat. S-3, cl. 16)

(... that allow the production of a wide range of metric threads without being necessary to change the gearbox.)

As can be seen in Table 7.7, modalised usuality is not found in Spanish catalogues and objectivised responsibility (2%) is rarely used. If objectivised values occur, they are expressed with low commitment only. Similar findings are also observed in the previous text types. Thus, the absence of usuality and the infrequency of objectivised responsibility may be a common feature of the discourse of promotion across subgenres in both languages.

7.4.3.3 Comparison

In catalogues in both languages, modal resources appear even less exploited than in company literature. It is likely that the information-oriented purpose that we expect catalogues to serve constrains the deployment of this type of interpersonal meanings.

However, the choice of modal resources seems to support the orientation towards the exchange of information more straightforwardly in English than in Spanish. In English, writers exploit clearly more modalised (informative) than modulated (social-interactional) resources. Due to the rather large confidence limits, in Spanish, a frequency difference in the use of modulated and modalised resources cannot be resolved, although modalised resources seem to be more frequently used in the

interaction. Probably, this indicates that the interaction in Spanish unfolds half way between informing (modalisation) and assigning social-interactional roles (modulation). Social roles conveyed through modulated resources in the texts are typically related to the fulfilment of regulations and the ability of the company to comply with the demands of the business context, as illustrated with the examples above. It is likely that in the wider social context in which the texts are produced, the deployment of such interactional resources is seen as an effective tool to influence the behaviour of the reader.

Similarly, the choice of modal values seems to support an open relation between the two interactants more in English than in Spanish. The prominent choice of median and low modal values in English suggests that the reader is allowed more freedom to judge the validity of the information and to follow the demands and offers made by the writer. This implies that the reader is treated as having an equal status in the relation. However, the same distinction in Spanish cannot be straightforwardly made, since high value (9%) on one side and median and low value together (8%) on the other side occur with a similar frequency of use (see subtotals in Table 7.7). As stated above, high values tend to occur in the context of fulfilling regulations and highlighting the ability of the company to comply with the demands of the business context. It is likely that writers use those values to build up the company's trustworthiness and reliability and to strengthen the competitiveness of the company in the business world. In this sense, the writer is less open to the negotiation of those meanings.

The emphasis on an information-oriented interaction observed in English is also seen in the choice of modal responsibility. Although objectivised ways are infrequent across

texts types, they seem to be slightly more often used in English catalogues than in Spanish.

7.5 Conclusion

Table 7.8 gives an overview of the main findings presented so far, as a basis for highlighting the main similarities and differences that have emerged.

		Modalisation		Modulation	
		Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
Spanish	Letters	25% ±5%	2% ±2%	7% ±3%	8% ±3%
	Company literature	11% ±7%	3% ±3%	18% ±10%	2% ±2%
	Catalogues	11% ±9%	0%	5% ±4%	3% ±5%
English	Letters	16% ±4%	1% ±1%	14% ±4%	11% ±3%
	Company literature	19% ±6%	1% ±2%	10% ±4%	3% ±3%
	Catalogues	17% ±7%	2% ±1%	5% ±3%	1% ±1%

Table 7.8: Mean frequencies of types of modality in Spanish and English

At a very broad level, in both languages, the similarities in the discourse of promotion as a whole can be seen through the choice of modal commitment and modal responsibility. These common features seem to be related to both the pragmatic goal of the texts and the status of expertise associated with the interactants. For instance, in the type of promotional texts studied here, whose main purpose is to persuade the reader to buy products and services offered by the writer, low probability is expected to be rare. The absence of this modal value may imply that writers try to avoid sounding unsure when

referring to their expertise in describing the nature of the product or other field related issues that may arise during the interaction. Similarly, in persuading the customer to accept the offers and/or follow the suggestions, recommendations and demands writers may prefer to appear committed with median and low degree of pressure. Through the choice of these modal values, this social strategy may be seen as more effective to influence the behaviour of the reader.

However, the analysis of modality seems also to point to differences in the discourse of promotion in the two languages. It seems that writers in Spanish promotional texts exploit social-interactional resources more than in English. The tendency towards developing a more socially-oriented interaction in Spanish is seen particularly in the use of the social function of obligation in the context of fulfilling regulations as well as in those actions in which the reader is invited, persuaded or recommended to do something.

Another interesting feature which shows differences in the discourse of promotion concerns the choice of modal values to express modulation and modalisation. In English, within the exchange of information, the writer typically prefers a median value of certainty. Similarly, in modulated inclination, trustworthiness is projected by assigning a median degree of pressure to the fulfilment of regulations and the demands on others in the forms of suggestion, recommendation and permission. As stated above, the choice of those values may imply the development of a less distant relation by assuming the same status for both interactants. Thus, more freedom of judgement is allowed for the reader in the interaction.

In contrast, in Spanish, writers seem to employ both high and median commitment with relatively similar frequencies. High values occur in the context of providing information and fulfilling regulations. They seem to support the company's expertise and

trustworthiness, thus construing a more self-oriented concern and less open negotiation. Median and low values are used in the same context as in English and support a reader-oriented interaction.

The reasons for the differences in the choice of modal commitment may not be related to contextual factors such as the type of audience and the overall pragmatic goal of persuading, but may be found in the socio-economic and cultural background in which the texts are produced. The English texts are written within the competitive industrialised environment in the United Kingdom, in which taking the reader's status into account during the exchange of information seems to be an effective strategy. In contrast, in Spanish, the orientation towards highlighting the company's trustworthiness and reliability may be motivated by a family business-oriented environment in the Colombian Caribbean context. Certainly, a deeper understanding of the socio-economic environment is required in order to reach a satisfactory conclusion on the relationship between the linguistic findings and the wider social context.

On the other hand, as stated above, the analysis also provides us with discourse features which allow us to compare the discourse of promotion across text types in both languages. It seems that the differences and similarities conveyed through such features are encouraged by the rather informative or individualised nature associated with each text type.

Letters, for instance, have the highest level of frequency of modal meanings across text types in both languages. This difference is wider between letters and catalogues than between letters and company literature. It could be argued that the more individualised nature associated with letters encourages the choice of expressions which allows the two interactants to negotiate meaning more overtly and dynamically. Similarly, putting

pressure on the fulfilment of socio-interactional functions is much more common in letters than in other text types. In particular, the pressure assigned to the fulfilment of promises or offers is relatively high in letters, but very low in company literature and catalogues in both languages. This also means that the individualised nature of letters allows us to see the negotiation between the interactants in more personal-oriented terms, whereas in company literature and catalogues the negotiation of meanings seems to be more related to the exchange of information and the fulfilment of regulations within the technical field.

8 Linking findings: the choice of orientation in the interaction

This section discusses how the method of analysis of interpersonal meanings help to show the main features of either a more information or a more socio-functional-oriented interaction constructed through writers' choices of language. It also discusses in which ways writers tend to position themselves in higher or equal status within the relation and, to a certain extent, it attempts to describe whether it is possible to infer the degree of closeness or distance with which the writer relates to the reader.

Some explanations for both the choice of orientation and the type of relation favoured during the interaction are explored. The discussion unfolds in a sequence of steps in which the distinctive discourse features yielded from the analysis of the above areas are grouped into those which are common to all texts in both languages, those which are common in all texts in one language, and those which are more typical of one specific text type as opposed to the others in both languages.

8.1 The discourse of promotion as a whole

8.1.1 Informative vs. interactive orientation

Bringing together findings from the study of the various ways in which interactants can relate to each other, namely the analysis of modality, evaluation, speech function and reference has led to confirming the overall tendencies of writers across text types to favour a similar type of interaction revealed in the individual analysis of each of the above aspects. Such findings may have implications for the genre of promotion as a whole in the sense that they may be distinctive features of promotional texts as opposed to other genres, e.g. recipes and manuals, or even to other persuasive genres such as

sermons, electoral speeches, legal arguments or essays. However, the purpose of this overall framing is not to highlight the similarities and differences of the promotional texts with other genres. Instead, it is intended to be used as the basic landscape of discourse features of the genre upon which distinctive subgeneric markers of each text type, namely letters, company literature and catalogues, as opposed to the others can be contrasted.

At a general level, in both languages, there is a tendency towards a more information-oriented interaction in the texts. This is constructed by a predominant choice of statements which indicates that the persuasion, which is an inherent feature of the discourse of promotion, is meant to be achieved through a high input of propositional content. In various ways this orientation is also seen at an overall level in the prominent absence of more interactive discourse features. It can be seen in an infrequency of affect values and direct offers, in a rare use of commands and in the infrequent use of indirect offers 2a in which the reader is directly mentioned as the potential actor of the beneficiary role. The preoccupation with emphasizing the performance and usefulness of the products leads to a relatively weak level of visibility of both interactants: their presence is typically perceived through indirect or implicit ways.

This concern with keeping a rather informative tone during the interaction may be related to the fact that persuasion takes place with a specialised audience. It seems that in order to persuade the target audience it is essential to provide a knowledge-based background, which allows the audience to identify the relevance of the product within the technical field. This claim can be supported by the fact that all texts are exchanged among technical managers who have to promote their company's products to other companies in the same field or field related areas. It can also be supported by the fact

that even in letters, which are thought to be the most interactive text type, the exchange of information has an important place in the interaction. Statements and offers are used with the same frequency in both languages.

Overall, it seems that the persuasive nature of the texts is based on the exchange of information through which writers elaborate on the qualities of the product which distinguish it from competitors. Perhaps, in trying to influence the behaviour of others, writers might be expected to relate to the reader through more social interactional functions such as demands or suggestions as well as providing goods and services, to include more explicit reference to interactants and to state openly or explicitly the demand, suggestion or offer. In any case, those expectations are not supported by the data.

However, the persuasive nature of the texts may encourage the choice or presence of interactive resources within the propositional content. The findings from the various categories used to look at interpersonal relationships revealed that most of the apparent preoccupation with information is carried out through ways which may realise purposes other than the exchange of information itself. That is, in most cases the propositional content is intended to be interpreted as providing goods and services, though with various degrees of explicitness.

Most of the propositional content is rather being presented in a cline ranging from the less visible ways of assigning the reader the beneficiary role to the more visible ones in which both interactants are more openly seen as performing a social functional role in the relation. Table 8.1 illustrates the lexico-grammatical features which represent the cline of propositions ranging from the most informative content to the most interactive one.

Orientation	Lexico-grammatical features
Informative	No reference to interactants No reference to beneficiary role Declarative mood choices No modality No inscribed evaluation
Informative evaluative	Evoked evaluation Modal probability Self-reference Inscribed evaluation
Interactive	Indirect mood choices (indirect offers and commands) Indirect reference to both interactants Indirect reference to the beneficiary role
Highly interactive	Direct reference to interactants Direct mood choices (direct offers and commands) Modulation Inscribed evaluation

Table 8.1: Cline of the informative-interactive orientation

It should be noted here that these are merely idealised points on the cline, and that it is possible for any individual text to have a mixture of features from different points on the cline. It is also worth pointing out that the cline is cumulative rather than exclusive: that is, as we go along the cline texts will have choices from the previous stages in addition to the choices that mark them as 'interactive'. A text that is highly interactive may well have probability, modality and indirect reference to the interactants, but it will also have modulation and direct reference.

As stated above, in most cases there seems to be no clear cut for the propositions to be more inclined towards one or the other end of the informative interactive continuum. As stated above, the provision of information may have less visible purposes. Propositions realising pure informative purpose as in 'the moon is the satellite of the earth' or 'it is probable that there is life on other planets' in a geography class is hardly seen in the

context of promotion. While in the geography classroom the main purpose is to pass on new information, in the context of promotion the purpose goes beyond the exchange of information. The informative content is intended to be seen as evaluative.

In both languages, even the seemingly most information-oriented clause carries traces of the writer's intention to evoke positive evaluation as in:

[8.1] In January 1997, we announced the start of our partnership with Alcatel Vacuum Technology as their distributor for the North of England ... (Letter E-21, cl. 1)

[8.2] D.F.I. de Colombia S.A. empresa fundada el 7 de diciembre de 1991 con el proposito de ... (Letter S-12, cl. 6)

(DFI of Colombia Ltd., a company founded on the 7th of December 1991 with the purpose of...)

In [8.1] and [8.2], it could be argued that the writer is trying to create the appropriate environment by providing references of the company the reader would like to know. In [8.1], reference to the partnership with a well-reputed company within the field (Alcatel) may be used to enhance reliability and trustworthiness of the company. Similarly, in the second one, the historical account of the development of the company may be intended by the writer to raise the same feelings. The evocation of such positive feelings in the reader is probably intended to influence his/her decisions to choose the products or services being offered.

The evocation of feeling is triggered by both the background knowledge shared by both interactants on product/field-related issues and the actual contextual needs of the customer. Through the evocation of feelings regarding the efficiency of both the company and the product the reader is brought more actively into the interaction than in those more information-oriented propositions that can be typical of contexts such as the geography class as described above. It is the reader who can ultimately assess the relevance of the product for his/her particular needs.

It is likely that through the evocation of positive feelings the beneficiary role for the reader is sensed, thus bringing a touch of social orientation into the interaction. The description of the nature and physical properties of the product may be understood as beneficial in the appropriate context of use. However, since most types of evoked evaluation found in the texts emphasise the performance and physical properties or nature of the product/service (SSO) the interaction in the texts can be seen as essentially more informative.

Within the informative content, the first attempt towards a more interactive orientation can be seen in the evocation of positive feelings regarding the efficiency of the company reflected in the choice of NORS. This choice is typically associated with judgement capacity, which intends to highlight the trustworthiness of the company. Since the wording in those propositions includes the writer in the form of 'we' or 'the company' as a personalised entity, this may be interpreted as the first step within a more social functional interaction. However, the personal or social concern here is self-focussed and the reader appears not to be involved. As in the case of SSO, the reader is not either openly or implicitly brought into the interaction as in NORS. For this reason, these propositions cannot yet be regarded as strong indicators of interactive-socially-oriented interaction.

The move towards a more socially-oriented interaction can be seen in various other ways of involving the reader with various degrees of visibility. This point on the cline is mostly conveyed within a propositional content, but the wording includes more socially-oriented features than in those propositions classified as evaluative informative ones. This can be seen in various ways through the study of interpersonal relations. The most salient evidence of more socially-oriented propositions within the relation can be seen in

the choice of offers, specially those indirect ways of promoting the product/service which seem to be significant across text types in both languages. Similarly, the more social-interactive concern can also be supported by the constant use of values appraising the worthiness of the product in more socially-oriented terms throughout the texts. Through appreciation-valuation the reader is seen as the actual or potential beneficiary of the product. It is assumed that values related to, e.g. availability, cost-effectiveness or convenience of the product are socially perceived as beneficial.

The interactive concern can also be seen in the choice of modal responsibility. The writer appears to assume responsibility for what he/she says. Objectivised expressions of modality are infrequent and may take place in the context of stating rules that have to be followed within the technical process. Similarly, the tendency towards an interactive relation is also supported by the infrequent use of a third person to refer to the reader.

8.1.2 The type of relation: equal status in the relation

The analysis also yielded important insights into the type of relation developed in the texts. In both languages, within the cline from the informative towards a more interactive or socio-functional orientation in all texts, writers seem to favour a relation in which both the interactants share the same status in the relation. This may allow the writer to project the reader as having more freedom to agree or disagree with the proposition and to accept or reject the proposal during the relation. The findings from the study of interpersonal meanings support the above interpretation in various ways. It is supported by the frequent use of evoked values which, as said before, implies shared knowledge of the interactants regarding the product/field related issues. Another strong support for this interpretation can be seen in the higher frequency of use of median

commitment to express determination and/or willingness to fulfil their promises as well as to follow demands in the shape of suggestions recommendations and asking for permission. Through this choice of modal commitment, writers and readers are projected as having freedom of judgement. Similarly, the choice of indirect commands over direct commands can also be regarded as an indicator of this type of relation. Indirect commands may reduce the pressure on the fulfilment of rules that have to be followed within the technical process.

This tendency to favour an equal status in the relation across text types in both languages may be related to the type of specialised audience. Equal status facilitates freedom of judgement, thus allowing the reader to participate in the interaction.

8.2 Subgeneric distinction across text types

8.2.1 Sales letters

As one would expect, letters appear to be the most interactive text type. Thus, it is not surprising that letters, for instance, have the highest frequency of use of personalised reference to the reader and the writer. However, the interactive nature can also be seen in many other ways in the analysis. Highly interactive values associated with social esteem, social sanction and affect are mostly used in this type of text. Such values involve the presence of the reader or the writer or both at the same time. Values related to social esteem typically highlight the capacity of the writer as an individual or group to deal with the needs of the customer, and values concerning social sanction typically stress the trustworthiness of the writer/company as well as involving the reader as the recipient of the beneficiary process in the interaction. Though a at a lower level of frequency of use, affect values are also regarded as indicators of the high involvement of the writer within

the relation in this text type as opposed to others in which the same type of values hardly occurs or does not occur at all.

In terms of appraisal, the interactive orientation goes beyond values judging the behaviour/attitude of the writer or company in dealing with the customer needs. The same interactive concern is revealed in the choice of values expressing the worthiness of the offer (product or service) in social or reader-oriented terms. Here, the reader is brought into the relation with various degrees of visibility. This set of values under the category appreciation-valuation occurs more frequently in letters than in the other text types, where the choice of rather information-oriented values related to the performance and composition or physical properties of the product or service is often made.

Similarly, the interactive nature of letters can also be seen in the balance between informing and offering. Such a balance seems not to be present in other text types in either language. Despite the overall tendency to interact with the reader through high propositional content observed across all promotional texts studied, it is likely that the individualised nature associated with letters encourages the balance between informative content and socially-oriented functions in this text type. It is also important to note that letters are the only text type in which the reader is explicitly seen as the actor of the potential beneficiary process. He or she is directly addressed to as the potential recipient of the offer as previously described in the choice of indirect offers 2a.

Finally, the highly interactive nature of letters is supported by the higher use of modal meanings in this text type than in the others. This means that more space for negotiation between the reader and writer is provided. The individualised nature of letters seems to encourage the choice of the social-interactional functions of inclination and obligation in the negotiation.

8.2.2 Company literature

In general terms, company literature texts may be seen as halfway between letters and catalogues. In this case, it seems that the relation tends to favour the choice of information-oriented language resources as in catalogues; but, at the same time, company literature allows for more space for interactive features than in catalogues, though with less frequency of use than in letters.

At a general level, the difference between the frequency of informative and interactive language resources is larger in catalogues than in company literature. The use of personalised reference to the writer, which is higher here than in catalogues, can be seen as a move towards an interactive relation. Similarly, the interactive resources implicitly or explicitly expressing the reader as the beneficiary of the offer seem to be more frequent in this text type than in catalogues, though less than in letters.

As in catalogues, the informative concern is also seen in the predominant choice of values related to the performance and composition or physical properties of the product or service offered. However, a more interactive concern is seen in the choice of social esteem values related to the capacity of the company to deal with customer needs and which seems to be higher in this text type than in catalogues. Though the orientation here is rather self-centred, this particular choice of resources can also be interpreted as a step into a more social interactive relation. Affect values, which could be regarded as a characteristic of a more interactive relation and which seem to be more frequent in letters, are nevertheless given slightly more space in company literature than in catalogues.

8.2.3 Catalogues

In contrast to letters, catalogues are the most information-oriented type of promotional texts studied here. This informative content is supported in many ways. As one might expect, less personalised reference to the writer and the reader is seen here than in the other text types. However, it could be said that the most significant evidence of the information-oriented concern can be seen in the salient choice of evaluative statements that support the offer, where the main purpose is to provide details regarding the nature of the product which in the appropriate context can be seen as useful to meet the customer needs, without indicating in the wording weak or strong involvement of the reader as beneficiary. Within this propositional content, the choice of appraisal resources also supports the more information-oriented tendency. Those values are related to the performance and composition of the product or service and are much more frequently seen than those expressed in social/reader-oriented terms. The evaluation depends, in most cases, on the knowledge shared by the two interactants and is expected to be perceived as positive in the appropriate context of use. Performance and composition values are much more common in this text type than in the other two. Perhaps, for this reason, more interactive or socially-oriented values related to affect and judgement of social esteem and sanction are very rarely used.

It seems that the emphasis on information in this type of text encourages the choice of implicit reference to interactants. As stated above, direct reference to the reader or writer is not common in this type of text. Similarly, in those cases where the product is meant to be seen as beneficial for the customer, the reader is only seen as the potential beneficiary who appears to be implicitly referred to in the process as in the case of indirect offer 2b. Though, in general terms, the frequency of use of this type of offer is

rather low, it nevertheless seems to occur more frequently here than in any other text types.

Finally, the information-oriented nature of the interaction is also reflected in the low frequency of use of modal resources. This suggests that the negotiation of meanings is less open, which implies a distant relation.

8.3 The discourse of promotion in each language

Besides the similarities in both languages, the method used in the analysis of interpersonal relationships also revealed potential markers that can be interpreted as establishing differences in the discourse of promotion in each language. It seems that in some ways in Spanish, the interaction tends to allow more space for language choices which convey more socio-functional meanings, whereas in English the choice seems to be more inclined towards informative content.

In Spanish, the socio-functional orientation can be seen mostly in the higher choice of language resources used to express modality than in English. In particular, the socio-function of obligation in the context of fulfilling regulations and persuading or inviting the reader in the context of offering. In contrast, in English, the choice of modal meanings is rather related to the validity of the information.

Another discourse feature that can be seen as a potentially distinctive marker between the two languages is related to the orientation of the information. In Spanish, the informative content seems to be more self-centred as the high frequency of NORS shows. As said before, this type of statement is related to the evocation of positive feelings regarding the efficiency of the company. In Spanish, self-orientation in the

interaction is also supported by the tendency to exploit capacity values rather than propriety values in all text types.

In contrast, in English, the informative content is rather product-related as can be seen in the higher choice of SSO. However, in this type of informative content, the writer is concerned with providing information on the nature of the product whose relevance can be assessed by the expert in the appropriate context. Thus, the interaction is implicitly oriented towards the reader who through the evocation of feelings can take part in the negotiation. In this respect, the interaction turns out to be more reader-oriented in English than in Spanish. The beneficiary role assigned to the reader is more clearly perceived in English than in Spanish.

Similarly, the above distinction can also have implications for the type of relation established in each language. Despite the apparent inclination to use more interactive resources in Spanish, it seems that writers in this language prefer to keep a more distant relation with the reader. This can be seen in the choice of high commitment to express both expertise and fulfilment of regulations, which indicates that the writer tends to impose her/his viewpoint on the reader. Conversely, in English, the interactants in the relation seem to have equal status, as can be seen in the choice of median values to express modality.

The distant relation in Spanish may be also construed in the preferred choice of indirect commands. In English, the reverse is true. Probably, the writer feels at ease with the reader by expressing the command more openly. Similarly, the preference for a closer relation in English can be seen in the choice of individual writer involvement. In Spanish, this type of reference to the writer is rarely used in the interaction.

8.4 Differences in the same text type between the two languages

8.4.1 Sales letters

Within the interactive nature, writers of letters in Spanish seem to favour both self-centred and a reader-focussed interaction, whereas in English, the interaction seems to be basically reader-oriented. This is reflected in the choice of appraisal resources related to social esteem and social sanction. Such values involve the presence of the reader or the writer or both at the same time. Values related to social esteem typically highlight the capacity of the writer as an individual or group to deal with the needs of the customer, and values concerning social sanction typically stress the capacity of the company to deal with the demands within the business world. In Spanish, both types of values are used with a similar frequency of use, whereas in English propriety values (concerning social sanction) are much more frequent than those related to capacity. The self-centred concern observed in letters in Spanish is also seen in the choice of use of representative and oblique reference to the writer whose frequency of use appears to be higher in this language than in English.

Another interactive feature which may be used to distinguish the discourse of promotion in letters is related to the open reference to both interactants in the offer. Direct offers seem to be used more in Spanish than in English letters. Probably, this means that the writers want to keep a closer relation with the reader. However, it may also be possible that it is, or at least partly, due to differences in the language system. In Spanish, there are more pronominal choices to refer to the interactants than the English. Thus, the probability of both interactants being directly involved in the interaction is much higher in Spanish than in English.

8.4.2 Company literature

Despite the overall tendency towards a more informative interaction in both languages, there still seems to be space for interactive features, though less in Spanish than in English. In Spanish, the choice of rather interactive features appears to be more self-focussed, whereas in English it seems to be more reader-oriented. In Spanish, the interactive orientation is weakly sensed in the choice of judgement values intended to highlight the efficiency of the company. This is also supported by the higher use of representative and oblique reference to the writer and the company. Conversely, the shift in company literature in English is towards stressing the value of the product expressed in social or reader-oriented terms. The reader orientation is also seen in the frequent use of language resources expressing the offer with various degrees of reader involvement (mainly through implicit reference to the reader).

Another subtle distinction between the English and Spanish texts can be found in the type of relation that writers seem to choose to interact with the reader. It is plausible to argue that writers in English want to establish a closer relationship with the reader by expressing affect values in the relation. In Spanish, affect values are not seen at all.

8.4.3 Catalogues

Though catalogues in Spanish are also information-oriented, to a certain extent, they seem to exploit more interactive features than in English. As in the other text types, the difference between the frequencies of use of appreciation and judgement is larger in English than in Spanish. Judgement values are more frequently used in Spanish. As stated before, the salient choice of values related to the efficiency of the company

through the use of representative and oblique reference to the writer can be seen as a step into a more interactive relation.

In English, the less personalised or interactive concern is also reflected in the preferred choice of oblique reference to the writer. The choice of a depersonalised reference when highlighting the efficiency of the company may construe a more distant relation between the interactants.

9 Conclusion and pedagogical implications

The study of social interaction in the discourse of promotion across text types (subgenres) in English and Spanish from a socio-functional grammar perspective has shed some light on the question of whether writers of two languages and different cultural backgrounds, having similar purposes and audience develop similar interpersonal meanings through similar language choices to interact with the reader. The differences in the discourse conventions that have developed to fulfil communicative purposes across subgenres in each language have also been identified.

Although the analysis mainly focussed on the variant patterns of the grammar of interpersonal meanings used in the discourse of promotion in the three subgenres in the two languages, the study has briefly explored a handful of contextual factors which we may need to invoke in order to explain the linguistic differences and similarities found in the analyses (and which are, of course evoked and constructed by those choices). In doing so, it has been assumed that the exploration of the relationship between the writer's choices of interpersonal meanings and contextual factors may provide useful insights which may be crucial to the understanding of the role of the genre of promotion in the two given cultural settings.

It has been argued here that the similarities and differences in the choice of interpersonal meanings across text types or subgenres in the two languages and cultures may be seen as the result of the overall contextual factors such as the purpose and the audience, generic constraints across text types or subgenres and socio-economic and cultural dimensions. At a very detailed level, some differences may be seen as the result of the

nature of the system of each language. The extent to which each of those factors is responsible for the similarities and difference may vary.

Through the functional approach to the analysis of the lexico-grammar, it has been shown how writers' choices or strategies construct a more informative or a more social functional interaction to maintain a close or distant relation. At an overall level of the analysis, it has been demonstrated that writers of promotional texts in English and Spanish tend to develop the same type of interpersonal meanings through similar language resources despite the constraints posed by the nature of each text type or subgenre, as well as cross language and cross cultural factors. The overall aim to convince customers to buy the product and the type of audience to which the texts are addressed seem to be strong key factors for the overall tendency in the choice of interpersonal meanings in both languages. Such findings may have implications for the promotion as a whole and for each subgenre.

However, at a more detailed level of the analysis there seem to be slight differences not only in the discourse of promotion as whole, but also across each text type between the two languages. One plausible explanation of these differences in the choice of language resources is that they reflect society, since such differences may be the result of socio-economic values present in each culture. In Spanish texts, the choice of a self-focussed orientation, which may lead to a more distant relation, may be encouraged by the type of values that society itself mostly welcomes. Within the socio-cultural environment in which the Spanish texts are used, it appears that it is important to express values related to the efficiency and/or the trustworthiness of the offer. In English, the society might prefer the choice of a more reader-oriented concern. A similar conclusion was drawn from the analysis of academic writing in English by Anglo-American and Spanish

speakers (Valero-Garcés 1996). According to Valero-Garcés, the Anglo American texts reflect a more reader-oriented attitude, whereas the texts written by Spanish Speakers put a great emphasis on propositional content.

It seems that the two language systems may be found less responsible for the differences. Interpersonal meanings are mostly expressed through relatively similar lexico-grammatical choices. This may be due to the fact that English and Spanish are two European languages. That is, they may share similar features in their systems, as a result of historical fusion of cultures. However, the most salient differences in the choice of lexico-grammatical resources can be seen in the wider scope of pronominal resources in Spanish than in English, which may certainly increase the frequency of use of direct offers in Spanish. This is because writers in Spanish can have access to a wider range of languages choices to involve the reader directly in the interaction than in English. Similarly, modality in Spanish is expressed in some cases through different language choices. This is the case of future modal in English and the use of future and conditional tenses used in Spanish to express degrees of non-assertiveness. However, the overall modal meaning is preserved.

On the whole, the comparative analysis of interpersonal meanings allowed us to identify discourse patterns in the interaction between reader and writer in the two languages. Although the overall pattern suggests that writers in both languages and cultures resort to similar interpersonal meanings, the differences found seem to be mostly the result of inherent values in each culture, at least values encouraged by the socio economic development of each cultural setting.

It is believed that the comparative component of this study and the attempt to relate contextual factors with the language choices have made some contributions to the

development of our understanding of the interdependency between language and society. In this way, the findings obtain from this study will certainly have implications for the teaching of business English in the given social cultural setting. They will help raise awareness of how the choice of language is not only dictated by the contextual factors such as audience, generic constraints and the pragmatic purpose of the genre itself, nor the result of differences in the language system. After all, no matter how a concept is universally used, the way of expressing it is also subject to values inherent in the culture. This seems also applicable to the universal activity of promoting good and services.

Pedagogical implications

The question of how to access the foreign culture through language has always been paramount, in particular in business settings. It has been widely acknowledged that cross-cultural miscommunication very often becomes a serious issue for the management of the company, to the point that companies talk about 'cultural risk management'. Claes (1995) maintains that

The international business world, in particular, has found that knowledge of the language does not stop miscommunication from happening. The difficulties are not only related to the language itself, but also to the underlying behavioural patterns, the frames and reference. (Claes, 1995: 100)

Many scholars find the source of the problem in the lack of cultural awareness and integration of language resources and cultural values in the teaching of a foreign language. It is often implied that culture is dealt with as an appendix of the language programme, since language programmes typically consist of teaching the four skills plus culture. Kramsch (1993) provides an explanation for this lack of integration. She argues this is because

culture is often seen as mere information conveyed by the language itself; cultural awareness becomes an educational objective in itself, separate from

language. If however, language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. (Kramsch, 1993: 8)

The division between language and culture in the teaching of a foreign language seems to be the result of various factors. In the first place, research in cultural differences through language is a relatively new area. Despite the useful and important contributions from several cross cultural studies carried out in various languages, the results are not yet sufficiently secure as to make general claims on the interdependency between language and society. Secondly, it has been acknowledged (Kramsch, 1993) that supporters of a more integrated syllabus may still face several questions regarding the implementation of a more cross cultural environment in the foreign language classroom. That is, it is questioned whether it is possible to teach a 'foreign way of viewing the world via an educational culture which is itself the product of native conceptions and values' in the artificial and standardised environment of a classroom. If so, 'how much of those cultural meanings should be taught, how many can be understood implicitly'. Finally, and above all, whether it is possible to develop not only the 'cultural component learner', but also the 'cultural personality' (p 177).

As we all know, there is no such a thing as one world market and there is not yet such a thing as universal culture, even if coca-cola is drunk and McDonalds spread all over the world. Scholars agree that in view of the importance of international communication, awareness of the cultural basis of discourse structures and the variant patterns should be raised in the ESP classroom (Valero-Garcés 1996; Clyne 1987). This entails awareness raising of the established conventions, facts, intentions and values that represent a given culture and which are conveyed through its language. As Nostrand (1989) observes, the foreign learner should be prepared not only to encounter customs and properties of the foreign culture, but above all, 'its grounds of meanings: its systems of values, habitual

patterns of thoughts and certain prevailing assumptions about human nature and society' (p 51).

However, in order to develop a more integrated cultural syllabus, it is necessary first to identify the cultural differences revealed in the language. Cultural differences in the way students of a second language write in the new language have been investigated under the name of 'contrastive rhetoric'. As mentioned in chapter 2, a number of studies on cultural differences are available (Kaplan, 1966, 1987; Clyne, 1987, 1991; Soter, 1988; Mauranen, 1993; Williams, 1994; Valero-Garcés, 1996; to name a few).

Studies of academic texts in English written by English native speakers and native speakers of Spanish (Orellana, 1986; Williams, 1994; Valero-Garcés, 1996), revealed that the Anglo-American writers use more metatext¹³ than the Spanish ones. Texts written by Spanish speakers tend to be longer. In Spanish, the reader is given more freedom, whereas in English s/he is guided to the end. Valero-Garcés (1996) argues that:

Even if transfer is taking place, these features are not always due to the lexico-grammatical difficulties; they cannot be explained as being due to the language system rules, but rather to cultural differences. (Valero-Garcés, 1996: 282)

Although the study carried out here differs from the above mentioned ones in the sense that the cross-cultural analysis does not involve the non-native speaker's writing, it provides useful insights that can be incorporated in the teaching of business writing to both the native and the non-native speakers of both languages. Both native and non-native learners should be aware of the similarities and differences indicated through the analysis of the interpersonal meanings encoded in the patterns of lexico-grammatical choices of each language. I believe that in the cross-culture awareness agenda it is not

¹³ As stated in chapter 2, the concept of metatext is a broad one. It includes a wide variety of resources, e.g. paragraph length, connectors and the choice of rhetorical strategies.

only crucial to raise awareness of the differences, but also the similarities we share with others. After all, the concept of promotion is a universal one and therefore it is not surprising that at very broad level writers of both languages tend to resort to similar choices. However, it has also been argued that 'culture is even present in those linguistic areas where a universal character is generally assumed' (Valero-Garcés, 1996: 281). Hence, it is not surprising that at a more detailed level subtle differences in the choice of interpersonal meanings are found in the context of promotions as explained above. Such differences may turn out to be worth looking at in the foreign language classroom.

In this way, in the study of interaction through a functional grammar perspective, culture becomes 'the core' of the language-teaching syllabus. The applicability of functional grammar in the teaching of a foreign language has been widely recognised. Some specific areas such as cohesion, modality and theme choice have been adopted for practical use in the classroom (Thompson, 1996). However, in the functional grammar approach language is seen as a system of choices which is only meaningful in the context of use. This means that the application of this approach in the classroom should go beyond the teaching of the jargon related to the three metafunctions. Since in any context there are a number of meanings that a speaker might express and a number of wordings that they may use to express them (Thompson 1996), the effective use of this approach in the classroom will not only imply the identification of the lexico-grammatical features, but also the way such features function, in combination, to express a particular meaning in a particular context of use.

The teaching of grammar has always been seen as a solid foundation in the process of acquiring a language. However, throughout the history of teaching a foreign language, the question of how to deal with grammatical points in the classroom has been resolved

through various approaches depending on how language is viewed. Still dealing with grammar lessons seems to be unsatisfactory for many learners and teachers, who after various trials of drills find they do not achieve the right language to function appropriately in a given context of use. This seems to be the particular case of foreign language learners functioning in a specific professional setting. Certainly, the learning of a foreign language may not be only limited to the mastery of the most appropriate grammatical conventions for a particular context of use.

Most current text books claim to be pro communicative and by saying so they frequently imply that traditional ways of teaching grammar are out of fashion, despite the fact that the content of the syllabus is still based on a large input of grammatical points introduced to the learner in the same traditional way. This is certainly the case of many textbooks with a wide acceptance within Latin American teaching markets. Even the specialised text books, e.g. business English textbooks, or specialised manuals for the teaching of business letters, are in most cases designed to focus on formulaic language without raising awareness of cultural values encoded in the various lexico-grammatical choices.

From the systemic perspective, culture is inherent in the lexico-grammar we use to communicate with others. As Halliday (1990) has pointed out grammar is a theory of human experience and text is the linguistic form of social interaction. In the light of the above theoretical underpinning, I would like to argue that the findings of this comparative study from a socio-functional perspective would be useful to develop a more integrated language and cultural syllabus. They can be used to facilitate not only the learning of lexico-grammatical choices and their meanings made by writers to persuade customers, but also what is meant by the tendency of a particular configuration

or clustering of meanings in the context of promoting goods and services in each language. A comparative approach of this type would allow the non-native business learner of English or Spanish of the given cultures to understand the way they relate to others as well as get to know how others relate to others; in other words, to become aware of their own values in order to be able to assess the similarities and differences in the values of the culture of others.

One way to implement this approach would be through the use of cross-linguistic corpora (Thompson, 2001b) of business genres in the classroom. The advantage of using parallel corpora is that the learner can intuitively 'discover and formulate facts' (p 17) about both its mother tongue and the foreign language. In other words, s/he may be able to learn more independently how language is used to achieve communicative purposes.

Knowing the similarities and differences of the discourse of promotion in each particular context will perhaps reduce the fear of assimilating the values of the other culture. It provides the non-native speaker business representative or learner with the opportunity to become aware of the differences and the meanings those differences encode, while relating them to his/her own choices. In this way, this approach includes the principle of the hermeneutic approach: which is 'neither to adopt nor to reject the thinking of others but to relate it to one's own' (Hunfeld, 1990: 15).

On the whole, it seems to be possible to say that a contrastive analysis from a social functional perspective provides a point of convergence of the three intellectual traditions: the pragmatic (to achieve communication), the critical (the understanding of others) and the hermeneutic (self-understanding in relation to others) in language teaching mentioned in Breen (1985). Breen maintains that the three above traditions are not incompatible. In other words, in order for Colombian (at least the Caribbean

contexts) and British business representatives to be able to achieve the pragmatic goal of communicating, it would be advantageous for them to get to understand each other's values, attitudes and mindsets, as well as to get to understand themselves in the process. In this way, the risk of miscommunication taking place will be reduced and companies from these two specific cultural contexts will engage in the cross-cultural communication with less concern. It is then hoped that the implementation of the findings from this work will contribute to equip the business language learner of these particular contexts with the appropriate social skills to develop business opportunities and perform more effectively during activity of promoting and selling goods and services.

10 References

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11.2 Spanish company literature (Comp. lit. S-6)

GAS NATURAL: UN B

El G.N.C. es un combustible automotor sustituto de la gasolina en motores de combustión interna de encendido por chispa, y en forma parcial, del A.C.P.M. en aquellos motores de encendido por compresión.

Este combustible lo conforman básicamente un conjunto de hidrocarburos gaseosos en donde el metano (en proporción superior al 70%) es su principal componente y es quien le da las propiedades como combustible ideal, por ser económico, eficiente y seguro.

Para acondicionar los vehículos con ésta tecnología, es necesario la instalación de equipos de conversión que adaptan el sistema de carburación original del vehículo para el uso del combustible gaseoso, o instalar motores originalmente diseñados para tal fin y adicionalmente, la instalación de cilindros resistentes a altas presiones (3.000 PSI) para almacenar el gas a utilizar por el motor.

El abastecimiento de los vehículos se realiza en estaciones de servicio previamente acondicionadas con equipos de compresión a gas que distribuyen el G.N.C. en forma similar a las estaciones de servicio de combustible líquido.

BENEFICIOS DEL USO DEL G.N.C.

El G.N.C. no sólo proporciona beneficios a los usuarios de vehículos y propietarios de estaciones de servicio, también favorece al medio ambiente y a la economía del país. Dichos beneficios se ven reflejados en:

- Ahorros entre el 50 y el 70% en los costos de combustible del vehículo.
- Disminuye la contaminación ambiental en más de un 80% con respecto a la gasolina, por reducción en las emisiones de CO y HC.

ESTACIONES DE SERVICIO

PROMIGAS suministra toda la asesoría para el diseño, construcción, operación y mantenimiento de estaciones de servicio de G.N.C. Adicionalmente, se encuentra en disposición de suministrar parte de los compresores y equipos requeridos para la venta de G.N.C. en la estación, disminuyendo así, la inversión inicial a los propietarios de la misma.

Todo esto le permite al inversionista tener una proyección comercial y financiera del negocio.

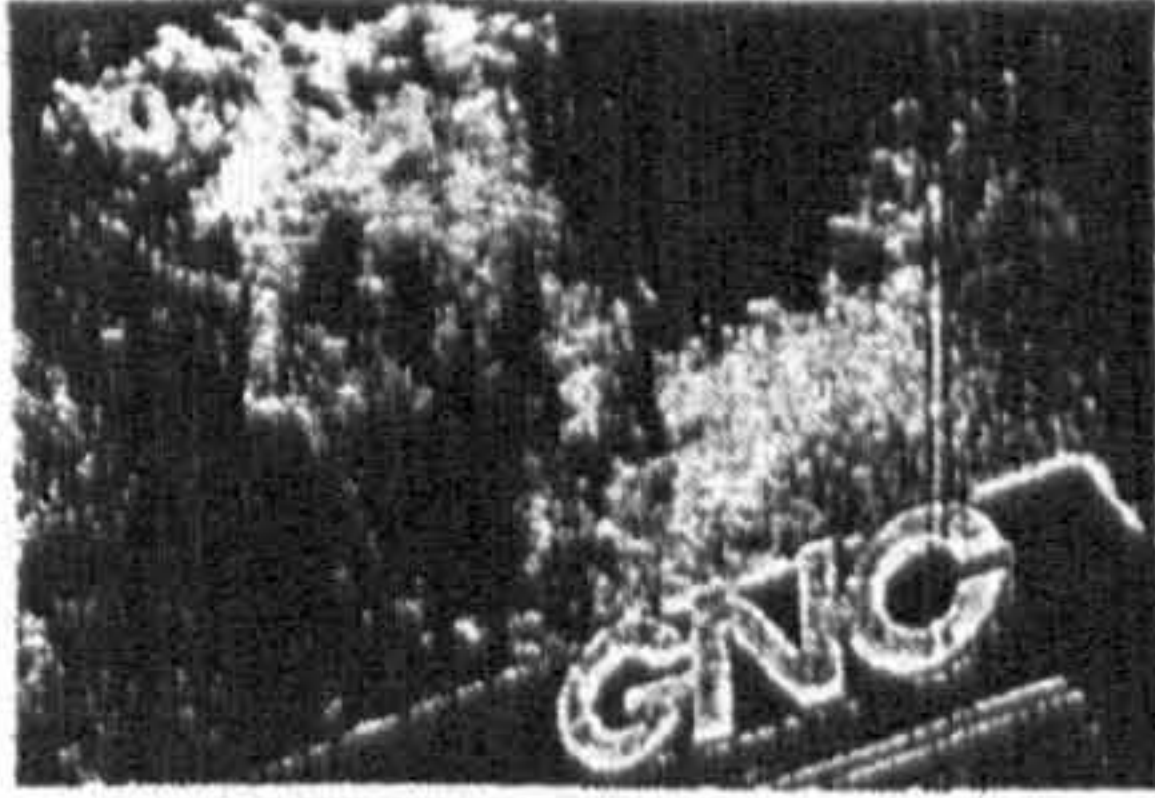
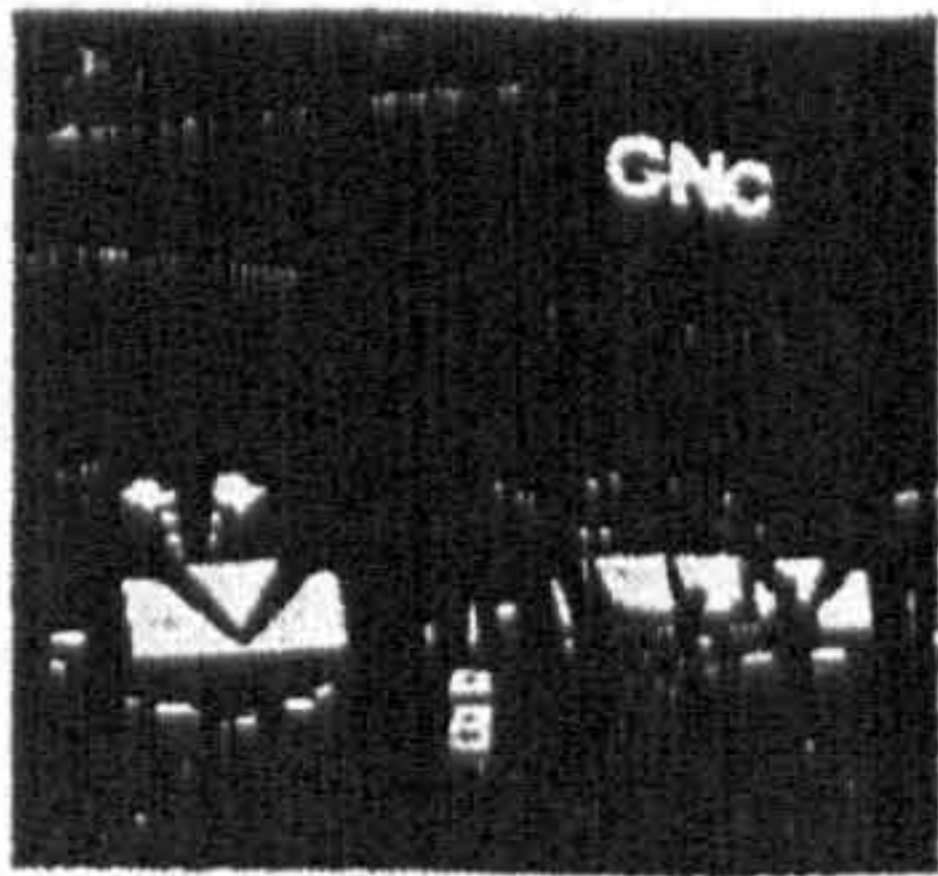
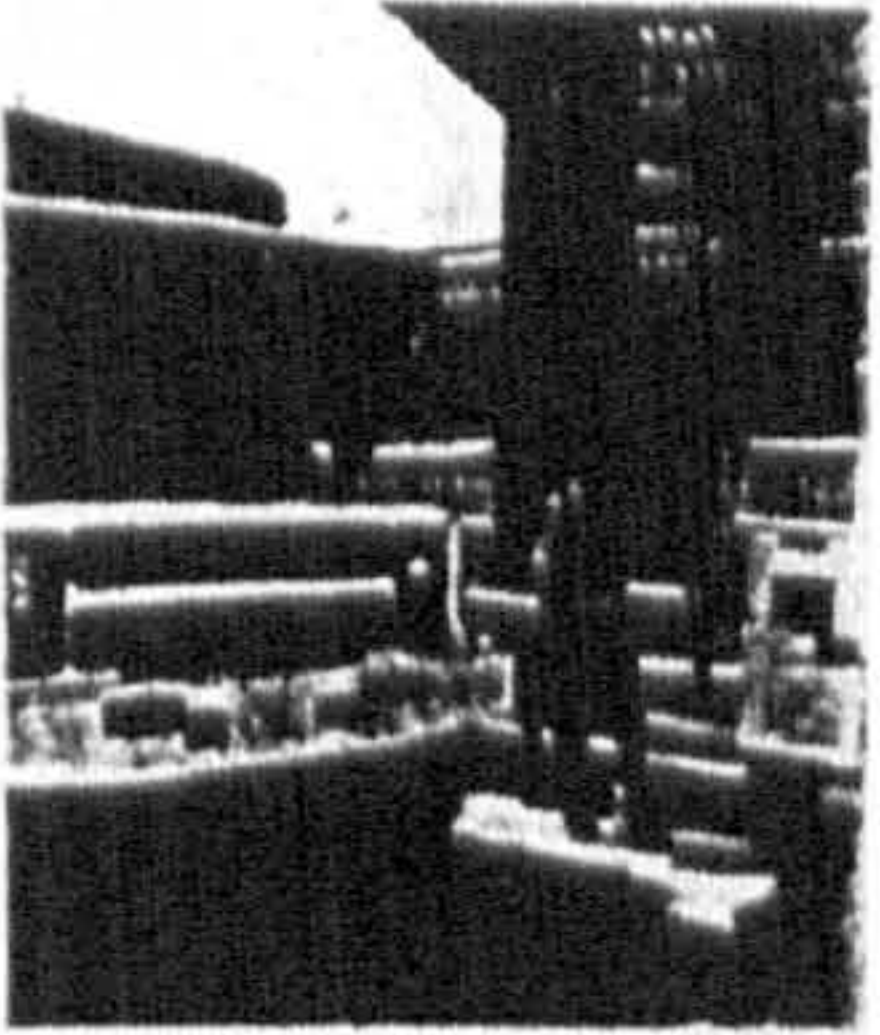
QUÉ BRINDAMOS A LOS INVERSIONISTAS EN EL NEGOCIO DEL G.N.C.

En la actualidad, PROMIGAS es el líder nacional en el negocio del G.N.C., con ventas anuales que superan los 56 millones de metros cúbicos de gas (equivalente a 19,8 millones de galones de gasolina). Por lo tanto, nos encontramos en disposición de prestar asesoría y capacitación técnica en la construcción y operación de estaciones y talleres de G.N.C., evaluaciones de proyectos para sustitución de combustibles líquidos en el parque automotor, asesoría en la selección, mercadeo y ventas de equipos y cilindros de G.N.C. y en el suministro del mismo.

MÁS BENEFICIOS DEL G.N.C.

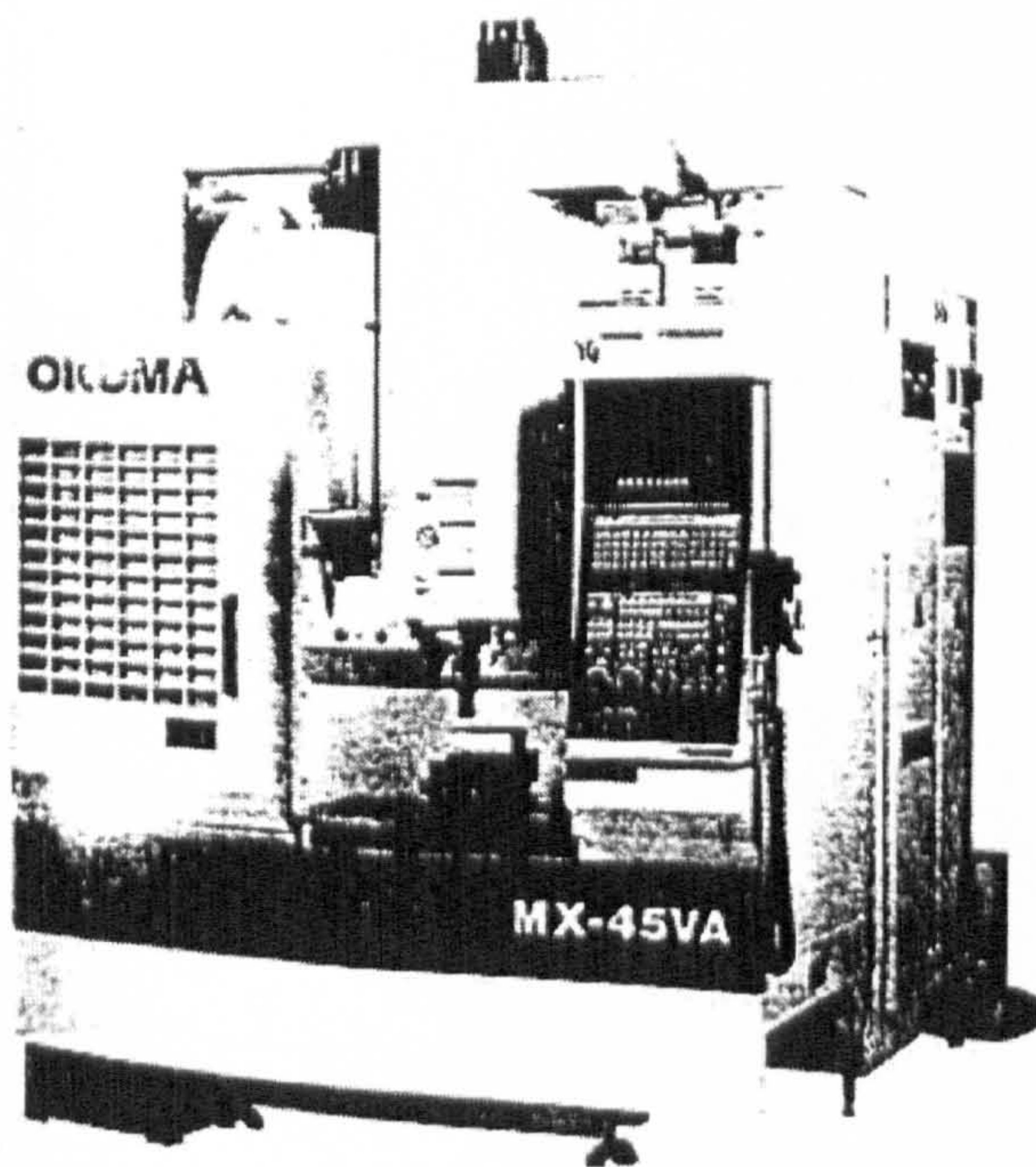
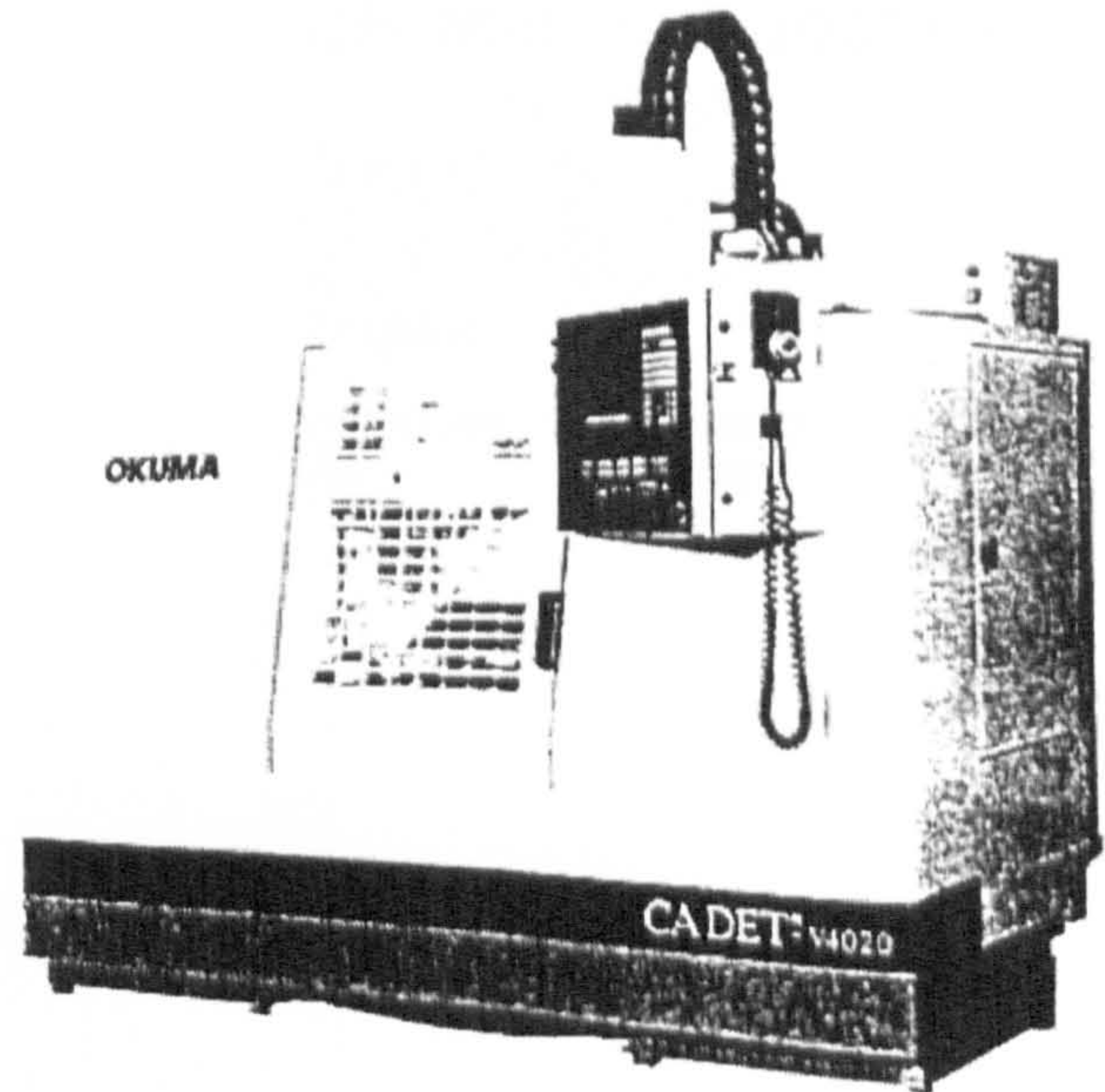
- Más seguro que otros combustibles.
- Doble disponibilidad de combustible (gas-gasolina).
- Aumenta la vida útil del motor por la mejor calidad de la mezcla aire-combustible y su combustión limpia y completa.
- Aumenta el período de tiempo entre cambios de aceite del motor por no existir la dilución de combustible ni la generación de carbonilla.
- Es un combustible de bajo costo, abundante y seguro, sustituto de energía eléctrica y combustibles líquidos, que representa un ahorro de divisas para el país en cuanto se disminuye la importación de gasolina.

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11.3 Spanish catalogue (Cat. S-7¹⁴)**CONTROL NUMERICO****CENTROS**

OKUMA tiene una gama de centros verticales Y horizontales de mecanizado para ser utilizados desde materiales blandos hasta aceros implados, de tal manera que se puedan ajustar a su trabajo y a su presupuesto.


**CENTROS DE MECANIZADO
HORIZONTALES Y VERTICALES:**

- ▣ Suministro de recuestos garantizado 24 h. después del pedido.
- ▣ Sistemas patentados de limitación del torque y encoder de posición absoluto.
- ▣ Máquinas diseñadas para soportar piezas de máxima geometría y peso.
- ▣ Máquinas que soportan grandes esfuerzos mecánicos debido a su especial diseño de guías, tamaños de tornillos, esferas recirculantes y potentes servomotores instalados en ellas.
- ▣ Máquinas de alta velocidad en operación con mínimos tiempos en cambio de herramientas y máximas velocidades de aceleración y desaceleración.
- ▣ Control de última tecnología con software e interfaces amigables que hacen la operación de la máquina muy fácil.
- ▣ Máxima flexibilidad a través de todas las opciones que ofrece OKUMA para sus máquinas, husillos de alta velocidad, refrigeración a través del husillo, administrador de la vida de las herramientas, extensión de columna, opciones de pallets y demás periféricos.

¹⁴ The text has been rewritten in order to enhance readability. The arrangement of texts and photos follows closely the original. Note that 'software' is misspelled in the original.

11.4 English letter (Letter E-13)



UK Marina Supplies Ltd

F1, Fareham Heights
Standard Way

England

Telephone: 0329 288833

Fax: 0329 285975

25th July 1994

Procon Limited



Gibraltar

FOR THE ATTENTION OF: MR 

Dear Sir

Please find enclosed some literature regarding our Company, and its role in the Marina Design and Construction Industry.

We have extensive experience in the business of providing both leisure and commercial mooring facilities dating back to 1975, and are now the second largest pontoon manufacturer in the U.K., dedicated to product development and customer service.

Our standard product is a popular choice with customers for its durability, coupled with a superb aesthetic finish, and economic pricing. As well as basic supply and installation contracts, we offer a full turnkey package to developers assisting with difficult and diversified requirements from scheme conception to completion. All work undertaken is backed by guarantees and an experienced, professional management team.

Our manufacturing processes, and site installation works, are carried out in accordance with British Standards and Codes of Practice and are regularly reviewed in the light of changing legislation.

If we can assist in any future projects you have planned, or may be involved with, please do not hesitate to contact this office whereupon every assistance will be given.

Yours faithfully





CONTRACTS DIRECTOR

English company literature (Comp. lit. E-6)

Company News

In July 1994 OMICRON celebrated its 10th anniversary. There are now 70 people employed at our headquarters in Taunusstein (80 people worldwide). Phase four of our building extension is now in progress which will add an additional 1000 m² (10,000 sq.ft) of work space to support our rapidly expanding business.

In North America Omicron Associates opened a Western regional office in Denver, Colorado, which is operated by Bill Gerace who has extensive experience in UHV surface science instrumentation.

Over 20 combined UHV AFM/STM instruments have now been installed in major materials research laboratories around the world and this instrument is fast becoming recognized as the standard for this advanced technique. A new brochure with the latest results is available on request.

We have signed an OEM agreement with VSW Instruments Ltd., Manchester UK for their "IBACH Type" High Resolution Electron Energy Loss Spectrometer. The new VSW company supplied the first few instruments achieving a resolution of ~ 1 meV FWHM.

This agreement allows us to offer EELS as part of our complete system solutions combining surface analysis with scanning probe microscopy.

SCALA

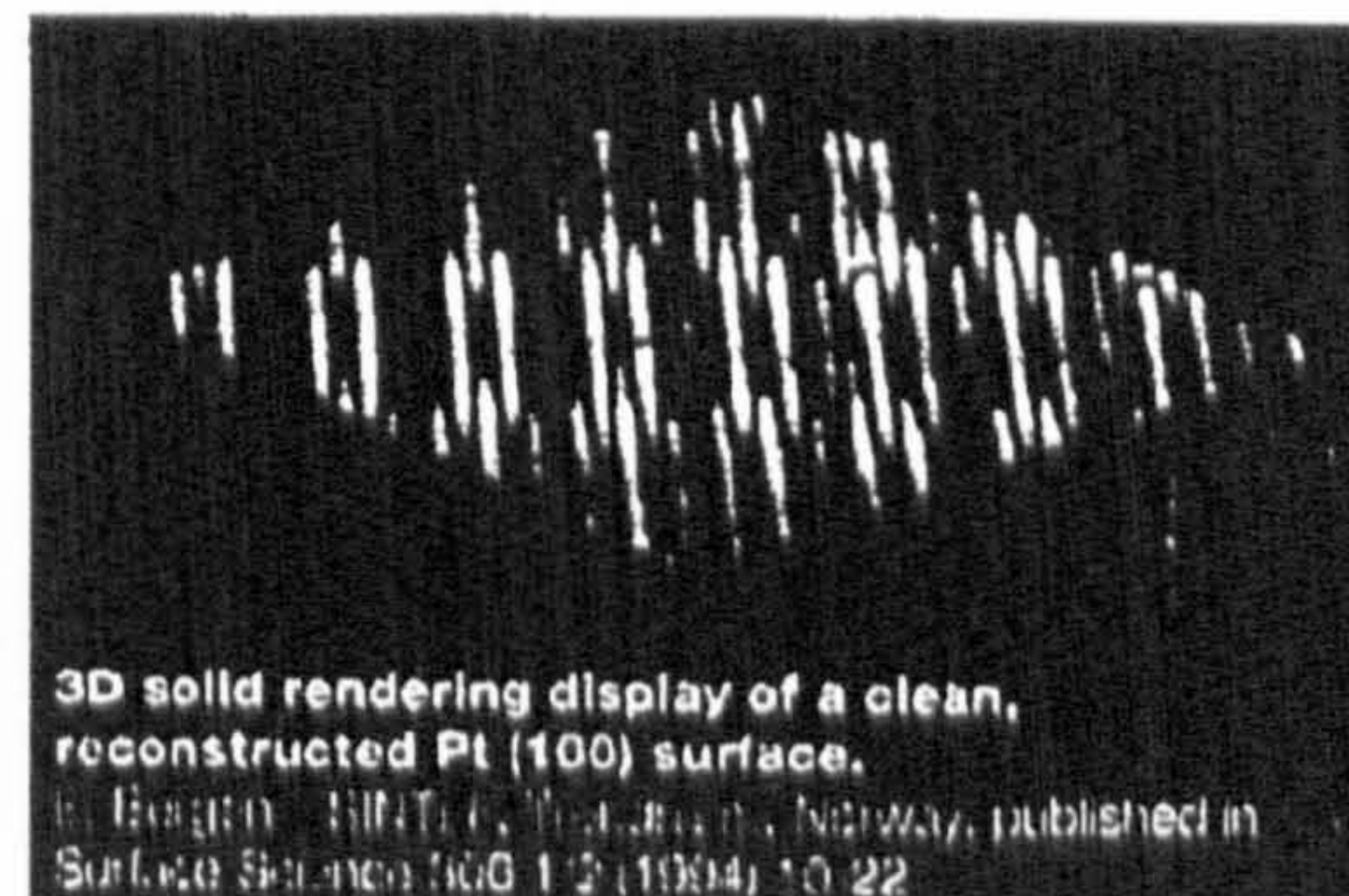
Control System for Scanning Probe Microscopy

The SCALA system combines a modern user friendly graphical interface for both measurement control and data processing.

The digitally driven analogue electronics offers state-of-the-art signal to noise ratio and a very high dynamic range.

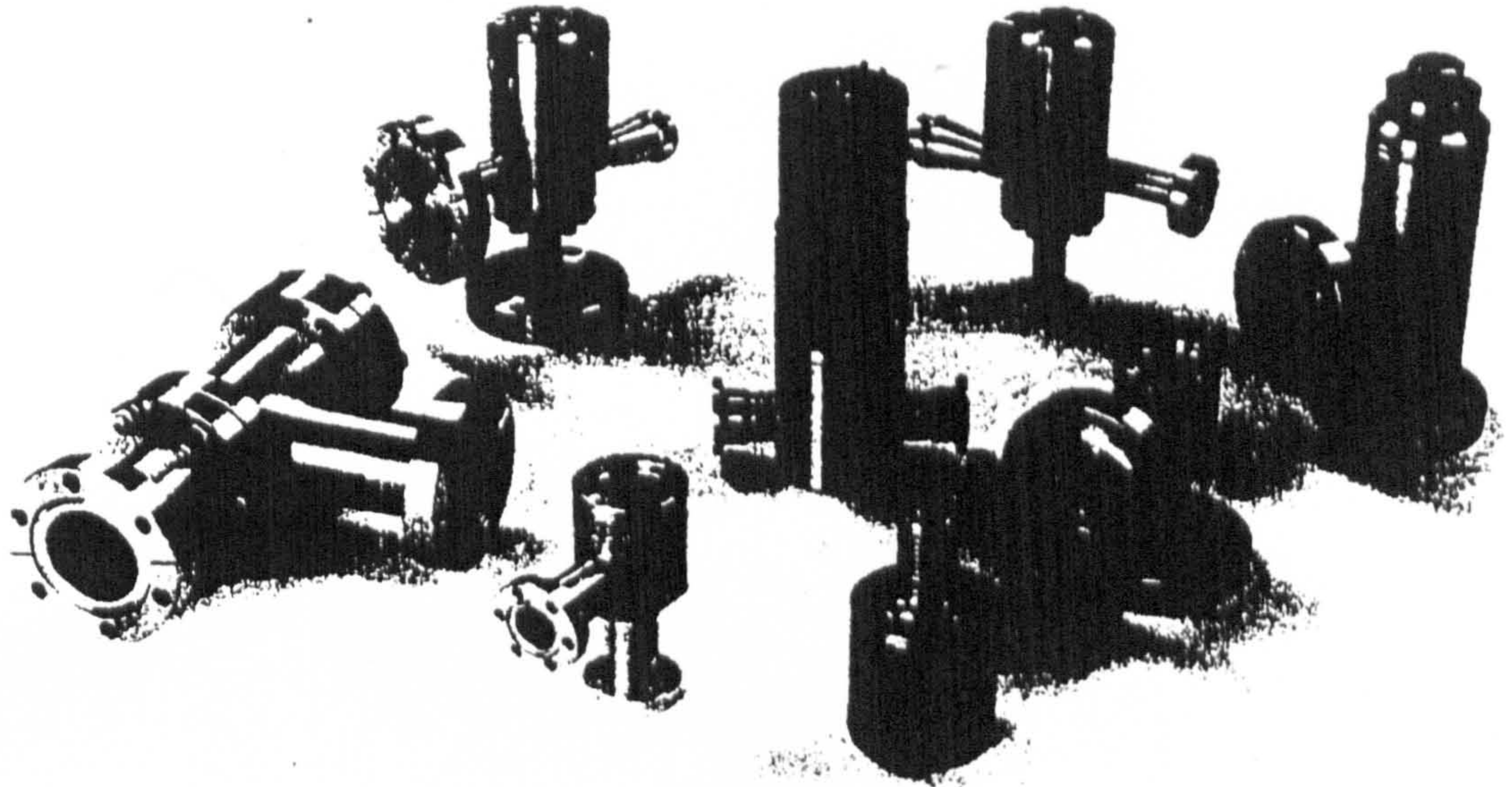
Using Sun SPARC[®] compatible hardware with UNIX[®] operating system with X-Windows[®] provides advantages such as reliable networking, true multi-user-multi-tasking capabilities, and powerful file handling abilities. The VME interface combined with the two processor shared RAM architecture offer both, high speed scanning and inherently fast data transfer, to yield true "real-time" imaging power.

The SPM software is based on IDL, a professional powerful graphics and image processing package.



11.6 English catalogue (Cat. E-1)

ALL METAL VALVES.

Valves**Product Quality**

Valves manufactured by CVT contain carefully selected materials to reduce outgassing and give high performance in UHV and process environments. Valve bodies and all parts exposed to the vacuum system are fabricated from 300 series stainless steel. CVT employ highly skilled staff using state of the art manufacturing equipment assuring precisely fabricated valves to the highest industrial standards.

Welding is carried out on the vacuum side of joints wherever possible to prevent virtual leaks. All valves are helium leak checked at various stages of manufacture and after final assembly to at least 1×10^{-9} mbar l s⁻¹.

The quality of manufacture and operational effectiveness of CVT valves has been constantly demonstrated in high and ultra-high vacuum systems throughout the world.

All Metal Valves.

SPECIFICATION, ALL METAL VALVES.

Operating pressure	Atm. to 1×10^{-12} mbar.
Bakeout temperature (max)	450°C Open 300°C Closed
Leak rate to Atm.	$< 1 \times 10^{-12}$ mbar l s ⁻¹
across seat	$< 1 \times 10^{-12}$ mbar l s ⁻¹
Materials exposed to vacuum	304 st steel 316 st steel OFHC copper

Series	Conductance ls ⁻¹	Closure torque Nm
VMD19	10	3-7
VMD38	25	8-12
VMW38	25	8-12
VMD64	110	12-17