Jennie Öhman

Interaction in Text and Hypertext

Participant Roles on Corporate Websites

The corporate website is an important medium for external corporate communication, characterised by dynamism and technological interactivity. These features, however, do not guarantee interaction between participants in the written content of the web pages. Using a functional linguistic perspective, this study investigates projected interaction between the company and its audiences in online corporate discourse. The data includes web pages in two languages (English and Swedish) and two web page genres (About Us, Careers) from the sites of 20 US-based companies. The analyses examine how companies construct themselves and their audiences in web page texts, and how these constructed roles affect the projected interaction between the discourse participants.
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Interaction in Text and Hypertext

Participant Roles on Corporate Websites

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Jennie Öhman
Part 1: Theoretical framework
1 INTRODUCTION

Interaction is historically associated with spoken language, and in particular conversation, where participants interact and take turns in communicating with each other (Goodwin 1981). Letter exchanges constitute a traditional form of written interaction, and with the emergence of new digital forms of expression, interaction in writing has become an integral part of many people’s daily lives through emails, chat, instant messaging, text messaging and online forums (Herring 2001, Crystal 2006). Today, different social media platforms on the web enable both one-to-one and one-to-many interaction through for instance blogging and micro-blogging, social networking, photo-sharing and video-sharing. Voice over IP (VoIP) services allow people to interact via voice calls over their internet connection. The increasing convergence of digital media also means that interaction can occur independently of the channel, as information from one channel can easily be shared through another (Androutsopoulos 2011).

A written text, however, can also project interaction in itself (Nystrand 1986, Thompson & Thetela 1995, Hoey 2001). Through their linguistic choices, authors can be more or less visible and audiences can be given a voice. These two participants can also be described by the author in different ways within the text. They can be represented as dynamic or passive, and they can take on different roles (Hasan 1985/1989, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, Thompson 2008). Within these roles, the authors and the audiences might or might not meet the other participants within the frame of the text.

If a text exists in several language versions, the textually projected action and interaction may change when moving between different versions. The multinational corporate website is a good example of a context that provides many language versions of the same content. When catering to audiences from various language backgrounds, the character of the interaction projected in text by the authors may change. There is a vast body of research on how aspects of culture are reflected on websites produced in different countries, often utilising the frameworks presented by Hall (1977) and Hofstede (1994, 2001). Yet, little attention has been paid to studying the different language versions of the same website in general (but see e.g. Callahan 2005 and Callahan & Herring 2012 on university websites, Kelly-Holmes 2006 on global brand websites, Stein 2006 on bank sites, Rike 2013 on corporate websites, Hogg, Liao & O’Gorman 2014 on museum sites), or on signs of interaction specifically.

The present thesis explores interaction between companies and audiences on corporate websites with the aims of (i) examining how companies construct themselves and their audiences on their websites, (ii) comparing how the
constructed roles and resulting interaction change between two different language versions of the same website, (iii) investigating how the roles and interaction differ between pages addressing a general audience and pages addressing a specific audience, and (iii) constructing textual interaction profiles based on the findings. Results shed light on textual interaction in a digital medium and add to the understanding of business discourse as a language for special purposes. The focus on different language versions of the same websites is expected to provide new insights into the projection of corporate versus language-specific communication strategies online and thus have implications for intercultural communication from a business perspective.

The data for this study consist of American and Swedish corporate web pages. Corporate web pages constitute an intriguing source for a number of reasons. Firstly, as web pages form part of the digital landscape, they are expected to be interactive (Bonime & Pohlmann 1997, Kress 2003). Corporate websites are usually technologically interactive, inviting the audiences to navigate freely through the pages, order products or leave feedback (Ha & James 1998, Voorveld & al. 2011). The pages are connected by hyperlinks, which are interactive by nature (Crystal 2006, 2011). Yet, interactivity alone does not guarantee interaction between participants. Secondly, many companies see their corporate website as their primary medium for external corporate communication (Pollach 2003). This makes the corporate website into a powerful promotional tool that builds the company image (brand) and promotes both products and services through information. Thirdly, the corporate website can have many audiences, and the company should ideally cater for all of them (Geest 2001). Different target groups need to be addressed and persuaded into staying on the site. Finally, as companies have become increasingly global, they face the challenge of approaching culturally diverse audiences and of adapting both their own and their audiences’ roles in website discourse (Yunker 2003, Sing & Pereira 2005). This may create differences between the expressions of culture in terms of communication strategies: between the corporate culture and the national culture, and between various national cultures.

1.1 Aims and research questions

The main aim of this thesis is to account for similarities and differences in the interaction strategies on American and Swedish websites of the same company. The material consists of 80 web pages: two pairs of American and Swedish pages from the websites of 20 American-based companies. The data include pages for a general audience, About Us, and pages for a specific audience, Careers. Within these pages, the focus is on the written verbal messages, as expressed in page text and hyperlink label texts.
The differences between the expressions of culture, as mentioned above, might be reflected in communication strategies all the way down to which roles the companies assign to themselves and their audiences on the textual and the hypertextual levels of a website. Due to the companies’ adaption of their web materials to different markets, it is possible that American companies address their American and Swedish audiences differently, while also presenting themselves differently (Yunker 2003, Sing & Pereira 2005). When multinationals address local markets in the local language, they usually do not translate their web pages, but instead produce a language version that is part translation, part new original based both on the English texts and the local conditions and realities (Yunker 2003). The processes vary somewhat between companies but many corporations have a regional or local team that prepare the communications for the local markets, in compliance with the company guidelines. The locally produced language version may therefore reflect either the communication strategies of the corporate culture or the national culture, or a mix of the two, possibly with some influences from the English original through translation.

Addressing a clearly defined audience makes it easier to formulate the message (Ihator 2001, 2004, Kotler & Armstrong 2012). The Careers section of corporate websites mainly targets people who are interested in working for the company. The About Us section, by contrast, appears to address a wider variety of audiences who might be interested in information about the company, including for instance investors, journalists, current and prospective employees, private and corporate clients, students and suppliers. Even if these target groups can be singled out and addressed in individual sections (through links), the general company information page still needs to reach out to all of these groups simultaneously. One way of doing this is to adopt a formal stance and distanced tone towards the readers in order to promote and stress the expertise of the company. The pages aimed at a specific audience might therefore show a higher level of interaction than those aimed at a general and diverse audience.

The analyses seek to answer three research questions:

1. How do the companies project themselves and their audiences in text and hypertext?
2. What similarities and differences in projected interaction can be traced between the American and Swedish websites?
3. What differences in interaction are there between pages addressing a general and a specific audience?

The goal of the first question is to track and describe how the company projects itself and its different audiences in text and hypertext, through lexical references and
participant roles. Patterns of interaction in text are also established, whenever present. The hyperlink data are analysed separately from the body text elements of the page due to their inherently interactive properties. While the hyperlink labels are treated as text, their interactive properties are classified according to rhetorical function. The second question includes a contrast between the American and the Swedish data in order to reveal any differences in representation and projected interaction, both for single companies and the data as a whole. The objective of the third question is to compare the overall findings and trends from the pages on company information and the pages on employment opportunities, in order to track possible differences both in text and in hyperlinks.

The overall results from the textual analysis will be compiled into a model with textual interaction profiles, based on the strategies used by the investigated companies. The model is presented in chapter 9.

1.2 Defining the research context

This section introduces the framework of the study by placing it in a theoretical context. Subsequently, an overview of the key concepts used in this thesis is given, along with their relevance and definition in terms of the present thesis.

1.2.1 Theoretical framework

The theoretical framework of the current study is informed by systemic functional grammar (Halliday 1994, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, Holmberg & Karlsson 2006), related models of representing interaction (Thompson 2001, Thompson 2008) and social action in writing (Fairclough 2003, van Leeuwen 2008). Systemic functional grammar rests on the assumption that language has three metafunctions: the experiential, the interpersonal and the textual metafunction (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). The experiential component refers to our experience of the world and how we use language to construct our experiences. The interpersonal component has to do with how we relate to others and use language to enact our personal and social relationships. The textual component, finally, refers to how we organise our messages to create sequences of discourse, cohesion and (dis)continuity. The primary concern of this thesis is with the experiential and interpersonal metafunctions, since they are the components reflecting the different roles of participants in discourse, how they relate to each other and interact. Special attention is paid to the experiential component, through the analysis of lexical references and participant roles on the clause level, i.e. transitivity. The interpersonal component is addressed in the analysis of speech functions, i.e. mood. Finally, in this thesis the textual component comes to the fore in the rhetorical analysis of hyperlinks, which have a text-organising function in non-linear text (cf. Pollach
2003). The three metafunctions serve as an impetus for the analytical approaches of this study, aiming at a description of participant interaction on the investigated web pages.

Textual signs of the reader and the writer have been addressed under varying labels in different disciplines, including for instance functional grammar, discourse analysis, rhetoric, pragmatics and literary theory (see further, Chapter 3). Studies from all of these approaches contribute to the general framework of the study, providing terms, concepts and useful insights into understanding how the producers of a text can interact with the readers of it and construct both parties in discourse, creating interaction. The eclectic approach serves the nature of the data: corporate websites as a form of business discourse attracts the interest of scholars within marketing, advertising, business communication, organisational theory, intercultural communication and corporate rhetoric, among others. Many of these disciplines make use of linguistic tools from different fields and bring input to this study. The digital origin of the material investigated also calls for approaches that can accommodate the characteristics of hypertext, including a model for hyperlink classification (Harrison 2002).

1.2.2 Key concepts

The first key concept, discourse, has many meanings and is used both in social sciences and in linguistics but also in every-day language. One of the well-known starting points for defining discourse in linguistics is language use in context as opposed to language as an abstract entity. This definition, stemming from Widdowson (1978) and later applied by Brown and Yule (1983), refers to how people use language for particular purposes in particular social situations. In order to exist, discourse thus needs someone who produces it, i.e. participants, a purpose or goal for producing this type of language, and a situation, or context. The ‘language’ produced may include spoken or written language, but also other semiotic resources, such as symbols and images, gestures and gaze (Iedema 2003). Discourse revolves around participants, meaning-making and social contexts. Within critical discourse analysis, the social context of discourse gains added importance, as it also includes the different institutional norms and conditions of language use, and power relations between those participating (Fairclough 2001).

As mentioned above, discourse is also used in everyday situations, for example about language that is typically used in a certain setting, such as the discourse of advertising (Cook 2001). It may also mean everything that is being said in different media about a current phenomenon: for instance the current discourse on climate change. This concept can take the plural, as there might be different discourses going on simultaneously. What would then business discourse imply? In a broad sense, it
could be language used to talk about different business-related phenomena, even different discourses about the same phenomena. It can also refer to the way business people use language and other meaning-making resources with a certain goal in mind, in a certain social situation. In the immediate context of this thesis, business discourse as an over-arching concept refers to the verbal, written language used by multinational business corporations to construct meaning and messages for their audiences in the context of their website. This study is concerned with the discourse of corporate websites, more specifically, the sections for company information, here termed About Us, and employment opportunities, Careers (see further, Chapter 5).

Website discourse is determined by both its function, and its medium. Firstly, the language of corporate websites shares some characteristics with the languages of advertising and marketing, since the goal of organisational websites is to be both informative and persuasive (Harrison 2002). Following Bühler’s (1934/1965) classification, this linguistic sign is associated with both the informative and the vocative text types. Companies disseminate information about themselves, but also try to reach and interact with their audiences in a persuasive manner. In rhetorical terms (Aristotle 2001), the corporate body ideally promotes its own expertise (ethos), supports the claims with facts and examples (logos), while appealing to the audiences’ emotions (pathos). For this study, the vocative function of the investigated pages lies either in persuading the audiences of the expertise of the company (About Us) or promoting the company as employer and showcasing job opportunities (Careers). Straightforward advertising discourse is reserved for the more sales-oriented pages about products and services, but part of it seeps through in, for instance, links to other sections.

Secondly, the medium, or channel of communication, plays a crucial role in determining website discourse. Websites are digitally mediated and the technological possibilities that come with this inevitably shape and constrain the discourse produced. Web pages form part of computer-mediated communication (CMC) and the language of web pages is a form of computer-mediated discourse (CMD), as defined by Herring (1996, 2001). Today, as computer screens are no longer the only points of access to the web, it is perhaps more appropriate to talk about ‘digital discourse’ (Thurlow & Mroczek 2011). The language of corporate websites thus constitutes a type of digital discourse, which shares some properties with the persuasive language of advertising. Typical properties in common include for instance multimodality, constant change, the aim to change the receiver’s behaviour, and repetition (Cook 2001).

The second key concept, genre, can also have different meanings depending on where it is used. In the general sense, genre can refer to different types of literature, film, even art in its many representations. Within linguistics, genre refers to a certain
group of texts, with shared purposes, and some kind of norms that are known to producers and receivers of those texts. The shared purposes and norms help to shape the discourse of those particular texts. Norms and purposes are not superimposed, but are constantly renegotiated to reflect the needs and goals of the participants involved in communication. Bhatia (1993), who follows Swales (1990), defines genre as follows:

[a genre] is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs (Bhatia 1993: 13)

In light of new insights into the complex nature and roles of discourse in today’s society, constraints of Swales’ and Bhatia’s original definitions have been discussed. Communicative purpose, which is the stepping stone of the original definitions, is not easy to determine, since genres today can be multifunctional. Askehave & Swales (2001) therefore propose a downgrading of the purpose as main criterion, to studying it alongside other factors that influence discourse production, such as structure, style, content and context. This repurposing of genres “allows attention to focus on the highly contemporary issue of how technological advance affects the way in which genre-exemplars are perceived and ranked in relation to their mode of transition” (ibid.: 209). Askehave & Ellerup Nielsen (2005) follow this line of thought and suggest that the notion of ‘medium’ should be included in the definition and description of web genres. While the medium is indeed a crucial element in identifying web genres, it should not be equated with genre itself, and the purpose of that genre (Garzone 2007). The influence of medium or environment on web genres may instead be described through technological affordances (Gaver 1991) that add unique properties to web genres. Affordances refer to the technological options and their limits; that is, what technology affords or allows the user to do.

As for the corporate website as a genre, some scholars label the entire website a web genre or a digital genre (see for instance Stein 2006, Puschmann 2010). Others (e.g. Askehave & Nielsen 2005) define parts of the site as genres, for instance the homepage. One way of solving this confusion is to define the corporate website as a system of genres (Bazerman 1994, Orlikowski & Yates 2002). Bazerman’s original definition of genre systems as “interrelated genres that interact with each other in specific settings” (1994: 97) involves a temporal dimension, so that the genres forming a system usually follow in a certain order. The pages forming a website do not usually form a temporal sequence, but instead a hierarchy or system of pages that can be entered from any point, and then “read” in any order depending on the hyperlinks chosen. Keeping in mind that hypertext can ideally be read in any order,
as opposed to linear text, it seems reasonable to disregard the temporal restriction in relation to corporate websites. Another way of accounting for the inter-connected genres within websites is through Swales’ (2004) notion of genre network (Catenaccio 2012). Swales defines genre networks as “the totality of genres available for a particular sector (such as the research world) as seen from any synchronic moment [...]” (2004: 22). Even if the networked nature of websites seem to lend support to this notion, I still find Swales’ over-arching concept larger than a single website, and more suitable for describing the plethora of corporate communication both inside and outside the website. A corporate website is a rather closed system, consisting of individual interrelated sections arranged in a hierarchy, but without the strict temporal dimension.

For the purpose of this thesis, the corporate website is therefore defined as a system of genres, where the individual sections or pages are interrelated and interact with each other in the setting of the website. Following this genre definition, the two investigated page types About Us and Careers thus represent interrelated genres within the genre system of the corporate website. These interrelated genres furthermore carry different purposes within the corporate website, and may also differ in terms of structure, style and content. The web page medium, finally, adds technological affordances to the web page genres that are not present in offline text. Typical affordances of web pages, and other online genres, include the instant feedback possibilities, the immediate global access, and the hyperlink gateways.

The third key concept, participants, was already mentioned above and refers to those taking part in communication or in a social practice (van Leeuwen 2008). Not all participants in a social practice are necessarily realised directly as participants in discourse. In the discourse of corporate websites, the two key participants are the company and its different audiences. They are not always realised in the texts themselves in terms of direct references, but can often be tracked through the roles and representations projected on them in text. These textual representations are created by the people writing the web page texts, and they are read by the actual users. Three different levels of participants can thus be identified: the real writers and the real readers, the writers and readers as projected into the text through representations and actions, and finally, the abstract notions of ‘company’ and ‘audiences’ that arise from the projected participants (compare Figure 1.1 below).

Interaction, finally, can also be defined on multiple levels. Participants in a social practice typically interact in some way. In conversation, the participants take turns in communicating, thus interacting with each other (see for instance Goodwin 1981, Wooffitt 2005). A piece of writing also represents an interaction, even though it may be difficult to point to the real authors, due to for instance factors like time lapse, multiple sources, and a diverse audience of unknown individuals (Hyland 2005a,
Hoey 2001, Thompson 2001). On a website, the real interaction takes place between the corporate teams responsible for the website texts and the feedback, and the end users, whoever they may be (applies to both sides). Within the text, the actions of the company in the text and the audience in the text can project interaction, which on an abstract level translates into interaction between the company and its audiences.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘THE COMPANY’</th>
<th>‘THE AUDIENCES’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The company, as projected in text</td>
<td>The audiences, as projected in text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teams of authors of website discourse</td>
<td>Website users</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.1: Three levels of participants and interaction**

### 1.3 Thesis outline

This thesis consists of ten chapters. The first four chapters lay the foundations for the empirical part, by outlining the theoretical framework and citing previous work relevant for this study. Chapter 2 thus deals with website discourse, chapter 3 with interaction in language, whereas chapter 4 discusses the website participants. Chapter 5 describes the methods employed and the materials studied. Chapters 6–8 present the results of the different analyses according to type of data. I move from the ‘About Us’ pages (chapter 6), over the ‘Careers’ pages (chapter 7) and end with the hyperlink analyses (chapter 8). Chapter 9 is a discussion of the findings and chapter 10 forms the conclusion.
The aim of this chapter is to introduce the basic concepts and definitions related to the website discourse investigated in the present study. I start by defining the building blocks of the World Wide Web, gradually moving over to websites and their structure. After this, I discuss the corporate website, arriving at a definition of website discourse as used in this thesis. Finally, I review research conducted in the field of corporate websites.

2.1 Hypertext

Crystal (2006: 57) defines hypertext as “a computer document containing cross-references which can be activated (by clicking a mouse) to transfer the reader to another part of the document or to another document”. Hypertext thus applies to an entire (text) document, held on a computer in electronic format, linked to other documents via cross-references, or hyperlinks. The hyperlink is the fundamental structural property of the World Wide Web (henceforth ‘the web’), the collection of computer documents available through the Internet. Even if often used interchangeably, the web and the Internet are not the same thing. Internet is the larger concept, referring to the entire network of networks and interconnected computers all over the world, enabling users to get in touch with each other. The web is only part of the internet, referring to the entire collection of documents held on computers globally. The information on the web is made accessible through the Internet by use of a standard protocol, the HyperText Transfer Protocol, or HTTP (Crystal 2006: 110f). On the web, the information is often displayed on web pages, forming websites with collections of interlinked pages. The pages are accessed with the help of a browser, such as Internet Explorer, Netscape or Mozilla Firefox. Each page is a web document, usually written in HTML or XHTML, i.e. (Extended) Hypertext Markup Language.

The history of the web goes back to 1989, when physicist Tim Berners-Lee at CERN, together with computer scientist Robert Cailliau, came up with the concept. The first graphical browser Mosaic emerged in 1993 (NCSA 2014). Over the last decades, the web has developed enormously as a tool for online publishing, marketing and commerce. The web of today is increasingly about participation and social sharing, features that O’Reilly (2007) has labelled phenomena of Web 2.0. These features, however, have developed all through the 21st century, and it is not possible to define exactly where Web 1.0 ceases to exist and Web 2.0 takes over (Herring 2013). It is a gradual change, and in a 2013 book chapter Herring (2013: 4) defines Web 2.0 as follows: “web-based platforms that emerged as popular in the
first decade of the twenty-first century, and that incorporate user-generated content and social interaction, often alongside or in response to structures or (multimedia) content provided by the sites themselves”.

2.2 The structure and design of web pages and sites

A website is a collection of web pages, tied together by site-internal hyperlinks. The site thus forms a network of interlinked pages, which can be organised in different ways. According to Powell (2002) there are four main models for content organisation: linear, grid, hierarchy and pure web. The most common model used for websites is the hierarchical structure. This model lends itself to large content collections since the section pages under the main page break up the website content and organise it at different levels (Sklar 2011: 72). For further details on information design and content organisation on websites, see for instance Sklar (2011), Niederst Robbins (2006), Hammerich & Harrison (2002) and Powell (2002).

A web page is an individual web document, viewed on a computer screen. Typically, the page contains various elements, such as text, graphics and links to other web pages. These elements can be organised in different ways, depending on the nature of the website and who or which body manages it. Since anyone today can upload pages or sites on the web, we can find huge variation in page design. Whereas the first web pages were text-based entities, the web of today has seen an explosion in multimodal pages, increasingly making use of text, images, videos and sound.

While comparing web texts to traditional marketing media, Ellerup Nielsen (2002: 9-10) lists the following technical characteristics of websites – many of which coincide with the web in general:

1. “The website is a pull medium which means that the user/receiver is in an active position of information seeking.” Traditional mass media delivers a push message to the receiver, who easily disregards the message as being irrelevant. Having to seek out the information themselves, Ellerup Nielsen argues, users often experience a feeling of relevance. Kotler & Armstrong (2012) also stress that while traditional marketing targets a somewhat passive audience, online marketing targets users who actively choose which pages they will visit. However, the user can be targeted by push messages online, too. Commercial banners are often seen on e.g. news pages and pop-up messages can appear almost anywhere on the web; these types certainly fall outside the user’s choice.

2. “The website enables interaction as the possibility of responding is very often an integrated tool on most commercial websites, by online sale activities, e-mail, FAQ, etc.” This feature certainly facilitates feedback compared to, for instance, company brochures. Users can react instantly through a feedback form or email link, without leaving the medium they are currently using. Purchase is also facilitated, as
users need not leave the house to enter a physical shopping facility but can shop online.

3. “Like most digital media, the website is multimedial combining both pictorial, graphical, sonoric and image moving elements.” Compared to traditional printed media, the website can thus offer sound and moving images (e.g. video clips) to enrich the message. Engebretsen (2006: 1) describes digital texts as “a convergence of media forms”. However, the possibility to include several media forms is not always realised in practice. Moreover, if badly planned, a multimedial page can prove very confusing to a user.

4. “The website is a dynamic and fluctuating medium. A website can exist in an incomplete form or as a draft version and may be constantly revised and updated.” What we see on our screens today will not necessarily be accessible tomorrow. Compared to a printed brochure, a website is not a finished, static product that can be easily archived. However, users can store a page or a site locally on their computers, but there is no guarantee that the design will stay exactly the same after saving. Today users can also access older versions of websites through e.g. the Internet Archive’s Wayback Machine available on http://archive.org/web/web.php (last accessed 10 May 2013) if the creator of the site in question has not blocked the archiving function.

5. “The website is an immediate and global medium available at any time to any Internet user all over the world.” This fact is especially useful to companies, who can make corporate information accessible worldwide. Of course, organisations and individuals also benefit from this feature. News spread faster, and people can stay connected even if they are geographically dispersed. Naturally, the global access and benefit apply only to those with an Internet connection, which excludes millions of people. For a definition and discussion of the digital divide, see e.g. the Digital Divide Institute (http://www.digitaldivide.org/, last accessed 30 April 2011).

2.3 Types of websites

The Web contains many different types of websites. Radford et al. (2006) identify six types: advocacy, business, informational, news, personal and entertainment. The purpose of advocacy websites is to influence public opinion and to promote a cause, and their URL address often ends in .org. Examples include campaign sites during elections, organisations supporting e.g. medical research or charity work of different types. Business websites promote a product or service, and frequently end in .com. Informational websites provide factual information and use a variety of endings. Any actor on the web can create an informational website. News sites distribute news content and are often created by newspaper, radio or television companies. Personal websites are created by individuals, and vary greatly in content.
Entertainment sites, finally, provide enjoyment and can include, for instance, games, chat facilities, movie information, music and jokes. Powell (2002: 161ff) lists seven types: commercial, entertainment, informational, navigational, community, artistic, and personal. He thus includes ‘news’, and to some extent also ‘advocacy’ in the informational category. Navigational sites (or portals) serve as major hubs and help the user to find their way around the Web. Examples of portals are search engines and site directories. Community sites serve as meeting places for members of a particular group, who come to the site to share information and interact with like-minded people. Artistic sites are the expression of the individual or the artist, and overlap with personal sites.

Even if it is theoretically possible to divide websites into different types, in practice these types often mix and blend without clearcut borders. One good example is educational or informational websites for children (see e.g. Djonov 2008); these often include games or other entertaining content, thus giving them the label edutainment or infotainment sites (education/information and entertainment). Today’s news websites also tend to contain entertaining elements, such as film trailers, crossword puzzles or sweepstakes. Business websites usually consist of different sections, which leave room for e.g. news, corporate information, advocacy (in the form of Corporate Social Responsibility) or entertainment (e.g. games and sweepstakes). Many companies, organisations or news agencies today host weblogs (‘blogs’) written by individuals tied to the actor in question, thus adding a personal component to their sites. The phenomena of Web 2.0 have also caused companies to extend their presence to various social media platforms, such as Twitter and Facebook.

2.4 Corporate websites

In an early typology of commercial web pages, Hoffman et al. (1995) identified online storefronts, Internet presence sites, content sites, malls, incentive sites and search engines. According to Barnes (2003: 78), business websites can be further divided into online catalogs, corporate websites and electronic malls. In 1999, the marketing specialists Kotler et al. distinguished between corporate websites and marketing websites. While corporate websites focus on the company image, information and customer relationships, handling interactive communication initiated by the consumer, the marketing website aims more directly at selling products or services through interactive communication initiated by the company. Today, however, these two types have often merged into one complex type which “covers both interactive and non-interactive communication initiated by both supplier and client” (Ellerup Nielsen 2002: 7). In their 2012 edition of Principles of Marketing (p. 513), Kotler & Armstrong still put forward the same distinction,
whereas the 2016 edition (p. 540) distinguishes between *marketing Web sites* (which aim for direct purchases and other marketing outcomes) and *branded community Web sites* (which aim to engage consumers with the brand and create a brand community).

A corporate website is the company’s “business card” online, promoting and constructing the company in question, its image and values, and informing the prospective clients about products and services. While the first company websites were mere online brochures, today’s sites are becoming increasingly interactive with online shopping, feedback and consulting services. Many sites also offer direct links to blogs and other forms of corporate social media presence. The purposes of a corporate website are thus to attract the attention of prospective consumers and investors, to promote the company, its brand, products or services, to inform, persuade and to some extent also entertain the audience.

In order to attract the attention of prospective customers on a global basis, multinational companies publish their sites in different language versions, aimed at local markets. Many companies today use their corporate site as a powerful tool for constructing their corporate identity and building relationships with their stakeholders (Topalian 2003). Since many companies offer market specific sites where users can purchase products directly, the corporate site is often the only contact link between the company and its customers. Therefore, the corporate site has the crucial role of mediating the company image in different language versions.

The corporate website addresses many different audiences simultaneously. Esrock & Leichty (2000: 330) state that this also applies to single pages when asserting that “the corporate web page will usually be designed to address multiple audiences or publics” (my italisation). While this may be true of some pages, others have clearly defined and limited audiences. Also, whereas there might be hyperlinks on a page addressing audiences other than the one(s) of that particular page, they are often placed in link panes or elsewhere in the page frame, thus not interfering with the immediate page content. However, Esrock & Leichty point to an important feature of corporate pages, and the front page in particular: “[o]n the basis of the links on the page, Web sites can be viewed to infer which publics the corporation considers to be important and which ones are regarded to be of secondary significance” (2000: 331). The organisation of web page and web site content can thus reveal the primary and secondary audiences of a website.

The intended entrance to a corporate website is the homepage. A web user can of course enter a website anywhere, either by typing in the correct page address, or accessing the site via a link from a search engine. The designed entrance, however, is the homepage; for multinationals, it is the international homepage. Typing www.ibm.com thus takes the user to IBM’s international homepage (which is also its
US homepage). National sites are reached by choosing the country in a menu or on a map, or typing the country extension in the address bar (for example, www.ibm.se gives the Swedish homepage of IBM). The homepage provides a general overview of the site, with hyperlinks to different thematic sections. It is not, however, as detailed as a site map, which lists all pages and topics at hand. The homepage is also often used for current highlights: news bites, ongoing campaigns etc. Several corporate homepages today launch an animated introduction (created for instance with Flash) when one enters the page – this can, however often be avoided by clicking on “skip introduction”.

Typical contents of corporate sites have been identified by several researchers early on (see e.g. Perry & Bodkin 2000, Robbins & Stylianou 2003, Salvi et al 2007). Robbins & Stylianou (2003) include the following main features in their model of analysis: corporate information, communication/customer support, currency, financial information, employment opportunities and social issues. Corporate information provides background information on the company and its people, whereas communication/customer support includes contact details and FAQs. Currency refers to how current the content is and when it was last updated. Financial information contains e.g. annual reports and financial highlights, whereas employment opportunities lists current job openings and describes the company as an employer. Finally, social issues include everything from website user privacy to social responsibility and ethical issues (2003: 207).

Corporate websites are “closed” hierarchies, since they often contain none or very few external links. In an early study of computer hardware companies’ sites, Bolaños Medina et al. (2005) found that the companies were less prone to use external than internal links. Also, the existing external links were never placed at the top of the page since this is the privileged position for internal links. Instead, external links were found on the left side or at the bottom of the page. Companies are keen on keeping the visitors within their own site, which is created as a rather closed system. Even when external sources are quoted, it is rare to find links to these sources (Breeze 2013).

2.5 Website discourse and digital genres

The discourse on a web page can consist of verbal text, images, symbols, sound, video clips – and I see no reason not to include colours, typography and the entire architecture or design of the page. A website is thus a hybrid medium, combining different modes of expression. As websites are multimodal documents, a complete definition of website discourse needs to take this into account. Brügger (2009) calls the basic unit of analysis on a website the textual element, in which he includes written letters/characters, still images, moving images and sound. All textual
elements that work together on a page and a site could thus be labelled the discourse of a page – or a site, depending on the perspective. Multimodal analyses of websites and pages have been conducted by several scholars, for instance Pauwels (2005, 2012), Salvi et al. (2007), Djonov (2007, 2008), Garzone (2009), Hallett & Kaplan-Weinger (2010), Adami (2014) and the PAD Research Group (2016).

The multimodal nature of a web page and the intricate connections between the different elements cannot be ignored, and many scholars therefore recommend approaching web pages as visual units (see e.g. Djonov and Knox 2014). However, from a linguistic point of view, it is still the verbal language that carries most of the information value on corporate sites and pages (see also Caiazzo 2013). While images, sound and overall design contribute strongly to the overall message and image of the company, it is the written discourse that forms the core of the information for companies today, be it then external communication such as websites or newsletters, or internal communication. Naturally, there is bound to be exceptions to this. Companies focusing on media products and services, e.g. photography, film or advertising, probably store a great amount of their communication in these formats. Still, the written word is used to archive, describe and present these forms of communication. Salvi & al. (2007) also mention technical problems as an important reason for companies still relying heavily on written web page communication: depending on the connection type, some users experience difficulties and distraction when downloading multimodally rich contents.

For the purpose of this thesis, I adopt a narrow definition of website discourse, delimiting it to the written communication on web pages. This take on corporate website discourse thus encompasses all written verbal elements, including verbal hyperlinks, body text, headlines, lists and captions in images. The analysis divides the data into two dimensions: the hyperlinks and the unlinked verbal text.

The emergence of a new medium or media platform/environment such as the web does not automatically create new digital genres. Some genres have effortlessly migrated into the web, without major changes. Other genres adapt to the new medium, but still preserve enough of the old genre conventions to stay within that class. Over time, some of these might evolve into new online genres. Other genres mix and migrate, perhaps through interdiscursivity (Fairclough 1992), creating new hybrid genres. Finally, there are genres that could not exist offline, due to their unique electronic features and medium dependency. These form new web genres. Some reasonably established web genres include the personal home page (as described by Dillon & Gushrowski 2000), the blog (e.g. Herring et al. 2004, 2005), the corporate blog (Puschmann 2010), consumer communities on the web (Pollach 2008), and electronic magazines (e-zines) (Tereszkiewicz 2010). Giltrow & Stein (2009) argue that internet genres are more functionally oriented than traditional
The functions of internet genres change often, and define themselves at a low level: that is, they emerge over a series of interactions as internet users orient to one another’s moves and then transfer the newly-emergent norms to other CMC settings which in turn modify these norms“ (ibid.: 11). Traditional genres usually rely on conventionalised form-function relationships and lend themselves to linguistic description. Internet genres may indeed display some linguistic characteristics in common, but lend themselves mainly to pragmatic-functional description.

The genre system of the corporate website is a set of hybrid genres, often with their origin in one or many offline genres. While functional orientation may well have been more important than form-function relationships in its early days, the corporate website is nowadays an established piece of corporate communication, with its own norms and rules. The About Us section, or gateway, contains company information such as history, financial facts, values and mission: information that traditionally appeared in a static company brochure. Today the About Us section represents a combination of old and new, technologically afforded segments and forms a recognised section of the corporate website. The first page of the About Us section thus represents the gateway to the entire About Us genre (for a discussion on the genre About Us, see e.g. Casañ-Pitarch 2015). The Careers section has evolved from traditional job ads (Young & Foot 2005), adding other information on the way, along with the immediacy of the web environment. Therefore, the Careers section also falls within the hybrid genre class, and represents an independent genre type within the genre system of the corporate website. The first page of the Careers section is, like the About Us page above, the gateway to the entire section.

2.6 Research on corporate websites

The medium of the corporate website has attracted a lot of research interest during the last two decades. Marketing and management scholars have for instance looked into branding (Stuart & Jones 2004), content and design (Robbins & Stylianou 2003), social responsibility and ethical issues (Esrock & Leichty 2000, Campbell & Beck 2004), accounting (Debreceny & Grey 1999, Ettredge, Richardson & Scholz 2002), diversity (Point & Singh 2003) and advertising and PR (Esrock & Leichty 2000, Hwang, McMillan & Lee 2003). Within information management, investigated topics include for instance usability and design models (Palmer 2002) and knowledge management (Benbya, Passiante & Belbaly 2004). Cultural differences on corporate websites have been studied both from the corporate perspective, by analysing existing sites (see e.g. Yli-Jokipii 2001, Marcus, Baumgartner & Chen 2003) and the customer/user perspective (e.g. Cyr, Bonanni, Bowes & Ilsever 2005).
Whereas several studies of websites adopt content analysis or cultural models (e.g. Hofstede 2001; Hall 1976) as their main method of analysis, purely linguistic studies are not as common. However, studies of corporate websites using rhetorical analysis, genre analysis, discourse analysis and multimodal discourse analysis represent a constantly growing field of research.

Early studies of corporate websites strived to describe hypertext and its rhetorical features. In 2001, Yli-Jokipii compared the Finnish and English websites of a Finnish company in order to investigate culturally geared strategies and the genre of company information online. She also compared linear text to non-linear hypertext. The theoretical framework used includes genre theory and cultural studies. Yli-Jokipii found that the Finnish website contained detailed and itemised information and portrayed a retail-oriented strategy, whereas the English website reflected an investor-oriented strategy. She also concluded that in contrast to linear text, hypertext is characterised by a high rate of repetition and low macrolevel cohesion, i.e. no linguistically achieved cohesion between texts behind the first-level links. Interconnected texts on the same level in the site hierarchy are thus solitary units, which can be read as stand-alone pieces. Garzone (2002) used textlinguistic categories to investigate how the different linguistic and iconic components of a website interact in the construction of multiple meanings at three levels: the textuality of the text, the textuality of the page and the overarching level of hypertextuality. Her goal was to find a method to describe hypermedia computer-mediated text. She drew the conclusion that traditional models for linguistic and textual analysis need to be adapted and oriented towards a more generally semiotic approach.

Models for describing hypertext have been put forward by for instance Lemke (2002) and Pauwels (2005, 2012). Lemke conducts a detailed analysis of NASA web pages, where he combines hypertextuality with multimodality (Kress & van Leeuwen 2001) into a new hypermodality theory. According to Lemke, there are three sets of interdependent meanings in hypermodal discourse: presentational meanings, orientational meanings and organisational meanings. These meanings are based on the three metafunctions of functional grammar (Halliday 1994). He stresses that the meaning-making potential is increased when different modalities are combined, compared to the meaning potential of individual modalities. Pauwels (2012) suggests a multimodal framework for analysing cultural expression in websites, and also underlines that the elements that are found in different modalities of the page (visuals, textual, design elements etc.) can be either consistent or contradictory in their meaning. For example, an analysis of points of view and implied audiences through modes of address, camera angles, personal and possessive pronouns may reveal the dominant points of view, as well as primary and secondary audiences.
While the studies above build on all the modalities of a web page, Pollach (2003) conducts a functional analysis of text and hyperlinks in her study of how six case companies communicate corporate ethics on their websites. By combining concepts from the three metafunctions in her analysis, she provides insights on content choice and persuasive appeals (experiential function), address forms, addressees and viewpoints (interpersonal function) and hyperlinks as cohesive devices (textual function). The analysis reveals that even if the companies belong to three different ethics paradigms, they use rather similar strategies for choosing content, presenting themselves, addressing their stakeholders and organising their messages through hyperlinks.

In a later study, Pollach (2005) used a combination of content analysis, quantitative linguistic analysis and discourse analysis to investigate corporate self-presentation on the web. The data included pages from the About Us website section of 20 companies with an English-language background. The findings indicated shortcomings in the self-presentation of the investigated companies. First of all, the navigation architecture could often be improved in order to increase site usability. Secondly, message credibility could be enhanced by substantiating the claims about the company and avoiding overstatements. Thirdly, the site utility for both companies and audiences could be improved by increasing dialogue and interaction with the different audiences. In short, Pollach called for a more user-centred approach in the companies’ communication style.

In a 2007 article, Salvi & Turnbull investigated corporate websites as voices of authority, focusing on the autobiographical notes of corporate founders. The framework used is Appraisal theory (Martin & White 2005), and the article discusses the role of appraisal in the expression of authority. In the same year, Salvi, Turnbull & Montecilli (2007) investigated the English used by Italian companies on their website, contrasting the results with British corporate websites. Findings painted a rather different picture of Italian and British companies as regards the relationship with the clients. Whereas British companies tended to refer to themselves and their audience by *we* and *you* and tried to engage their audience in a dialogue, the Italian companies often adopted a more distant stance and used 3rd person style in English.

In her broad introduction to corporate discourse, Breeze (2013) includes a section on corporate websites. She presents an overview of the About Us pages from FTSE top-100 companies (The Financial Times Stock Exchange 100 Index), focusing on the range of discoursal strategies that the companies deploy in these pages. According to the investigated sample, the companies use multiple channels in presenting themselves (text, images, colour, video clips) and structure their information textually as to create a “dynamic, forward-looking, human, responsible view of the company” (2013: 162f). The About Us pages uses the corporate *we* to
address the users, who are either constructed as an interested party in general, or given more specific roles, such as investor or consumer. Poppi (2013), who uses a rhetorical framework adapted from Isaksson and Jørgensen 2010, discusses the references to the company and their audiences in terms of a dialogic register. This kind of register also encompasses direct appeals, exclamations, rhetorical questions and references to the local communicative context (Poppi 2013: 170ff). According to Poppi, the companies adopt a dialogic register in order to empathically engage their readers or stakeholders when conveying their image. Empathy forms part of the three-fold rhetorical model by Isaksson and Jørgensen, and is combined with expertise and trustworthiness in companies’ self-presentations in their About Us pages.

Corporate websites have also been approached from a metadiscursal perspective by e.g. Ivorra Perez (2014), who investigated cultural differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse by Spanish and American toy companies. Of special interest are the results on engagement markers and self-mention, which can be directly connected to references to the audiences and the company in text. The investigated US companies tend to engage more explicitly with their audience than the Spanish companies, through e.g. personal pronouns, imperatives and questions. The US companies also use company personification strategies together with first person plural and first person singular pronouns. In a later article comparing Spanish, British and US toy selling websites, Ivorra Pérez (2015) found that the US websites adopted an explicit and direct way of communicating with consumers, through frequent use of imperatives and second-person pronouns. The Spanish sites used an implicit, third-person style, whereas the British site made use of both explicit and implicit strategies. Similar results were found by Suau-Jiménez (2017) who compared English and Spanish e-tourism websites with a focus on reader engagement.

Another online source for promotional discourse are university websites, which due to pressure of globalisation and marketisation today often present education in terms of products to the prospective students, who now resemble customers (see e.g. Fairclough 2010, Saichaie 2011). In a study on the English versions of Italian university websites, Ferrarrotti (2013) found that personal pronouns are used as part of a promotional strategy, both to persuade the students and to bond with them. Caiazzo (2013), who investigated British university sites, concluded that even if the factual discourse on the ‘About’ pages is dominated by verb phrases expressing existence and relationship, other elements in the accompanying clauses express stance. The factual information can thus be filtered through e.g. value-laden words, first person subjects and reader pronouns. In a study on two Australian university websites, Hoang & Rojas-Lizana (2015) found differences in how the two institutions
constructed their own identity and interpersonal relations in discourse. One university remained distant, referring to itself through nouns taking a subject position, thus promoting its own authority and passivising the students. The other university downplayed its authority and stressed the interpersonal relations by using personal pronouns for both themselves and the audience, and by giving the students a voice through e.g. testimonials and an active role in discourse. The writers conclude that in this case university representation is clearly affected by both globalisation and marketisation, but also by institutional status and reputation.

Many of the studies above are directly concerned with how companies refer to themselves and their audience, and construct themselves and their audiences in discourse. Especially Pollach (2003, 2005), Poppi (2013), Caiazzo (2013) and Hoang & Rojas-Lizada (2015) provide many insights into the use of style and grammar to project the participants in discourse, from different perspectives. This thesis investigates how the company describes itself and its audiences in verbal web page text, with focus on references to the company and the audience, and what roles they are assigned in the clause as expressed through transitivity.

2.7 Hyperlinking

Berners-Lee & Fischetti (1999) defines the link as a reference from one document to another, or from one location in the same document to another that can be followed efficiently using a computer. The link is the unit of connection in hypertext. Or as Crystal (2006: 2010) puts it: “The hypertext link is the most fundamental structural property of the Web, without which the medium would not exist”. While page-internal links help the user to move on a page without scrolling, the page-external links hold a website together, or point outside the site. The link has two roles in hypertext: navigational and representational (Garzotto et al. 1993: 9). On the one hand it helps the user to navigate the Web; on the other hand it also describes the relation between pages.

While links facilitate movement between the pages of a website, they also restrict movement (Burbules 2002) since the visitor is bound by the choices made by the author of the page and can only choose whether or not to follow a suggested link. Apart from the navigational function, Burbules (2002: 75f) also stresses the semantic value of links. A link from one page to another suggests a meaningful association between the two – a meaning which is governed by both the author’s choices and the reader’s interpretation. Burbules argues for a critical reading of web pages and especially links, so that we as users do not take the navigational paths for granted, but question what has been left out and find our own way around the web. The move from one page to another through a link happens so quickly that we do not usually reflect on this transaction; the link-event is invisible to us. Focusing on the link itself,
and the associations it awakens, can reveal the author’s strategies for connecting two pages. Whereas the links are thus affected by the ideologies of the issuing actor, the users’ interpretation of the links is simultaneously affected by their own ideologies (Harrison 2002). The semantic value of links is also at the core of Harrison’s (2002) classification of hyperlinks. She focuses on organisational/informational websites and categorises the links according to their rhetorical function into authorising, commenting, enhancing, exemplifying, mode-changing, referencing/citing and self-selecting. Section 2.8 below elaborates on Harrison’s classification scheme.

Laine (2004: 45) compares the hyperlink to a signpost on the Web. The signpost itself is usually marked by underlining, a special font or colour or a change in the cursor shape, while the link label constitutes the text on the signpost. The link label (or anchor) can be a character, word, phrase, icon, picture or graphic design, or part of a picture or a graphic design (Bonime & Pohlmann 1997: 20-21). Stone et al. (2005: 343) identify three types of hyperlinks on websites: structural navigation links, associative links and “see also” links. The structural navigation links (see also Nielsen 1999: 51) outline the structure of the site and point to other web pages within the site. Djonov (2007) calls these website-internal links, as they connect pages belonging to the same site. Associative links are page-internal and point to different parts of the page content. This link type is less common on corporate and other organisational pages, as it requires a larger mass of content, which needs to be interrupted by indexing links or page-internal navigational links in order to facilitate reading. Finally, “see also” links point outside the website, often to related sites. This type of link, which I would rather call website-external (e.g. Djonov (2007), is rare on corporate sites, since companies want their audiences to stay within the boundaries of their own site.

A systemic-functional approach to website hierarchy and links is adopted by e.g. Djonov (2007) and Adami (2014). Djonov’s main aim is to develop new tools for investigating the interaction between website design and use, and her systemic functional definition of website hierarchy forms the basis for this. Adami presents a multimodal framework for the analysis of website interactivity, based on what she calls the “two-fold nature” (2014: 136) of hyperlinks. She defines the clickable areas of hypertext as interactive sites/signs, which are both places where the users can act, and signifieds, sharing a meaning component. Furthermore, the hyperlinks work on two dimensions, as signs within the page and as gateways to other pages or contents. Combined with the three metafunctions of language, Adami’s model presents an interesting perspective on the multimodal analysis of hypertext.
2.8 The rhetorical functions of links

Harrison (2002) states that hypertext can be defined as a web of relationships. The relationship between two linked items of information has a meaning: a semantic value. The link in a hypertext always reflects someone’s point of view: the creator of that particular link has made a choice and, as Burbules (2002) pointed out, the user can only choose whether or not to follow it. Hypertexts are based on the ideologies of the communities from which they emerge, and these ideologies can create, enhance or restrict users’ access to information (Harrison 2002). At the same time, however, the users’ route through the hypertext and their understanding of the semantic relationships created by links are affected by the users’ own ideological background.

According to Harrison (2002), the most important purpose of organisational/informational websites is to persuade the users and keep their attention. Despite the advanced ways of online persuasion that exist today (graphics, multimedia etc.), internal links still have a crucial rhetorical function since they represent the oldest, most conventional, and most stable web tool for persuasion. Based on the two principles of linking, i.e. that links are semantic by nature and rhetorical in purpose, Harrison (ibid.) presents a classification scheme for links. The classification was first presented in Hammerich & Harrison 2002 (pp.185-191), and according to Harrison, the classification scheme works for most types of links on most organisational/informational websites. Harrison underlines that a link can have one or more functions; therefore the classes are, or can be, overlapping.

On corporate websites, authorising links give access to official and legal information that authenticates the site. Examples include “Copyright”, “Terms and Conditions of Use”, “Privacy Policy” and “Legal Information”. This type of links typically occurs at the bottom of every page within the website. Other authorising links are for example those that link to a statement by the CEO (sometimes signed), a speech or a video clip of the CEO or other board member. Harrison also lists “About Us” or “Company Profile” as authorising links. It seems to me, however, that these links function differently than e.g. “Privacy policy”. “About Us” or “Company Profile” usually comprises an entire section with information on the company, and all of this information is not necessarily authenticating. Nonetheless, this link is a trust-enhancing device for users. Or as Nielsen & Tahir (2002: 46) put it: “To establish credentials as a bona fide company, you must give users an easy way to discover your company’s background from the homepage”.

Commenting links can provide either external or internal opinions on the company and its website. Customer testimonials give external opinion, whereas employee testimonials give internal views on e.g. working for a company. “Press Releases” link the user to commentary about the company’s recent activities. A fairly
recent form of commentary is the employee blogs, which are linked to the corporate website. Harrison points out that the line between commenting and enhancing links can be a fine one, and it is ultimately the user who decides whether to treat something as opinion or fact.

*Enhancing* links are the most common type of link on corporate websites. They can link to greater detail, for instance “Read More”, “Product Information”, and “Diversity”. However, according to Harrison, enhancing links can also work the other way around and provide the bigger picture. Examples include “Home”, “Site Map” and “Site Help”.

*Exemplifying* links provide access to specific information within general categories. Links to individual products or specific job openings illustrate of exemplifying links on corporate websites. However, as the exemplifying links often have an enhancing or commenting function, they are difficult to separate from these categories. For example, the general category “Benefits” may include the specific categories “Cash compensation”, “Income protection” and “Healthcare benefits”, which in turn function as enhancing links to that particular topic. In such cases, I will classify the hyperlinks according to their primary function (i.e. exemplifying).

*Mode-changing* links take the users from the activity of reading to another kind of activity. On corporate websites, this can for instance include filling out a form (“Subscribe to our e-letter”, “Online application”), buying products (“Add to cart”, “Buy now”), contacting the company (“Email us”, “Chat now”), downloading files, watching a video, listening to a speech or playing a game.

Since corporate websites are usually closed networks, external referencing/citing is very rare. Examples include links to certifying bodies and links to subsidiaries or associated companies.

The *self-selecting* links give the user the possibility to narrow their search by tailoring the offered information to their age, interests, location and so on. On corporate websites, typical examples include “Choose your location”, “Change country”, “For journalists”, “Corporate customers”, “Home office” and “Job seekers”. The sites can also offer ready-made drop-down menus with clickable choices.

Given the overlapping nature of the categories, one link on the corporate site can have many rhetorical functions simultaneously. Identifying the primary function of a hyperlink largely depends on the analytical focus and to what means the analysis is conducted. If, for instance, the analysis is concerned with different voices and participant perspectives present on a website, the category expressing a certain participant perspective (e.g. commenting) might be labelled as primary over another, overlapping function which is purely informative (e.g. exemplifying). For the purpose of this thesis I adopt a grouping of Harrison’s function categories into three
perspectives: the corporate, the informative and the audience perspective. The corporate perspective is represented by the authorising links, whereas the informative perspective consists of the enhancing, the exemplifying, the commenting and the referencing/citing link types. Finally, the audience perspective is represented by the mode-changing and the self-selecting link types.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Link</th>
<th>Primary function</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authorising</td>
<td>Describes an organisation’s legal, formal policies, contact information, etc. that authenticate the site and its content.</td>
<td>- About Us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Customer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Service Policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commenting</td>
<td>Provides opinion about the site and/or its content.</td>
<td>- Press releases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Testimonials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing</td>
<td>Provides more factual information about site content by offering greater detail or painting the “bigger picture”.</td>
<td>- Guidelines for Membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Site Map</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplifying</td>
<td>Provides a specific example of content within a broader category.</td>
<td>- Future Events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Today’s Horoscopes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode-Changing</td>
<td>Moves users from the reading mode to one that requires a different kind of activity.</td>
<td>- Online Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Shopping Cart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referencing/Citing</td>
<td>Provides information that “informs” or supplements the site’s content.</td>
<td>- Bibliography</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Related Links</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Selecting</td>
<td>Allows users to narrow a search by making choices based on their age, sex, geographical location, life situation, personal interests, and so on.</td>
<td>- For Seniors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Your Local Chapter</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3 INTERACTION IN LANGUAGE

This chapter introduces the framework for interaction that is used in this thesis. I present different perspectives on interaction in writing, including interaction/interactivity, involvement, interpersonality, metadiscourse and intersubjectivity. The chapter ends with a summary of the relevant concepts and ideas as applied to this study.

3.1 Interaction and interactivity

As stated in chapter 1, interaction can be defined on many levels. On websites, one can differentiate between the real interaction between the text producers and the end users, and the interaction that is projected onto the main participants in text: the company and its audiences. Through this textually projected interaction, one arrives at the abstract notion of interaction between the company and its audiences.

In research on websites, interaction is often understood as the realisation of interactive features, i.e. how the website users act upon the interactive features provided. Interactivity is an elusive concept; it is widely used by media but carry different meanings to different people. Publications on the topic suggest that the concept is complex and multifaceted, and changes according to context (see e.g. Dholakia et al. 2000, McMillan 2002, Kiousis 2002, Cover 2006). A brief discussion of interactivity in new media is therefore in order.

Within the field of telecommunications and information marketing, Dholakia et al. (2000) suggest a framework for assessing the interactivity of websites. Interactivity, according to them, rests on the idea of communication exchange between participants, who are perceived to be present on the website. Following an extensive review of previous definitions of interactivity, Dholakia et al. argue that six components are crucial: user control, responsiveness, real time interactions, connectedness, personalisation/customisation, and playfulness. Gustavsen and Tilley, who loosely define interactivity on websites as “the levels of reciprocity provided by a site during the process of using it” (2003: 2), apply Dholakia et al.’s dimensions in their analysis. Kiousis also surveys previous literature, and concludes with the following concept definition (2002:372):

Interactivity can be defined as the degree to which a communication technology can create a mediated environment in which participants can communicate (one-to-one, one-to-many, and many-to-many), both synchronously and asynchronously, and participate in reciprocal message exchanges (third-order dependency). With regard to human users, it additionally refers to their ability to
perceive the experience as a simulation of interpersonal communication and increase their awareness of telepresence.

Key features of interactivity are thus not only the different levels, but also its process-like nature, in describing a sequence of communicative actions (see also e.g. van Dijk & de Vos 2001, Cover 2006). Moreover, for human users it implies a sense of perceived presence in a simulated interpersonal communication (what Kiousis calls ‘telepresence’). To conclude, within new media studies, the concept of interactivity refers to different levels of concrete communication enabled between participants. Interactivity thus facilitates concrete interactions. In this thesis, I will not investigate interactivity per se, as defined by Kiousis and Dholakia. Instead, I will use the term to refer to all technical possibilities for real interaction between participants on a website. These include for instance feedback forms, chat facilities, message boards, blogs and other web-hosted social media platforms.

3.2 Involvement and detachment

Involvement is a concept used mainly within the area of linguistic pragmatics. It was first introduced in the early eighties by two scholars of different disciplines. Gumperz (1982), who worked within interactional sociolinguistics, saw ‘conversational involvement’ as a prerequisite for understanding and successful interaction: “Once involved in a conversation, both speaker and hearer must actively respond to what transpires by signaling involvement, either directly through words or indirectly through gestures or similar nonverbal signals” (1982: 1). Speakers adopt a variety of strategies to actively “create involvement and cooperate in the joint development of specific themes” (1982: 206). Chafe (1982), who investigated differences between spoken and written language, introduced ‘involvement’ as one of his functional parameters. According to Chafe (1982: 41ff), speakers interact with their audiences, whereas writers do not. Writing is characterised by the opposite of involvement, ‘detachment’, manifested in the frequent use of passive and nominalisations. ‘Involvement’ is typical of spoken language and is manifested through for instance first person references, speaker’s mental processes and emphatic particles. Chafe states that “second person reference would seem to be also a symptom of involvement” (1982: 46).

Tannen (1984) uses ‘involvement’ when discussing communication strategies of participants in a conversation. Her two main strategies, ‘involvement’ and ‘considerateness’ are based on positive and negative politeness, as defined by Brown and Levinson (1987 [1978]) in their theory of politeness. In an earlier article, Tannen (1982) claims that features of involvement, as defined by Chafe, in fact can cut across different genres, and also occur in written discourse. Chafe and Danielewicz (1987)
later recognise that involvement and detachment are in fact contextually determined. Another scholar following Chafe is Östman (1986), who includes Chafe’s scale of involvement and detachment in his own larger parameter of Involvement. Östman’s pragmatic theory consists of three parameters: Coherence, Politeness and Involvement. Involvement is the most implicit parameter, since it, in contrast to the others, stems from within the individual and not from outside. Östman defines Involvement as “that principle of pragmatics which deals with how the choice of a linguistic element contributes to expressing the speaker’s feelings, attitudes, and prejudices toward the topic, the medium and the time lapse” (1986: 201f).

Within corpus linguistics, Biber (e.g. 1986, 1988, 1995, 2006) uses factor analysis to identify groups of linguistic features that co-occur frequently in discourse. He includes ‘involvement’ in number 1 of his textual dimensions, labelled ‘Informational versus Involved Production’. On the involved end of the dimension, we find features with a considerable positive weight on Factor 1, for instance first and second person pronouns, and WH-questions. On the informational end we find features with a negative weight on Factor 1, like infrequent occurrences of nouns, long words and more varied vocabulary. In his investigation of speech and writing, Biber arrives at the conclusion that “there are several dimensions of variation, and particular types of speech and writing are more or less similar with respect to each dimension” (1988: 199). However, in an investigation of university language almost two decades later, he concludes that “the distinction between speech and writing is by far the most important factor in determining the overall patterns of linguistic variation across university registers” (2006: 213). Biber’s dimensions continue to be used within corpus linguistics (see e.g. Biber, Conrad & Reppen 1998, Biber & Finegan 1994, Conrad & Biber 2001, Reppen, Fitzmaurice & Biber 2002).

The concept of involvement has been criticised for being too fuzzy to serve as a tool for analysis, and lacking clear-cut categories (see e.g. Besnier 1994). It can still be useful in explaining the results of large-scale quantitative analyses such as Biber’s, where it represents one end of a continuum. With Biber’s dimensions as a basis, it is possible to draw at least some conclusions also from a smaller material (cf. O’Keefe 2002). I would thus describe a text which displays a high relative degree of personal pronouns, questions and imperatives, and a low degree of e.g. nouns, long words and attributive adjectives as involved.

### 3.3 The interpersonal function of language

Systemic-functional linguistics rests on the assumption that meaning in language is realised through three metafunctions of language: the experiential, the interpersonal and the textual. The experiential function involves using language to talk about our
experience of the world, whereas the interpersonal function is used to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relationships with them. Finally, the textual function comprises language used to organize the message in a way that fits the situation of talking or writing. The metafunctions are closely connected with the three dimensions field, tenor and mode, reflecting social activity, relationships, and the role of language in the situation respectively (Halliday 1994, Thompson 2004).

The interpersonal metafunction is determined by tenor, which refers to the relationship between participants in a discourse situation. Halliday distinguishes between social roles of the first and second order. First order roles are independent of language, whereas second order roles are defined by the linguistic system. A mother talking to her child would thus be an example of first order roles: these roles are independent of the linguistic system, but they are typically reflected in the language used as a result of role-projecting behaviour (Halliday 1978: 144). Roles of the second order are, for example, those of ‘questioner’ and ‘answerer’. Second order roles are often labelled speech roles (Halliday 1994) and they are not static, but change according to context and the unfolding discourse. The two basic speech roles in any exchange are those of giving and demanding (information, or goods & services).

In the discourse of a website, first order roles could technically be defined as producer and user of the site. In the case of corporate websites, the general roles can be specified as ‘company’ and ‘audiences’, both very broad concepts comprising a multitude of different actors. The company’s voice can include the employees, the executives, the sales and marketing departments, technical writers, translators, web designers and so on. Together, they all make up the company as it is represented online, and therefore I choose to use ‘company’ as first-order role for the site producer. The ‘audiences’ are also a collection of different actors, for instance consumers, businesses, investors, journalists and job-seekers. All these and other possible users of a site I label ‘audiences’.

As I see it, the general second-order roles of the company and its audiences would be ‘informer’ and ‘persuader’ (company) and ‘information receiver’ (audience). However, depending on what pages and which sections are investigated, roles will change locally. Even within the same text, second-order roles may change through the co-occurrence of declaratives, interrogatives and commands attributed to the participants in discourse.

3.4 Interaction as metadiscourse

Metadiscourse refers to the different ways “writers project themselves into their discourse to signal their attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text” (Hyland and Tse 2004: 156). Writing is seen as social engagement and many
scholars working on metadiscourse have sought their inspiration from functional grammar and its three metafunctions (e.g. Vande Kopple 1985, Crismore et al. 1993). The metalinguistic data are claimed to fulfil either a text-organising function as *textual metadiscourse*, or convey the writer’s attitudes as *interpersonal metadiscourse*.

Hyland (e.g. 2005a, 2005b, 2017) who works mainly within the field of academic discourse, addresses interaction in writing with the help of *stance* and *engagement*. In his 2005 article, he presents an interaction framework based on Halliday’s systemic-functional grammar, and particularly on the interpersonal component of that grammar. The model starts from the assumption that the producers of text actively position and project both themselves and their readers in text in order to achieve interaction. Stance thus includes hedges, boosters, attitude marker and self-mention, whereas engagement includes reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge and personal asides (2005a: 177). Of particular interest to this study are the writer’s self-mentions and reader pronouns, along with the directives and questions since these explicitly reflect the discourse participants of writers and readers. However, Hyland does not differentiate between different types of stance and engagement, but lists all features directly under the headings. Consequently, categories of form and function are mixed in the model.

In his book on metadiscourse, Hyland (2005b) further refines his model into a framework for interaction in text through metadiscourse. In this model, a distinction is made between *interactive* and *interactional* metadiscourse. Interactive metadiscourse refers to features that help to guide the reader in the text, whereas interactional metadiscourse serves to involve the reader in the text. Thus, the previous interaction model with stance and engagement forms the new category of interactional metadiscourse. *Hedges, boosters, attitude markers* and *self-mention* are presented as separate subcategories, whereas all of the former engagement types are lumped together under the heading *engagement markers*. Hyland’s model builds on earlier models of metadiscourse, notably that by Crismore et al. (1993). The terms are, however, different: while Crismore distinguished between *textual* and *interpersonal* metadiscourse, adopting the Hallidayan terms, Hyland applies the labels of Thompson and Thetela (1995, see 3.5 below) for organisational (*interactive*) and evaluative (*interactional*) features of interaction. According to Hyland, all metadiscourse is interpersonal “in that it takes account of reader’s knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs […]” (Hyland and Tse 2004: 161). I agree with this idea, but due to the scope of this study I choose to focus on the explicit positioning and projecting of the participants, in this case the interactional features referring directly to the writers and the readers in the text. For analytical purposes and for the sake of clarity, this thesis will also keep the writer and reader references
apart, as well as the different types of engagement markers. In order to do so, I turn to Thompson and Thetela’s model, which is a general framework for interaction in language.

### 3.5 Interpersonal systems

Like Hyland’s model, Thompson and Thetela’s (1995) model of interaction in writing is based on Halliday’s interpersonal component of language, and assumes that writers project both themselves and their readers in text in order to achieve interaction. Thompson and Thetela (1995) state that while many studies of interaction in both spoken and written discourse using a functional approach have been conducted, none of these present systematic guidelines for identifying signals of interaction in written text. They therefore propose their own model, called Interpersonal systems (see Figure 3.1. below, adapted from Thompson & Thetela 1995: 107). The dotted lines in the model signal a continuum between the realisation forms in the rightmost part of the figure: the enacted roles can thus range from direct to indirect speech acts, whereas the projected roles vary between overt naming and third person labelling. The model is based on their own analyses of interaction in various genres, including school textbooks, theses, academic papers, advertisements, newspaper reports and leader articles, short stories and novels, instruction leaflets, tourist guides and business and academic oral presentations (Thompson & Thetela 1995: 125). In the article, the model is applied to written advertisements. Thompson and Thetela argue that the choices in their model are available for both spoken and written discourse, but they will work differently depending on the medium.

In building on Halliday’s interpersonal function of language, Thompson and Thetela choose to treat mood and modality separately for practical analytical purposes. Mood is the grammatical system that forms role relationships between the speaker or writer and the hearer or reader, whereas modality is the system for the speaker’s or writer’s assessment of the truth of their message. The interpersonal function is jointly realised by the personal (modality) and the interactional (mood) function. The personal function comprises the speaker’s own views, as manifested in modal and evaluative choices. The interactional function covers discourse features which set up interactional expectations through enacted roles (Halliday’s ‘speech roles’, cf. 3.3.) and projected roles. Enacted roles are realised with the help of mood, whereas projected roles are assigned by explicit labelling of the participants, or by ascribing roles to them. Enacted roles are always present, whereas the text producer can choose whether or not to project roles. The personal and the interactional functions in the model can be realised more or less explicitly, on an implicit/explicit continuum.
Thompson and Thetela (1995), Thompson (2001) and Hyland (2005b) all distinguish two types of interaction in discourse. On the one hand, the writer uses text-organising resources in anticipating the readers’ reactions and guiding them through the text. On the other hand, writers can use resources to involve the reader directly in the argument of the text; these include modality, evaluation and the assigning of speech roles to themselves and the readers. Both Thompson and Hyland label the former interactive resources. The latter are termed interactional resources, which clashes with the earlier model by Thompson and Thetela, in which interactional stands only for the enacted and projected roles. I recognize the existence of two types of interaction, and support the distinction. In order not to mix the terms I choose to follow Thompson and Thetela’s division; however, without using the term interactional. Instead, I will speak directly of enacted and projected roles.

In order to distinguish between real writers and readers, and writers and readers as they are projected into the text, Thompson and Thetela use the terms reader-in-the-text and writer-in-the-text. The projecting is always done by the writer, and the real reader can, of course, reject the projection. Nevertheless, rejected or not by a real reader, the projection still serves an interpersonal function (Thompson and Thetela 1995: 109, Thompson 2001: 60). Thompson (2001, 2012) states that he prefers the term reader-in-the-text to other possible concepts, for instance ideal reader (e.g. Culler 1982), because it “highlights the central importance of evidence from the text”
Other related concepts include model reader (Eco 1979), ideal subject (Talbot 1992) and implied reader (Iser 1974). For recent studies of projected roles in text, see e.g. Breeze (2015) on newspaper editorials and Tolvanen (2016) on institutional texts in Swedish.

3.6 Intersubjectivity

Interaction in writing has also been discussed in terms of intersubjectivity. According to Traugott (2010: 32) “the very fact of communicating with another person entails general intersubjectivity”. Thompson (2012) distinguishes between two strands of studies of intersubjectivity: one within historical linguistics, focusing on grammar and pragmatics at the clause level, and the other within discourse analysis, focusing on realisations of intersubjectivity in discourse at the textual level. Traugott (1982, 2010) represents the historical linguist with a diachronic view on texts and defines intersubjectivity as “relationship to the addressee and the addressee’s face” (2010: 30). The notion of intersubjectivity is separated from subjectivity, which refers to the “relationship to the speaker and the speaker’s beliefs and attitudes” (ibid.: 30).

Whereas Traugott focuses on linguistic markers and expressions that index subjectivity and intersubjectivity, that is, starts from specific forms, Thompson takes a discoursal perspective and tries to explore the different ways in which intersubjectivity can be expressed in discourse, by a variety of forms (Thompson 2012: 77f). This discoursal and dialogistic view of discourse has its origins in Bakhtin (1986), who argues that every utterance responds to previous utterances, while at the same time anticipating future responses. Thompson (ibid.) lists a number of resources that so far have been found to contribute to the intersubjective construal of the reader-in-the-text, but stresses that the list is by no means exhaustive, but open-ended. Traugott (2007: 298) states that the intersubjective resources “are largely limited to certain turn-taking contexts that are bracketed by hedging discourse markers like well, tags like clause-final right?, addressee-oriented expressions such as question-markers, or, more generally, addressee honorifics”. To this, Thompson (2012: 81) adds for instance interactant pronouns, non-declarative mood choices, modalisation, evaluation and unattributed/general mental and verbal processes.

3.7 Summary

All of the theoretical concepts presented above, albeit originating in different linguistic disciplines, are of relevance to this thesis. Interactivity refers to all the technical possibilities for real interaction on a webpage, including hyperlinks, whereas interaction will be used in the sense of enacted and projected interaction in
discourse. Involvement will not be further discussed, but is nevertheless present in the sense of involved versus detached text production. Involvement in text would thus be reflected in the use of first and second person pronouns, directives and questions, whereas detachment is reflected in third person pronouns, nominalisations and statements.

The interpersonal function of language is present throughout the study, both in the models used and the interpretation of the results. Whereas metadiscourse lies beyond the scope of this thesis, Hyland’s model provides useful tools for describing interaction in writing, particularly in the form of self-mention, reader pronouns, directives and questions. These tools are also incorporated in the model of interpersonal systems, where the enacted roles include mood, whereas the projected roles encompass pronouns and other forms of naming the interactants. The projected roles, moreover, also include the option of ascribing roles to the participants at the clause level (see further Chapter 4). Finally, the discoursal view of intersubjectivity underpins this study, as it reflects a dialogistic perspective on discourse, while also incorporating concrete linguistic resources to achieve intersubjectivity, such as interactant pronouns, mood and process roles.
4 WEB PAGE PARTICIPANTS

Throughout their communication, companies seek to create and maintain their identity both verbally and visually. The act of branding is today more or less synonymous with creating and sustaining a corporate identity (Allen & Simmons 2003). Whereas the verbal identity is reflected in the language used, the visual identity comprises all the graphic elements supporting the brand. One of the main components of the verbal identity is the company name, but it is not complete without the logotype, symbols and colours supporting it visually. Other means of expressing verbal identity include, for instance, the use of taglines, stories and tone of voice (see for instance Allen & Simmons 2003, Kaputa 2012).

Verbal identity can also be labelled brand tone of voice, brand language and language identity (Delin 2005). Delin (2005: 10) defines ‘tone of voice’ as “the language styles or registers that a company uses to express a distinctive personality or set of values that will differentiate its brand from those of others”. In order not to confuse the term with linguistic uses of tone and voice, I prefer the term verbal identity, which is also easily paired with and distinguished from visual identity.

Branding and the creation of verbal identity also involve the projection of the stakeholders. The relational work expressed in the projection of other participants (the stakeholders) contributes to the company image and identity. The corporate identity is thus socially constructed both in the projected interaction and real interaction with its stakeholders. According to Koller (2009: 267) companies “can be seen as social agents, engaging in relational behaviour with stakeholders”. In doing so, they constantly create and project a corporate self. The main aims are to maximise profit and shareholder value. As part of her study on brands as socio-cognitive representations in discourse, Koller analyses the grammatical personification of brands in discourse in terms of individualised and collectivised actors, and their agency.

But who are these actors or participants? This chapter focuses on the two main web page participants investigated in this study: the web page producer (‘the company’), and those who use the pages (‘the audiences’). I present three perspectives on participants in text. The first part (4.1) discusses the different forms of participant realisation in text, including the use of nouns common and proper, and pronouns. The second part (4.2) presents the semantic roles of the participants in text, based on a transitivity analysis in the systemic functional tradition. The third part (4.3) introduces speech roles.
4.1 Realisation forms

4.1.1 Common and proper nouns

The group of nouns falls into common nouns and proper nouns (names). Common nouns and proper nouns can be substituted by any of the three person categories: first, second or third person, depending on the communicative situation. Names and common nouns are typically, but not always, used when introducing new items in discourse, whereas pronouns are used for repeated reference (see Ariel 1990, Gundel 1993, Wales 1996). As a form of reference, proper names are usually limited to human beings, animals, machines, artefacts, social institutions, places and times associated with them (Allerton 1987, 1996). In the selection between a proper name or a definite noun phrase as a form of third person reference in a certain situation, language users seem to be affected by both the speaker’s and the addressee’s standpoint (Allerton 1996). When referring to a person or a place, factors such as shared and presupposed knowledge and insider/outsider status of the participants influence the choice, as well as the relationship to the third person entity in terms of, for instance, loyalty or belonging.

On corporate websites, the most salient example of name use is the company name or brand, mentioned on top of a page in the form of a logotype, with or without an accompanying brand tagline. The name functions as the main identifier of the corporate voice, and also adds credibility to the page contents. This logotype often also works as help in navigating the corporate site, as it is linked to the starting page. Other names that are usually present on corporate websites are representatives of the company (executives, named employees), clients, and names of subsidiaries and associated companies.

When the participants are not named, common nouns are used to classify (Fairclough 2010) both the company and audiences participants, either individually or as groups. The corporate participant can be identified with general nouns such as company, enterprise, corporation, and business. These can, of course, occur together with one or several modifiers, as in the world’s largest research-based pharmaceutical company. Another type of nouns includes those that describe the company in a specific role, for instance employer and innovator. Nouns are also used to specify different parts of the company (marketing, sales, headquarters) and the people that form the company (people, employees, CEO, sales representative).

General nouns referring to the audience include for instance users and people. The audience can also be classified into different interest groups, such as investors, journalists, patients, customers, students and professionals. These labels can occur both in the text itself and in hyperlinks; when used as hyperlink labels, Harrison
(2002) calls these links *self-selecting*, since they enable the site users to choose contents according to their own preferences and interests.

According to Gatti (2011: 491), noun referencing on corporate websites “produces the effect of an objective account of knowledge, a more factual description of events”, which may increase the company’s credibility in the eyes of the stakeholders. A formal structure that uses nouns instead of pronouns also strengthens the message of corporate competence. On the contrary, using personal pronouns in corporate discourse points to relationships between the company and its audiences; furthermore, the use of first-person pronouns suggests that the writer focuses on beliefs rather than facts (Pollach 2005). Repetition of the company name conveys “salience of the protagonist”, and therefore increases brand retention (Gatti 2011: 491). Self-mention by recurrent use of the company name can also accentuate the positive evaluation of the company as a responsible decision-maker (Samson 2007). In the context of product presentations, frequent repetition of the company name has also been found to underscore the technical superiority of the company’s products (Samson 2010).

### 4.1.2 Pronouns

The interpersonal pronouns of *I, we* and *you* are traditionally seen as having an exophoric, deictic function (Wales 1996: 50f). They refer to the speakers in a speech situation and have referents which shift according to the situation and the turn-taking. Hence, to describe this shift in point of view, first and second person pronouns are labelled ‘shifters’ by Jespersen (1922:123) and Jakobson (1990 [1957]). The traditional paradigm for person deixis can be described with the semantic features for speaker (S) and addressee (A), creating the roles of first person (+S), second person (+A) and a third person, which is non-deictic, with speaker and addressee exclusion (-S, -A) (Burley 1970: 14-16, Levinson 1983: 69). It is important to remember, as Siewierska (2004) points out, that the grammatical category of person behaves differently depending on which pronoun is concerned. The first and second person pronouns reflect the *discourse roles* of a speaker and addressee, and not simply the speaker and addressee. Speakers can use almost any lexical expression to refer to themselves or the addressee in a speech event, but only the first and second person pronouns reflect the discourse roles of speaker and addressee.

**First person singular**

The first person singular role refers to the speaker in a speech situation – however, the role shifts as the speakers take turns in conversation. In writing, first person is normally attributed to the writer. As Flottum et al. (2006: 67) put it, “[t]he use of first person pronouns is the most important way for authors to make themselves visible
in their texts”. According to Hyland (2001: 223), first person pronouns in academic writing are not just stylistic features but serve to promote a competent scholarly identity. In their crosslinguistic study of academic research articles, Flottum et al. (2006) found that first person singular is used by the single author when filling the roles of writer, researcher, arguer or evaluator. In these roles, the author engages in interaction with the readers.

First person can also refer to the reader, if the writer impersonates the reader in the text and speaks with his or her voice. Typical examples include signed forms (Yes, please send me a free copy of X magazine, I hereby declare…) and personalised parts of websites (My shopping cart, Access my profile). In so-called testimonials, the first person role is given to an example person, giving their account of their own experience, for instance a satisfied customer in advertising, or employees describing their work experience at the Careers site of a particular company. In these cases, the role refers to a person outside the immediate writer-reader interaction, i.e. a third person.

First person plural
Grammatically, the first person plural refers to I plus someone else. We can be either inclusive (+addressee) or exclusive (-addressee). In writing, we may be used to reflect the opinion or voice of an institution (editorial we). In academia, we is often used to reflect a single author of an article. Companies can take on the first person plural, speaking in one voice to address their audiences. However, we can also be used inclusively by both institutions and companies. We can, in fact, be used about any of the three persons in any number combination, as Siewierska (2004) exemplifies:

1 We are not interested in the possibility of defeat (Queen Victoria on the Boer War, 1899)
2 We want to eat our din din’s now. (Carer talking to patient)
3 We had wet panties again in playgroup. (Mother talking about her child)
1+1 We solemnly swear…
1+2 Shall we book for just the two of us then?
1+3 We will join you the moment Dik arrives.
1+3+3 We are underpaid and overworked.
2+2+2 We will hear in this presentation…
3+3 We won the First World War.

(Adapted from Siewierska 2004, p. 215. Numbers encode first, second and third person.)

Wales (1996: 65) summarises the different uses of we by stating that the pronoun “acts as a useful linguistic mediator between speaker and addressee”. In polite
interaction between the self and another, we is often chosen for reasons of tact, modesty or sympathy. On the surface, these motives minimise the benefits to oneself, while maximising those to the addressee. However, the egocentricity cannot be fully masked, but resurfaces in the form of e.g. speaker authority (as in the authorial we of academic articles) or sarcasm (when we masks criticism towards the addressee). Flottum et al. (2006: 101) stress that the boundary between different kinds of exclusive and inclusive first person plural is not always clear-cut, as she explains the difficulties faced in her own study of Norwegian. Indeed, the speaker (or author) can even exploit the referential vagueness of we rhetorically (Rounds 1987: 22-24), making it very difficult to identify the referent of the pronoun. Even if first person plural signals closeness between the speaker and the receiver of the message, the reference of an individual pronoun we is not fixed and can therefore also express varying degrees of closeness (Kamio 2001). We can take on a variety of referents and discourse functions, and it is the speaker/writer and hearer/reader who have to negotiate which of these referents or functions is used at a given point in discourse (Biber et al 1999, Fortanet 2004).

On corporate websites, first person plural is often used by the companies to refer to themselves. The pronoun can be used of the company as a whole, for example in mission statements, or part of the company (we at the marketing department). When used without any direct address to potential readers, the effect of we is to construct a corporate identity for the company (Benwell & Stokoe 2006). We can also be used inclusively, to include the addressee directly (together we can...). In this case, the company creates a common ground for itself and the addressees, “a central rhetorical means of creating agreement”, according to Flottum et al. (2006: 68). In Fairclough’s (2010) terms, the inclusive we creates a we-community of which the audience is a member.

Second person
Second person is used for addressing a person directly in speech; second person is also a shifting role in conversation. Used in writing, second person addresses the reader directly, but can also express a general you, close to general one.

The so-called ‘you-attitude’ is a central principle of business communication, saying that writers should adapt their messages to the readers. Rodman (2001: 11) states that you-attitude requires writers to “view a real-world situation from the reader’s perspective and then to show in the text of the document a sensitivity to the reader’s perspective”. She criticizes business text-book approaches to you-attitude and stresses that you-attitude is not a binary, but gradable quality. Various strategies used together in a text thus have a cumulative effect on the perceived sense of you-attitude. In their critical article on the language of direct marketing, Ewald & Wann
(2003) list specialised pronoun use, preference for positive wording and emphasis on reader benefit as characteristics of you-attitude. They show how these features help the writers to construct a reader identity that some target audiences find impossible to refuse, leading them to take actions that might not be in their own benefit. You-attitude is thus a powerful persuasive tool in business discourse.

Jameson (2004a, 2004b) links you-attitude to the literary terms of implied reader and implied author and uses these to distinguish the textual identities of the you, the I and other characters in the text from their real-life counterparts. She uses the term implied reader in business communication to refer to “the collective qualities that a writer ascribes to the intended reader or readers and the ways that the writer asks readers to interact with the text” (2004a: 232). The implied reader is thus “the writer’s expression of who the intended reader is” (2004b: 392). The implied writer “is the writer’s representation of himself or herself in a text” (ibid: 390). Jameson underlines the importance of distinguishing between implication and inference when analysing reader and writer representations in text. Whereas implication refers to the writing process and reflects choices made by the writer, inference reflects the reading process and thus the readers’ interpretation. According to Jameson, only the writers can explain their intentions when creating an implied writer or reader in a text. The concepts of inferred reader and inferred writer, by contrast, reflect the reader’s interpretations of the representations in text.

Jameson’s strict use of the concepts for reader and writer representations in text poses a challenge to the text analyst who neither interviews writers nor conducts reader reception studies. How do we get at the identities constructed in text if we only have the text as our data? Even if Jameson claims to derive her concept of the implied reader partly from Eco, he uses the term Model Reader (1979, 1994) and this term is not restricted to the writer’s implications, but can be seen at the level of the text. Eco defines his model reader as “a sort of ideal type whom the text not only foresees as a collaborator but also tries to create” (1994: 9). The other key reference for Jameson is Iser (1974, 1978) who uses the theoretical concept implied reader in his reader-response theory to establish what potential effect a literary text may have. The reader’s role is thus laid down in the text and the implied reader acts as a mirror image of the author. Both Eco and Iser distinguish between real (empirical) readers and hypothetical (or model) readers, but neither of them argues that the implication of the implied reader requires an explanation by the real author. In fact, Eco (1990) underlines that his theory of the Model Reader “look[s] at the textual strategy as a system of instructions aiming at producing a possible reader whose profile is designed by and within the text, can be extrapolated from it and described independently of and even before any empirical reading” (p. 52, my italics).
In her cross-linguistic study of tax authorities’ web pages, Koskela (2006) found a prevailing you-attitude. You was the most common personal pronoun in all three investigated websites, but most common on the US site, which showed an extreme you-orientation. You can also have an impersonal function. Fairclough (2001: 106-107) states that the pronoun you used in mass media communication often reflects the addressee’s attempt to express solidarity with an anonymous audience. Therefore, it does not address the audience but resembles the impersonal pronoun one.

**Third person**
The third person role is usually assigned to participants outside the immediate speech situation. Traditionally, the third person pronoun is described as substituting a noun phrase, and is therefore regarded as the prototypical personal pronoun. A third person perspective can also be expressed with common and proper nouns if they are never connected to first or second person references in text. According to Thompson and Thetela (1995: 118), advertising texts with only third person references to the organisation suggest “an impersonal and thus authoritative organization which [...] exists above and beyond any individuals in it”.

An us-them distinction may be used for indicating power differences and separating one group from another (see e.g. Fairclough 2010). When used about the producer or the receiver of a text, the third person form conveys a distant and uninvolving tone, but might also be interpreted as a sign of professionalism or respect, especially towards the reader. Pollach (2005: 211) calls the third-person perspective neutral, and associates “a certain level of factuality and impersonality” with it. On corporate web pages, both the company and the intended audiences are sometimes described only in third person, using nouns and third person pronouns.

### 4.2 Process types and participants

In systemic-functional grammar (SFG), the system of transitivity is a tool for analysing the meaning expressed in clauses. Transitivity forms part of the experiential language function, which relates to how language is used to construct our experience of the world. The transitivity system consists of processes, participants and circumstances. At the centre of the process is the verb phrase, which describes what is going on in the clause and determines the process type. According to Halliday, there are three principal processes: **material**, **mental** and **relational**, and three subsidiary processes: **behavioural**, **verbal** and **existential**. The lexical verb form alone cannot determine process type. Instead, it is the meaning of the verb phrase (or **verbal group** in SFG terms) as it is used in the context of the particular clause and discourse. Participants are responsible for or somehow affected by the verb process
and are often realised by a noun phrase (or *nominal group*). Each process takes a unique set of participants, all of which will be outlined below. Circumstances are clause elements adding information on time, place, manner and reason; these are often realised by an adverbial or prepositional phrase.

In the following, I will describe the different process types and their participants, giving examples of each type. The examples are adapted from the data used in the current study and thus representative of corporate discourse. In the examples, I underline the verb phrase. I base my presentation on Martin, Matthiessen & Painter 1997 and Halliday & Matthiessen 2004. In cases where the terminology differs, I follow Halliday & Matthiessen. Since this thesis is about the participants on a web page and their interaction, circumstances are beyond the scope of the study and will thus be excluded from the analysis. The examples presented here are in English, whereas the Results section will give both English and Swedish examples from the data.

### 4.2.1 The material process

Material processes describe what happens in the external world (outside the human being) and consist of actions and events. Material processes have at least one participant, the Actor, which is responsible for what is happening. The Actor is inherent of intransitive material clauses and is usually realised by a nominal group:

\[
\text{The company grew.} \\
\text{Actor} \quad \text{Process}
\]

The nuclear participants of transitive material clauses are the Actor and the Goal of the process. The Goal is the entity affected by the action, whereas the Scope remains unaffected. The participant Scope occurs in intransitive material clauses, which lack a Goal. Scope specifies the scope of what is happening, and is not impacted on by the performance of the process (as in the case of Goal).

\[
\text{We create innovative products.} \\
\text{Actor} \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Goal}
\]

\[
\text{We look for hard-working people.} \\
\text{Actor} \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Scope}
\]

Additional participants in material clauses are Recipient, Client, and Attribute. The Recipient and Client participants benefit from the process: the Recipient is the one that goods are given to, whereas the Client is the one that services are done for.
The Client occurs in creative material clauses, whereas the Recipient occurs in material transformative clauses. Compare the examples below:

Our teams help clients.
Actor Process Client

We provide you with a comprehensive benefits program.
Actor Process Recipient Goal

The attribute belongs to the category of relational processes, but sometimes enters into material clauses. In the clause below, the Attribute serves to specify the resultant state of the Goal all frames:

The subcontractor painted all frames black.
Actor Process Goal Attribute

Material clauses can also take a causative participant, the Initiator, which causes something to happen.

Our goals make us work even harder.
_Initiator Process Actor Process

4.2.2 The mental process
Mental processes describe what goes on in the internal world of a human being, in terms of perception, cognition and affection. The inherent participant is the Senser, who is involved in conscious processing.

Did you know?
Process Senser Process

Mental clauses may also involve a second participant, the Phenomenon. The Phenomenon can be realised by almost any entity “entertained or created by consciousness” (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter 1997: 105), including things, acts and facts.

You’ve never experienced a company like ours.
Senser Process Phenomenon
In a mental process, the causative participant is called Inducer:

\[
\text{The new campaign} \quad \text{helped} \quad \text{the customers understand the benefits of the product.}
\]

Inducer \quad Process \quad Senser \quad Process \quad Phenomenon

4.2.3 The relational process

Relational clauses describe processes of ‘having’ and ‘being’; they are either attributive or identifying. Since relational processes describe a relationship between two separate entities, the relational clause has two inherent participants. Relational processes can describe three different relations between participants: intensive, possessive and circumstantial. Each of these relations can be either attributive or identifying.

Attributive intensive:

\[
\text{We are highly selective in our hiring process.}
\]

Carrier \quad Process \quad Attribute

Attributive possessive:

\[
\text{We have one mission.}
\]

Carrier \quad Process \quad Attribute

Attributive circumstantial

\[
\text{We depend on multi-talented professionals.}
\]

Carrier \quad Process \quad Attribute

Identifying intensive:

\[
\text{Our company is the place for you.}
\]

Token \quad Process \quad Value

Identifying possessive:

\[
\text{Our success will be yours.}
\]

Token \quad Process \quad Value

Identifying circumstantial

\[
\text{These opportunities match your abilities.}
\]

Token \quad Process \quad Value
In relational processes, the causative Participant is either Attributor (in attributive processes), or Assigner (in identifying processes).

\begin{align*}
\text{The initial difficulties} & \quad \text{only} \quad \text{made} \quad \text{our company stronger.} \\
\text{Attributor} & \quad \text{Circ.: Manner} \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Carrier} \quad \text{Attribute} \\
\text{The team} & \quad \text{elected} \quad \text{her} \quad \text{the new office manager.} \\
\text{Assigner} & \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Token} \quad \text{Value}
\end{align*}

4.2.4 The behavioural process

Behavioural processes are located on the boundary between material and mental processes. They describe typically human behaviour, for instance smiling, breathing, frowning, fainting, and sleeping. The inherent participant is the Behaver.

The causative participant in a behavioural process is called Initiator:

\begin{align*}
\text{The CEO} & \quad \text{made} \quad \text{everyone} \quad \text{laugh} \quad \text{at the meeting.} \\
\text{Initiator} & \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Behaver} \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Circumstance: Location}
\end{align*}

4.2.5 The verbal process

Verbal processes are located on the boundary between mental and relational processes. They are clauses of saying, showing and indicating. The main participant is the Sayer. Other possible participants are the addressee, the Receiver, and the content of saying, the Verbiage.

\begin{align*}
\text{The core values} & \quad \text{outline} \quad \text{our corporate goals.} \\
\text{Sayer} & \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Verbiage} \\
\text{We} & \quad \text{will notify} \quad \text{all successful candidates} \quad \text{of our decision.} \\
\text{Sayer} & \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Receiver} \quad \text{Verbiage} \\
\text{As in material and behavioural processes, the causative participant is called Initiator.} \\
\text{We} & \quad \text{encourage} \quad \text{you} \quad \text{to ask} \quad \text{difficult questions.} \\
\text{Initiator} & \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Sayer} \quad \text{Process} \quad \text{Verbiage}
\end{align*}

4.2.6 The existential process

Existential processes are placed on the boundary between relational and material processes. Like relational clauses, they describe processes of being but have only one core participant, the Existent. If a causative participant is involved, it is called Initiator.
There are no open positions with these criteria.

Strong competition forces many companies to be in several industries.

4.3 The dynamism of process roles

Since the activities reflected in the six process types are of very different nature, the participants involved also play different roles. The material and verbal processes include two types of participants: the one responsible for the action, and the one affected by it. The participants Actor and Sayer are doing something or saying something and can therefore be claimed to be more dynamic than the participants Goal/Scope or Receiver. The relational processes describe a static situation, which also gives their participants Carrier and Token static roles in the clause. The idea of different degrees of dynamism among the participants was first presented by Hasan (1985/1989) in her cline of dynamism. This scale was later adapted by Thompson (2008). Hasan’s original cline is based on one single text and organises all the processes the main character is involved in onto the cline. The result is 13 points along the cline, from the most dynamic to the most passive. Thompson simplifies the points by regrouping the roles and including only six different points, or bands, as he calls them. Thompson’s alterations to the cline are based on the “analysis of a range of text types” (p. 26) which are not further specified. Due to the analysed material, not all possible roles are present in either version of the model.

Thompson’s version of the cline is presented below in Table 4.1. The scale runs from most dynamic at the top to least dynamic, or most passive, at the bottom. The most dynamic role is the Assigner or Initiator (added by Thompson), who causes other participants (such as Actors, Sayers, Sensers, Carriers and Tokens) to be involved in processes. The least dynamic role is the Goal, since it is affected by the action. The bands represent the points of dynamism along the scale.

Thompson (2008) further proposes grouping roles with similar dynamic values together, and giving them numerical values. The zero value point is placed at band 4, with the main participants in relational processes, Carrier and Token to whom “the question of dynamism does not seem particularly relevant” (ibid.: 27). Participants in band 3 receive the value 1, participants in band 2 and 1 receive the values 2 and 3, respectively so that Assigner/Initiator has the highest positive value. Below the zero point, band 5 receives the value -1 and band 6 receives -2. The value groupings are presented in Table 4.2 below. Thompson’s original roles are bolded, whereas the unbolded roles have been added by me.
Table 4.1: Cline of dynamism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Band</th>
<th>Role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Assigner/Initiator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Actor (+Goal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Actor (-Goal or +Scope)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phenomenon (Subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behaver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Token</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Beneficiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phenomenon (Complement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Thompson 2008: 26, adapted from Hasan 1985/1989)

Table 4.2: Dynamic values attributed to participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thompson's roles</th>
<th>Added roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Attributor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assigner/Initiator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Actor (+Goal)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Actor (-Goal or +Scope)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phenomenon (Subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behaver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Senser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Token</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Carrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1</td>
<td>Beneficiary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phenomenon (Complement)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2</td>
<td>Goal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Existent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Client</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attribute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The dynamic roles are those with a numerical value above zero in Thompson’s cline, whereas the passive roles are those below zero. Roles with zero dynamism are called static. At the bottom is the least dynamic role, with the value -2. The middle category, given the value 0, contains the static roles. At the top is the most dynamic category of Assigner/Initiator. Since this cline is based on a limited material and the processes and participants therein, not all processes or participants from the Transitivity system are represented. Starting from the top, the causative participant of Attributor seems to fit the most dynamic category. There are no participants of the existential process in this example, but I would place the Existent in the zero category, together with the static roles of Token and Carrier. Furthermore, if dynamism is irrelevant to all inherent participants in relational processes, Attribute and Value can be added to level zero. The less dynamic participant in a verbal process, the Receiver, seems to fit in the -1 category, as do the Client and Attribute of material clauses.

The dynamism of participant roles in a text is also discussed by e.g Fairclough (2003) and Van Leeuwen (2008). Van Leeuwen states that participants (or social actors) in discourse can undergo either activation or passivation by means of representation. “Activation occurs when social actors are represented as the active, dynamic forces in an activity, passivation when they are represented as “undergoing” the activity, or as being “at the receiving end of it”” (p. 33). Activation and passivation can be realised by the coding of grammatical roles (Actor, Sayer; Goal, Receiver). Other means are circumstantialisation, pre- and postmodification and possessivation. Passivated participants can be either subjected, i.e. treated as objects in the representation, or beneficialised in the form a third party that somehow benefits from the action. While these further distinctions to the notions of activation and passivation are helpful tools for uncovering hidden ideologies, they are beyond the scope of this study.

Thompson (2008) uses Hasan’s cline of dynamism to investigate the dynamism of participants in popular history texts. The cline is also used by Garcia (2008) in an analysis of newspaper discourse in the Colombian press. Garcia adapts the cline to her study by refining the role of Actor into nine sub-categories, in order to account for different types of material processes. The results show that the Marxist guerrillas and right wing paramilitaries, and their victims are constructed differently in terms of dynamism.

Applied to the corporate website, a transitivity analysis of processes can help classify the text in terms of dynamism and also point to different genre features within that text. For example, relational processes are typical of factual discourse, “since they are suggestive of evidential, existential facts about the world” (Benwell &
Stokoe 2006: 111). An analysis of the process roles assigned to the participants ‘company’ and ‘audiences’ reveals whether the participants are always assigned the same level of dynamism in discourse, or if there are variations in the roles. Within the clause, the process roles show if one participant is always the dynamic force in relation to the other, or if there are differences in the displayed patterns of dynamism (or ‘transitivity templates’, Thompson 2008). Is the company, as Participant, the dynamic Actor who performs actions, whereas the audience is at the receiving end of the activity? Or, can we observe an alteration of roles? Benwell & Stokoe note (2006: 110) that relations of power may be implicitly inscribed in material processes involving an animate Actor and Goal. The patterns of dynamism in web page text also reveal what types of textual interaction between the main participants are present on corporate websites.

### 4.4 Speech functions

The roles of the main participants in text can also be approached from the perspective of speech functions, and their realisation forms grammatical mood. The basic speech functions include statements, questions, offers and commands (Thompson 2014). These are typically realised through the three main mood types of declarative, interrogative and imperative mood although there is no one-to-one correspondence. The basic function of statements, which are typically realised by declaratives, is to convey information, but statements can also be used for e.g. making promises, expressing opinions or making requests (Collins Cobuild 1990). The declarative mood in text usually requires little more from the addressee than continued attention (Thompson & Thetela 1995: 112).

Questions are typically realised by interrogatives. The two main types include yes/no-questions and Wh-questions. The basic function of questions is to elicit information; other functions include e.g. offers, requests and suggestions. Rhetorical questions can be used for making a comment or exclamation, for example (Collins Cobuild 1990). All questions invite interaction and a response from the addressee, or, like Hyland (1998: 239) puts it, “questions […] explicitly seek to draw the reader into the discourse as a participant in a dialogue”. In a study of written dating ads, Marley (2002) found that all kinds of questions manage the interaction to a greater degree than declarative statements. Questions either appeal for, or challenge a reader to respond. While text-initial questions exert the greatest writer-control, text-final questions and wh-questions give more freedom to the reader (Marley 2002).

Commands are usually realised by imperatives and encourage the addressee to take some kind of action. They can be used for e.g. orders, advice, warnings or informal offers (Collins Cobuild 1990). Commands in text are usually issued by the writer and can address the reader directly, or a third person (Thompson 2012).
Whereas the reader imperatives engage the audience directly, third-party commands do not create a communicative slot for the reader; however, they contribute to the general impression of a dialogue in the text. Direct imperatives can be either discourse or real-world oriented, so that the discourse-oriented imperatives e.g. deal with the readers' processing of the unfolding argument (metadiscursal), whereas the real-world-oriented imperatives e.g. urge the addressees to take action outside the textual world. Studies of corporate web communication suggest that verbs in the imperative form involve readers in discourse (e.g. Insch 2008).

In discussing the notion of 'inter-subjectivity' from various angles, Thompson (2012) points to choices of speech function as an important way of projecting the reader in the text. By choosing speech roles that “construct a responding role for the addressee” (Thompson 2012: 87), the writer can construct a more dynamic role for the readership. Thus, questions, commands and offers all activate the reader-in-the-text to a higher degree than statements. By asking questions, the writer takes the role of seeker of information (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004) and hand the turn over to the potential reader. In an earlier article, Thompson & Thetela (1995) label speech functions the 'enacted' roles as opposed to the 'projected roles' that are constructed through transitivity and lexical labelling of the participants. The enacted roles are always present in text, whereas the writer can choose whether or not to project roles. Apart from illuminating discourse roles, mood choices may also convey the writer’s relationship with the readership (Benwell & Stokoe 2006: 112). Imperatives and interrogatives in written text can thus express social proximity, familiarity and involvement with an implied audience (see also Lassus 2010).

I expect the About Us pages to contain more declaratives than the Careers pages since they offer information about the company to a diverse audience. The Careers section, on the other hand, has the function of activating a much narrower target audience, the prospective employee, and will benefit from interrogatives and imperatives that engage the reader more than declaratives do. If the imperatives are connected to hyperlinks, the reader can take action simply by clicking the hyperlink, which then opens another page or window on the screen. Since the hyperlinks already in themselves create interaction in web pages, imperative hyperlinks serve to further increase the appeal to the web page audiences. While declaratives and interrogatives will be addressed to some extent throughout this thesis, the main focus will be on the imperatives since they can perform multiple functions simultaneously on a web page: urge the readers to take action, address the reader directly (through implicit ‘you’) and, when occurring as hyperlinks, facilitating the readers’ immediate action by clicking.
5 MATERIALS AND METHODS

5.1 Materials

5.1.1 Data selection procedure

My material consists of two pairs of American and Swedish pages from the websites of twenty American-based companies, yielding a total of 80 pages (40+40). Thematically, the data includes pages for a general audience (About Us) and pages for a specific audience (Careers) as defined by the respective company. The first pages were retrieved in February 2006 (Xerox and IBM). The remaining company pages were chosen from the 2006 member list of the American Chamber of Commerce in Sweden, accessed online in December 2006, January 2007 and March 2007. According to the About Us page on its website, the American Chamber of Commerce is a non-profit organisation for US companies in Sweden, or other companies benefiting from membership. The list thus includes both US-based companies and companies based in other countries. For the sake of clarity and in order to limit the data to two national audiences, I chose to focus only on the US-based companies.

Starting from the top, the alphabetical list was scrutinised for companies that fit the research criteria. Companies which were not based in the United States were excluded. In unclear cases, the companies’ history, headquarters location and other similar references were used to establish their nationality. After this, the first criterion was that the company needed to have a website in Swedish, directed at Swedish customers. If this criterion was fulfilled, the scope of the Swedish site was investigated in order to see if the two pages required for the analysis existed in both Swedish and English. Here the focus was on two themes of the corporate website: the pages with company information (often called About Us) and pages directed at prospective employees (often labelled Careers). The first category should yield a general ‘About the company’ page, in most cases the first page of the About Us section. For the second category a general page was also chosen, wherever possible. Exceptions were initially made for extremely index-like Careers pages with only a few hyperlinks (IBM and Microsoft). In these cases another page from within the same Careers section was saved and matched with a page of similar content from the other language version. However, since these exceptions were not exactly comparable with the rest of the data, the pages were updated at a later stage. Microsoft’s Careers page was updated in October 2010 with an archived page from February 2007, whereas IBM’s page was updated in October 2010 with an archived page from December 2005. IBM forms a special case, since the updated page is in
fact older than the one originally retrieved. The reason for this is that IBM displayed a ‘Careers’ initial page in Swedish for a very limited time, then reverting to English even if the subpages were still in Swedish.

A website is updated on a regular basis, removing the older versions. Previous versions of corporate websites can often be accessed through archiving sites online and this has been utilised in occasional searches on the Internet Archive Wayback Machine (available at https://archive.org/web/) in order to verify older data. The study applies a synchronic approach and investigates the pages as they appear to the audience at a certain point in time. Consequently, the pages were frozen in time, with references to where and when the data were retrieved (see the Reference section). The chosen pages were thus saved as text versions in Word format for the textual analysis, and as image files, as well as screen shots. The text files include all text displayed on the page, irrespective of the page length. The hyperlinks are a more complex matter, since their interactiveness cannot be saved completely. Their targets are other pages and saving the entire website was never an option. The focus is therefore mainly on the link itself and the content it expresses.

The data were retrieved during a time when social media was only starting to be adopted by corporations. The possibilities of Web 2.0, a term first coined in 2005 (O’Reilly 2007), had been developing for some years, but not all companies had yet embraced the new technologies in the years 2006-2007. Of the companies investigated in this thesis, only two provide links to their corporate blogs. Links to social network sites or microblogging facilities are not included at all. The idea of the web as a platform, and thus the corporate site as the hub of corporate communication, was not yet fully embraced. The time of data collection thus represents an era which still relies predominantly on the website for online presence and interaction, at least as far as the investigated companies are concerned. After the investigated period, there has been an explosion of different social media platforms and formats available on the internet, and most companies today also have a social media presence. The corporate website, however, remains an established communication tool for companies, and is today a requirement for listed companies (see e.g. Nasdaq¹ and NYSE²). The corporate site of today often acts as a hub for

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¹ Nasdaq Stockholm’s Rules and regulations for the Nordic markets specifies the information that should be available through the company websites, last accessed on 12 December 2017 at http://business.nasdaq.com/list/Rules-and-Regulations/European-rules/

² The NYSE IPO Guide states that web hosting of materials is mandatory since 2009, and also outlines what information should be posted to the company website. Last accessed 12 December 2017 at https://www.nyse.com/publicdocs/nyse/listing/nyse_ipo_guide.pdf
corporate communication, including embedded media or direct links to others communication channels.

Table 5.1: Corporate websites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3M</td>
<td>Various</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA (CA Technologies since 2010)</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBRE (CB Richard Ellis)</td>
<td>Real estate services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC (Computer Sciences Corporation)</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDS (Electronic Data Systems, since 2008 HP Enterprise)</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hilland &amp; Knowlton</td>
<td>Public relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hudson</td>
<td>Recruiting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilly (Eli Lilly and Company)</td>
<td>Medicine/pharmaceutical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marsh</td>
<td>Risk insurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogilvy</td>
<td>Advertising &amp; PR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfizer</td>
<td>Medicine/pharmaceutical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitney Bowes</td>
<td>Mailstream services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td>Consumer goods</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symantec</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TransPerfect Translations</td>
<td>Communication/language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unisys</td>
<td>IT services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyeth (since 2009 part of Pfizer)</td>
<td>Medicine/pharmaceutical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td>Document services/printers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the companies were chosen from a pre-defined list, according to the availability of certain web pages in both English and Swedish, the line of business or industry did not affect the final data selection. Consequently, the 20 companies represent different business areas and there is no balance to the representation of one area in comparison to others. Table 5.1 above presents the investigated corporate websites.

5.1.2 Ethical considerations

Corporate websites are copyrighted material, owned by the respective companies. As they are available online, the freedom of information gives the general public access to the website contents. The American companies investigated in this study all display strict copyright protection notices concerning the use and reproduction of any website contents. However, in the United States, the Fair Use Statute Section 107 of the 1976 Copyright Act lists a few conditions that represent exceptions to
copyright\textsuperscript{3}. Thus, fair use for e.g. scholarship or research purposes does not constitute a copyright infringement. Fair use is subject to the following conditions: the purpose and character of the use, the nature of the copyrighted work, the amount of the work used, and the market effect of the use. According to these conditions, quoting text from a commercial website would constitute fair use since it is for educational and not for commercial purposes, the cited work (i.e. the site) is published and it is factual rather than creative work. Furthermore, only small parts of the entire website are quoted, as opposed to reproducing an entire page or site. Finally, quoting single sentences from a web page for research purposes is not likely to affect the value of the website, or the potential market of the website. American court decisions on copyright cases provide examples of activities considered to be fair use. Examples from 1961 include “quotations of short passages in a scholarly or technical work, for illustration or clarification of the author’s observations” (1961 Report of the Register of Copyrights on the General Revision of the U.S. Copyright Law\textsuperscript{4}). Examples provided in this thesis constitute short passages, and are quoted in order to illustrate and clarify the linguistic observations made. According to the Finnish Copyright Act, section 22, a published work may be quoted as long as it is done according to proper usage and extent\textsuperscript{5}.

5.1.3 Web page production

In order to gain insight into the production process behind corporate websites, an informal survey was conducted with company representatives. The questions were sent to all companies included in the data. The contact was directed to the American division of the company and the queries were also tailor-made for American company representatives. This survey took place in April and May 2008. An initial email explaining my intentions and asking for a suitable company representative was first issued, normally to the PR address given on the corporate contacts page. Once the contact details to a suitable person were provided, the questions were emailed (see sections 5.1.3.1-4 below). Ten out of 20 companies provided answers to the

\textsuperscript{3} Copyright Law of the United States of America, accessed on the website of the U.S. Copyright office on 21 December 2013, \url{http://www.copyright.gov/title17/92chap1.html#107}

\textsuperscript{4} The 1961 Report of the Register of Copyrights on the General Revision of the U.S. Copyright Law, as quoted on the website of the U.S. Copyright office, accessed on 21 December 2013 at \url{http://www.copyright.gov/fls/fl102.html}

seven general questions. The companies responding included, in alphabetical order, 3M, CA, CSC, EDS, Lilly, Marsh, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Pitney Bowes and Xerox.

5.1.3.1 Medium status
The first question dealt with the status of the corporate website as a medium for external communication:

1. Is the corporate website your primary medium for external corporate communication, or do you also rely on printed material?

Pollach (2003: 20) pointed to the fact that the corporate website is gaining in importance and, in fact, becoming the primary medium for external corporate communication. Four of the companies, CSC, Lilly, CA and EDS explicitly stated that the website is indeed their primary medium for corporate communication. CSC also mentioned printed publications and relations with analysts/journalists as other channels for corporate communication. CA stated that they will “leverage printed material where need be”, whereas EDS listed printed materials, executive appearances, trade shows and publications, advertising and press releases as alternative channels. Lilly specified that the company is trying to cut the use of printed material and thus decrease the use of paper.

Five companies (Marsh, Xerox, Ogilvy, Pitney Bowes and Microsoft) did not define their website as primary, but listed other channels as equally important, such as direct mail, traditional advertising, tradeshows, sponsorships and blogs. 3M is the only company who explicitly stated that the website is considered secondary to printed material (with the exception of promotional websites).

5.1.3.2 US/global web pages
Questions 2-4 concerned the production process behind the American or global web pages. Firstly, the companies were asked to specify the departments responsible for US web page content in general:

2. Which departments of your company produce the texts for your US/global web pages?

Some companies named Corporate Communications as a key actor in producing web page texts. In cases where other actors produce the contents, a department like corporate communications may still review it. In fact, eight of the responding companies seemed to employ a decentralised model where experts of smaller units produce their own contents: 3M, Marsh, EDS, Microsoft, CA, CSC, Ogilvy and Lilly. Half of these explicitly stated that the content was reviewed by Communications or Internet Marketing and checked for consistency (CA, CSC, Ogilvy and Lilly). The Pitney Bowes representative made an explicit difference between marketing content produced by the business units, and corporate content produced by corporate communications. Finally, Xerox seemed to apply a centralised model for content
production, which was then localised “to a certain degree as applicable by country”. However, they also named the main business divisions as responsible for the content.

Secondly, the corporate representatives were specifically asked about the origin of the ‘About’ and the ‘Careers’ sections:

3. Are the texts for the 'About' and the 'Careers' section pages produced by the same or different departments?

In most cases, the About section and the Careers section were the responsibility of different departments. While the About us section was produced by the Corporate Communications (CC) team (or similar), Careers was the responsibility of Human Resources (HR). Five companies mentioned this division of labour. Ogilvy stated that Careers was produced by CC and HR together. CA stated that CC was responsible for both sections.

The third question on US page production concerned the individual text producers:

4. Are single texts co-written by several people, or produced by one individual?

The process varied depending on the text, but usually single texts were co-produced. Even if one individual wrote the first draft, the text was reviewed and edited by several people. Texts could also be explicit team products. The exception to co-writing would be blog entries or feature stories (mentioned by CSC), which were written by a single individual. However, this content was typically also reviewed by someone like the content manager before publication.

5.1.3.3 Target audiences

In order to define which web page users the companies are addressing on their pages, the fifth question asked about the target audiences of the investigated web page sections:

5. What audience(s) do you have in mind when producing contents for the 'About' and the 'Careers' section, respectively?

As expected from studying the texts, the About section was directed at a broader and more diverse audience than the Careers section. The About section could target analysts, journalists, investors, customers, employees, students, other companies, vendors, investors, partners, suppliers, students and “general audience” members. The Careers pages typically targeted potential employees. Other audiences included existing employees and students. Lilly forms an interesting case, since they named recent graduates as their number one audience for both sections.

5.1.3.4 Swedish web pages

Questions 6-7 concerned the production of Swedish web pages. The sixth question relates to how independent the Swedish team was in their content production:
6. To what extent do your overseas offices produce their own website contents?

In most cases, the overseas offices were free to create their own content. However, templates and guidelines were often provided to ensure a consistent company image. Contents could also be localised or imported from the global site or other country sites. CSC, for instance, used a content management system, which facilitated content sharing between countries. The only exception to local production seemed to be Xerox, who stated that “most content is developed globally or regionally with only specific local elements added if there is a specific need or there is something particular and unique to the country”.

In order to specify the previous question further, the companies were asked specifically about the localisation of pages for the Swedish market:

7. Are the Swedish 'About' and 'Careers' section pages localised from the US/global website, some other country site, or are they locally produced?

CSC, Lilly, Ogilvy and EDS stated that both Swedish sections were locally produced. In the case of 3M, the Careers section was produced locally, but the rest of the Swedish site was based on the UK version of the 3M site. In the case of Xerox, the Swedish sections were based on a regional design applicable for all of Europe. CA said that the Swedish pages were localised from the US site, and managed by the UK office. A Marsh representative simply stated that the Swedish pages were “translated Marsh boilerplate text”, originating from the Corporate Marketing and Communications Group. In the case of Microsoft, the origin of the pages varied.

5.1.3.5 Summary and discussion

The brief questionnaire on web page production was answered by ten of the companies. Based on the answers received, the corporate website seemed to be one of the key channels for external communication for most of the companies in 2007. The department most likely to be in charge of the web content was Corporate Communications, even in cases where other departments within the company produced it. Single texts were usually joint products of several individuals. The About and Careers sections were usually produced by different sections, and were also aimed at different audiences. The About pages targeted a diverse collection of different audiences, whereas Careers was primarily aimed at job seekers. The Swedish pages were often produced locally in Sweden, but even if the local teams were free to produce their own content, six out of ten companies still used material from the US or a regional site as basis for localisation efforts.
5.1.4 Page type presentations

This section describes the two kinds of pages investigated, About us and Careers, along with an example of a typical page. Since this study focuses on language use, the page presentations focus on the aspects relevant for the linguistic analyses.

5.1.4.1 About Us

Corporate websites always have a section dedicated to information about the company, titled Company information, About the Company or variations on these two, including the company name (About Xerox) or the personal pronoun we (About Us, Our Company). This section can comprise only one page, but typically it contains a section starting page with basic information on different company-related topics, providing links to further pages within the same section. Access to the company information section is usually provided via a direct link on the starting page of the website. In some cases, however, the user has to access the site map in order to find the company information.

Topics presented in the company information section typically include contact information, a short description of the company and its field of business, information on management and corporate social responsibility, investor relations, legal information and career opportunities. Other characteristic topics are history, mission statements, news, campaigns, environmental information and financial statements. The company information pages thus function both as an overview section to a general public, and as a gateway for specific audiences (journalists, job seekers, investors), looking for more detailed information on some topic.

The About Us page serves as a general introduction to the section on corporate information on a website. It is aimed at a diverse audience, for instance customers, journalists, investors, suppliers, vendors, current and prospective employees, analysts and the general public. This page usually gives brief introductions to various subtopics, which are linked to in text and/or in link lists. Typical topics of this section include history, mission and vision, corporate social responsibility, executive information and contact information. The Careers page can be a sub-division of About Us, but this is not always the case.

The About EDS page represents a rather prototypical company information page (Figure 5.1). The top link panel displays About EDS as an independent section of the site, whereas the left-hand link list gives access to the subtopics of that section. The mid-section of the page contains short introductions on some of the subtopics and other highlighted features, such as news items and the EDS blog, with links for more information. As can be seen from the scroll bar to the right, the page continues “below the fold”, forcing the user to scroll down in order to see the rest of the contents.
5.1.4.2 Careers

The Careers pages are normally aimed at prospective employees, but also current employees and students. The data include two main types of Careers pages: the link portal and the informative type. Whereas pages that function as link portals focus on collecting quick access to for instance recent job postings and benefits on one page, the informative page type focuses on describing the company as employer to the job seekers. Naturally, between these two extremes, pages with features of both types occur.

Wyeth’s page (Figure 5.2) represents the informative type of Careers page. The main topics of the site are presented as red tabs on top of the site frame, and the Careers section is one of these tabs. This Overview page introduces the company as employer and also refers the job seeker to job opportunities at different subdivisions. There is also a straight-forward job search facility, along with links to more detailed information on topics describing the company as employer. To the left, a few of the over-arching topics for Careers are lifted as links, whereas the login
facility for health care professionals is present on all pages of the site (part of the general frame).

Figure 5.2: Screenshot of the Wyeth Careers page

5.1.4.3 Corpus size
The total size of the About Us corpus, excluding link lists, is 12,459 words, of which the American part consists of 5,459 words and the Swedish part of 7,000 words. The difference in size between the American and the Swedish corpus is some 1,500 words, which might have an impact on the perceived differences and similarities of reference forms. The larger size of the Swedish corpus is mostly due to one single text of 1,835 words from the web page of EDS. Without this one text, the mean length of the texts in both corpora would be roughly 270 words. Even if one of the texts might distort the whole picture, it was never an option to shorten it since that would go against the idea of including all textual material present in the investigated pages. The length of the American About Us texts is 85-703 words and the length of the Swedish About Us texts is 45-1,835 words. The total number of hyperlinks in the About Us data is 1,592: of these, 949 links occur in the American corpus and 643 in the Swedish corpus.
The American and Swedish Careers corpora also differ somewhat in size, but the difference is smaller than between the two About Us corpora. The American Careers corpus, with 4,569 words, contains 381 words more than the Swedish corpus of 4,188 words. The total size of the Careers corpus is thus 8,757 words. The text length is 68-529 words in the American Careers corpus and 81-814 words in the Swedish corpus. The great variation in length between the texts also leads to great variations in frequencies of the investigated phenomena. Some texts will inevitably contain very small frequencies, which do not make the use of percentages completely justified, especially in comparisons between individual texts. For the sake of consistency, however, percentages will be given alongside all compared results. The Careers corpus contains a total of 1,401 hyperlinks, 806 of which occur in the American data and 595 in the Swedish data.

5.2 Methods of analysis

This study applies a synchronic approach to interaction on company websites, meaning that the web pages are described and analysed in the form they take on a certain date. Concrete interaction between the company and its audiences can be realised through the integrated tools for responding that exist on most commercial websites today, i.e. feedback forms, social media tools, online help desks etc. This study investigates how the possibilities for interaction are manifested in the textual and hyper-textual environment of a web page, bringing together the projected interaction in the dimensions of text and available hyperlinks. Due to the linguistic nature of this thesis, the two core dimensions for analysis are traditional text and hypertext. Throughout the analyses, the American and Swedish web pages, as well as About Us and Careers data are treated separately in order to be able to compare and contrast the data sets. In the study, a combination of quantitative (limited to frequencies and percentages) and qualitative methods are used for investigating interaction.

For the analyses, the hyperlink material was separated from the text in order to do a text-only analysis. Pictures and symbols were easily removed from the data, as were also hyperlink lists. Textually embedded links, however, are treated differently and included in the analysis if they appear as part of an utterance. The textual data were saved in .doc format, coded according to company, language and topic and compiled into an English and Swedish corpus. The main part of the analytical work was conducted manually since the lexical and other features under investigation are too heterogeneous for automatic retrieval.
5.2.1 Text

In the textual analysis, participant references and roles are investigated, with special focus on the company in question and its audiences. The underlying assumption is that the producers of text actively position and project both themselves and their readers in text in order to achieve interaction. Therefore, the projected company-audience interaction in text is mapped through analysis of direct references to the participants, what processes they are engaged in, which roles are assigned to them in those processes, and finally, which enacted roles are assigned to the participants via speech roles (mood). The theoretical framework is informed by Halliday’s systemic functional grammar (Halliday 1994, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), including different models of representing interaction (Thompson 2001) and social action in writing (van Leeuwen 2008), as outlined in Chapter 4. Swedish resources and studies consulted include e.g. Holmberg & Karlsson (2006), Lassus (2010) and Holmberg et al. (2011).

The textual analysis takes place on two levels, the experiential and the interpersonal (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). On the experiential level, the first step is to map the lexical references to the company and the audiences in order to see how the participants are projected into the text. The lexical references include proper names, common nouns, and personal pronouns, including the implicit ‘you’ of imperatives. The proper nouns and common nouns occur either independently, when talking about the company’s or audience’s states or actions (as in Company X values diversity in the workforce, For journalists) or as an anchorage point for a noun phrase (as in worldwide sales, Investor relations). Pronouns are divided in a similar way, into independently occurring personal pronouns in subjective or objective position (as in Did you know, Contact us) and possessive determiners anchoring a noun phrase (as in Our company, Your business). The referring expressions are listed in Excel files, coded for each company and counted. The aim of the reference analysis is to capture how involved or detached the referring expressions for the company and the audience are respectively. The use of first and second person pronouns and imperatives is regarded as highly involved, whereas noun phrases or total absence of reference are treated as detached. Special attention is also paid to dominance patterns in a single text, as manifested through overrepresentation of one reference type in comparison to others. For example, if there in one text are at least twice as many noun phrases than second person pronoun referring to the audience, noun phrase references dominate that particular text.

The second step of the experiential analysis is to investigate what processes occur in the data and what roles the participants are assigned on the clause level according to the transitivity system. The entire page text is entered into an Excel file, and
processes and participants roles are analysed for each clause. Process labels include material, mental, verbal, behavioural, relational, and existential (see Chapter 4). The results are coded according to participant, company and page. In this transitivity analysis, focus is on dynamic roles versus static and passive roles in a clause, according to the cline of dynamism presented in Chapter 4. For the purpose of this study, a simplified version of the Thompsonian cline with three groups is used. Instead of assigning numerical values, the roles are labelled as dynamic, static and passive. The dynamic roles are those with a numerical value above zero in Thompson’s cline, whereas the passive roles are those below zero. Roles with zero dynamism are called static. The key participants in material, verbal, mental and behavioural clauses, i.e. Assigner/Initiator, Actor, Sayer, Senser, Phenomenon (as Subject) and Behaver are thus coded as dynamic roles, whereas the key participants in relational clauses (Token and Carrier) are coded as static roles. The affected or receiving participant in material clauses (Beneficiary, Scope, Goal) and mental clauses (Phenomenon as Complement) are coded as passive roles. Any other roles found in the analysis are integrated in the same cline and given values of perceived dynamism, according to the type of process and the participants’ position in the clause.

On the interpersonal level, the analysis focuses on how participants are enacted in text through mood. All clauses in the data are coded according to the grammatical realisation of speech roles as statements, questions or commands. A clause is defined as a stretch of language centred around a verbal group (Thompson 2014). The verbal group might be finite or non-finite, and hence clauses are either finite or non-finite. Furthermore, clauses can be either independent (main clauses) or dependent (subclauses). The results are counted and compared across the data sets. Segments that do not qualify as clauses are excluded from the speech function categorisation, but are of course included in the participant reference analysis.

5.2.2 Hyperlinks

The links are analysed according to linguistic form and thematic content, as well as topic of the target page. In order to account for the action and interaction potential of links, the hyperlinks are classified according to their rhetorical function using the model presented in Chapter 2 (Hammerich & Harrison 2002) and entered into an Excel file. Every link is analysed and coded according to the primary rhetorical function it has on the webpage, and the results are compared across pages and data sets. This analysis takes place on the textual level (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), since hyperlinks can be seen as having a text-organising function on web pages (see e.g. Pollach 2003). The function categories used are Authorising, Commenting, Enhancing, Exemplifying, Mode-Changing, Referencing/Citing and Self-Selecting.
These categories are furthermore grouped according to the perspective they present, into corporate perspective, informative perspective and audience perspective.

The corporate perspective includes the three link function types of authorising, enhancing and exemplifying links. The authorising links reflect the company and what it stands for. The company perspective keeps the user inside the website and interacting with the company, while trying to persuade the user of the good features of that particular company. The enhancing and exemplifying links provide the user with possibilities to read more and examples to facilitate navigation. The informative perspective is reflected in two link functions: the referencing/citing and the commenting links. The referencing/citing links refer the user outside the current website, either to an associated company or to another external part. These links are therefore most likely to represent an external perspective. The commenting links can represent views of either the company or an external party and are therefore one step closer to a company perspective. Finally, the audience perspective includes mode-changing and self-selecting links. Mode-changing links add an action value to the link: the user is offered the possibility of a different action than reading, thus taking a user perspective. Finally, the self-selecting link gives users the opportunity to adapt the available information to their preferences.

The second part of the hyperlink analysis builds on the textual analysis, incorporating the same methods where possible, thus reflecting the experiential and interpersonal levels of the textual analysis. The lexical references to participants are mapped, after which a transitivity analysis is conducted on links that appear as grammatical clauses. The link data are entered into Excel files and coded according to the same features as in the textual analysis. Mood is also investigated, with special focus on imperatives and their realisation as commands. Due to the large number of hyperlink lists, and other links that do not constitute clauses, part of the link data is excluded from the transitivity and mood analyses.
Part 2: Results

In order to facilitate reading of the results chapters, this section outlines the categories of participant reference and the transitivity roles found in the investigated data. The introduction applies to the sections on participant references and transitivity in Chapters 6, 7 and 8.

Company references

In the investigated data, the company refers to itself either as an abstract entity or as a group of people. The boundaries are not always clear-cut, as especially the name is sometimes used in the same clause as the first person plural we. For the sake of clarity in the reference analysis, however, I choose to make a distinction between the abstract entities and the group of people, and comment on unclear cases separately whenever needed. As an abstract entity, the company refers to itself either by means of proper noun (name), or by a common noun (noun phrase, NP). In addition, third person pronouns are used to refer to the company (it, its, they, their). Third person it is coreferential with either the company name, or an abstract noun phrase like ‘the company’. Third person they refers to the activities of certain job positions within the company; these job positions are described in abstract terms and are not attributed to people. When referring to the company as a group of people, first person pronouns (plural or singular), noun phrases and third person pronouns are used.

Results, Figure 1: Company references
The company name is usually displayed in the top left corner of the page as a logotype, often provided with an operational hyperlink function. The name is thus always present, making it a default category and point of reference on every page. However, in text, a name can be used both as an autonomous actor in a clause (Xerox provides the document industry’s broadest portfolio of offerings) and as part of a noun phrase. The name can, for instance, be used as a determiner (one of EDS’ greatest strengths, Pfizer businesses), and in a prepositional phrase (See yourself at CA).

As a company reference, the first person we is used as a subject pronoun (We employ 52,000 people worldwide...), possessive (Our future depends on our global community of employees), object pronoun (Contact us) or reflexive (We take on big challenges, and pride ourselves on seeing them through).

**Audience references**

I divide the audience of the About Us and Careers pages into two main categories: primary and secondary audience. The primary audience refers to audiences which are not affiliated with the company in question, and includes mainly job seekers, but also for instance consumers, investors and media representatives. This external audience is addressed directly or mentioned in the text. Direct address usually takes the form of second person pronouns or imperatives. The second person pronouns occur as subject pronouns (You’ve never experienced a workplace like X), possessive and object pronouns (How far can your skills take you?) and reflexives (See yourself at X). Address by noun phrase is also possible in the form of vocatives (College Students – Are you interested in company X?). Audience reference by noun phrase is made with for instance students, people and applicants. Third person pronouns used in connection with these noun phrases are they and their.

![Diagram of Audience References](image)

**Results, Figure 2: Audience references**

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The secondary audience refers to people already working for the company: its employees. This internal audience is not directly addressed on the pages, but may be referred to in other terms (e.g. employees, professionals, colleagues). As the employees are part of the company, it would make sense to refer the internal audience to the company category. However, since the employees and the company are usually treated as separate entities in the text, suggesting that the current employees are in fact a possible audience, I choose to label them secondary audience. Furthermore, the division into roles in the transitivity analysis is facilitated by this decision, as placing the employees in the company category would give rise to complicated double-coding within a clause. Compare the example below:

\begin{verbatim}
Sayer Process: verbal Receiver
Marsh encourages its colleagues
(Senser) Process: mental (colleagues)
to gain knowledge and acquire new skills throughout their careers.
\end{verbatim}

If the employee audience was placed in the participant category of company, the company would only act onto itself in the verbal clause, as it would take both the role of Sayer and the role of Receiver. The company would also be the one gaining knowledge and acquiring new skills in the infinitive subclause. Even if it is the employees who make the company – and without them, there would usually be no company – the texts often make a clear distinction between the company as abstract entity and the people already working there (as opposed to job seekers and applicants). The categories of my analysis therefore reflect the same distinction. In cases where no clear distinction is made, I have coded the reference or role twice, sometimes even three times. Due to this multiple coding, the frequency of references and roles assigned does not add up with the absolute frequency of lexical instances in the text. The multiple referents of such cases will be discussed in the results chapter.

**Transitivity roles**

The analysis of transitivity roles is based on Thompson’s adapted cline of dynamism (2008), which is further elaborated with missing roles from the system of transitivity. The scale runs from the most dynamic at the top, to least dynamic at the bottom. Table 4.2 from chapter 4 is reproduced below, showing Thompson’s original roles to the left and the roles added for this study on the right.

The dynamism is coded with numerical values, so that roles with a value above zero are dynamic, while roles with a value below zero are passive. The middle category of zero is labelled static roles. Based on this scale, the roles found in the
investigated About Us and Careers data can be summarised in Results Table 1 below. These labels and types of roles will be discussed in the transitivity analysis parts of chapters 6-8.

Table 4.2: Dynamic values attributed to participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thompson’s roles</th>
<th>Added roles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 Assigner/Initiator</td>
<td>Attributor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Actor (+Goal)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Actor (-Goal or +Scope)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon (Subject)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 Token</td>
<td>Existent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier</td>
<td>Attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-1 Beneficiary</td>
<td>Receiver</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phenomenon(Complement)</td>
<td>Client</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>Attribute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-2 Goal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results, Table 1: Participant roles grouped according to dynamism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynamic roles</th>
<th>Actor, Senser, Sayer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static roles</td>
<td>Carrier, Token, Existent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive roles</td>
<td>Goal, Scope, Client, Recipient, Phenomenon, Receiver, Value, Attribute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6 INTERACTING WITH A GENERAL AUDIENCE

This section presents the results of my analysis of projected interaction in text on the company information pages. It starts by describing the references and roles that are assigned to the participants on the About Us pages. Then, the findings from the participant reference and transitivity analyses are reported. Finally, speech roles on the About Us pages are described.

6.1 Participant references

6.1.1 References to the company

In the investigated American About Us data, the companies refer to themselves through company name, first person reference and noun phrases. The company name is usually displayed in the top left corner of the page as a logotype, often provided with an operational hyperlink function (see 5.1.4 for examples). The name is thus always present, making it a default category and point of reference on every page. However, in text, a name can be used both as an autonomous actor in a clause (see example 6.1 below) and as part of a phrase. The obvious way is to use the name as a determiner (see 6.2, 6.3, 6.5) or as a complement of a preposition (6.4). In example 6.5, the determiner forms part of a product label. The name category also includes references to person name; for instance a representative of the company such as CEO.

6.1. Xerox provides the document industry's broadest portfolio of offerings
6.2. Xerox's service expertise
6.3. Pfizer achievements
6.4. At IBM, we strive to lead in the invention...
6.5. The 3M Experience

First person reference is the plural we, which occurs in subject position (independently: 6.6, as determiner: 6.7), in object position (6.8) or as a reflexive pronoun (6.9). We is mostly used exclusively of the company: only one instance of a first person reference including the audience is found in the data (6.10). The underlined possessive determiner our refers to both main participants, plus anyone affected by the stated changes in society. The general inclusiveness is further strengthened by all.

6.6. We employ approximately 42,000 people worldwide... (Lilly)
6.7. Our future depends on our global community of employees...(Lilly)
6.8. **Contact us** (CBRE)

6.9. **We take on big challenges, and pride ourselves on seeing them through** (Microsoft)

6.10. **There has been a huge increase in complexity, contradiction and uncertainty in all our lives and these magnify arguments in society.** (Hilland & Knowlton, US About)

Noun phrases that can be attributed to the company are either abstract entities (e.g. *the company*) or a group of people (e.g. *the employees*). This category also includes third person pronouns in singular and plural. The pronouns can refer to either the company as an abstract entity (*it* referring back to the name or a noun phrase) or to one or more human beings (*his/her, they*).

The investigated data of 5,459 words contains 428 instances of company reference, i.e. 7.8 company references per 100 words. A comparison of the frequencies shows that two categories of company reference dominate: first person and company name. First person reference is the largest category, with 171 occurrences against 161 occurrences of company name reference. Related to the total number of company references on the American About pages, these two categories together constitute more than three fourths, or 78 per cent (332 out of 428). The remaining categories display a considerable variation: there are 50 abstract noun phrase references, 30 animate human references and only 4 references to a person by name. Additionally, there are two categories of third person pronouns: one with the third person pronoun *it* referring to the company name (12 instances), and another with pronouns referring to the employees (2 instances). Noun phrase references amount to 82 instances, including the employee pronouns. The frequencies and percentages of the reference categories are shown in Figure 6.1 below.
In the Swedish data, the company refers to itself using name, first person or third person references. By appearing in the corporate logotype at the top of a page, the company name is a default category and point of reference for the page discourse. On the Swedish pages, the name is used autonomously in a clause (6.11) or as complement of a preposition (6.12). It also occurs as genitive (6.13), in prepositional phrases (6.14) and as a part of a product, project or concept label (6.15). Names can also refer to individuals, typically the CEO or another executive (6.16). English glosses are given after each example, when needed.

6.11. **EDS vill lösa kundens problem och behov, utan att tappa skärpa och stringens**

'EDS wants to solve the customer’s problems and needs without losing focus and lucidity.'

6.12. **Historien om CSC**

'The history of CSC'

6.13. **IBMs grundfilosofi**

'IBM’s basic philosophy'

6.14. **inom Ogilvy Sverige**

'within/inside Ogilvy Sverige'

6.15. **P&G Perspectives**

6.16. **Susanne Rönnqvist, marknadschef (CA)**

'Susanne Rönnqvist, Marketing Manager'
First person references include the plural *vi* (*we*), and one instance of the singular *jag* (*I*). The plural is used in the subjective case (*vi*), as possessive determiner (*vår, vårt, våra*) and in objective case (*oss*). Even if most instances of first person plural are used exclusively of the company, there are a few instances of inclusive *vi*. Four instances occur in the long EDS page text (6.17-20), and two in the Ogilvy text (6.21-22). Whereas examples 6.17-21 represent a widely inclusive first person plural, including people in general, the *vi* in 6.22 refer specifically to the audience (as prospective client) and the company (represented by the CEO). One single instance of first person singular occurs in the objective case (*mig*) in 6.22, and refers to the company CEO.

6.17. *Visst är det lätt att falla för smicker, löften och till och med ögonfägnad. Det har vi väl alla gjort någon gång.* (EDS)

'It is certainly easy to fall for flattery, promises and even eye candy. We have probably all made that mistake sometimes.'

6.18. *Det finns inte två kunder som är identiska, alla har olika förutsättningar, precis som vi människor har.* (EDS)

'There are not two identical clients: everyone have different opportunities, like we humans in general.'

6.19. *Men det pekar på den omvälvande utvecklingen vi upplevt inom teknologi, handel och kultur.* (EDS)

'But this points to the radical development we have experienced within technology, trade and culture.'

6.20. *Vi ser det i den utbredda användningen av datorer, internets genomslagskraft, den hårda konkurrensen inom IT-branschen och den digitala ekonomins ankomst.* (EDS)

'We see it in the widespread use of computers, the impact of the internet, the tough competition in the IT sector and the arrival of the digital economy.'

6.21. *Vi har sett en explosion av kanaler, interaktivitet och nya tekniska lösningar.* (Ogilvy)

'We have witnessed an explosion of channels, interactivity and new technical solutions.'

6.22. *Välkommen att diskutera hur vi kan utveckla ett samarbete, ring mig gärna* (Ogilvy)

'Welcome to discuss how we can develop a collaboration, feel free to call me.'
Noun phrase references can be either human, referring to an individual (e.g. *verkställande* director, ‘CEO’) or a group of people (e.g. *anställda, medarbetare* ‘employees, co-workers’) or abstract, referring to the company as an entity (e.g. *företag, bolag* ‘firm, company’). Third person pronouns, both human (*han/hon, de*) and abstract (*sig*), are included in these categories. Furthermore, there are a few instances of impersonal pronouns referring to an individual (*man, sig*).

![Swedish company references (n=659)](image)

Figure 6.2: Swedish references to the company (Sw. About Us)

Figure 6.2. above shows the Swedish company references distributed by category. The Swedish data of 7,000 words contains 659 references to the company, i.e. 9.4 company references per 100 words. There are two categories that together make up over 70 per cent of the references: first person (39%) and company name (36%). First person references are slightly more common than company name, with 255 instances against 240. The category of noun phrase references falls into 13 per cent abstract and 9 per cent human references, plus two small categories of pronouns referring to these. Altogether, noun phrase references account for 22 per cent of the total (145 instances of 659). Person names form a small category of 19 instances, or 3 per cent.

6.1.1.1 Overall distribution

*First person dominance.* The use of first person company reference dominates in nine American pages. These include 3M, CA, CBRE, Hill Knowlton, Lilly, Microsoft,
Pitney Bowes, Procter & Gamble and Unisys. All these companies display at least twice as many first person as noun phrase references.

In the Swedish data, eleven companies out of 20 display at least twice as many first person as noun phrase references. These companies include 3M, CBRE, CSC, EDS, Hilland & Knowlton, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Pitney Powes, Procter & Gamble, Transperfect and Unisys. At the extreme end are 3M and EDS, who both use four times as many first person as noun phrase references. At the other end is Procter & Gamble, who has twice as many first person references compared to abstract noun phrase references; however, with human noun phrase references added the frequency stays just below the dominance limit of at least twice as many references. Microsoft forms a category of its own, with no noun phrase references at all.

**Noun phrase dominance.** Three companies use at least twice as many noun phrases as first person references. These include EDS, Marsh and Symantec. Of these, Symantec display no first person references at all. In the Swedish data, four companies prefer noun phrase against first person reference. These include Lilly, Marsh, Symantec and Xerox. Of these, Symantec and Xerox never refer to themselves in first person; only names or noun phrases are used.

**Company name.** In five cases, the name category is at least twice as large as first person or noun phrase references. These companies include EDS, Marsh, TransPerfect, Wyeth and Xerox. In the case of Transperfect, the variation is not as clear since the text is very short in comparison to the others. Nevertheless, it is included here since it fulfils the criterion of at least twice as many name references as first person or noun phrase references. EDS and Marsh also score high on noun phrase references. On the Swedish pages, the frequency of the company name varies considerably. There are five companies – CA, Hudson, IBM, Wyeth and Xerox – who use their own name in text far more than any other reference form. Of these, Hudson and Xerox display twice as many name references as first person or noun phrase references.

**Others.** In the American data, five companies display a balanced distribution between name and first person: CSC, IBM, Ogilvy, Pfizer and Procter&Gamble. Of these, Pfizer scores rather high on name frequency, but not high enough to display company name dominance, i.e. not twice as many name references as NP references.

### 6.1.1.2 First person

The American first person references fall into four subcategories: the subjective pronoun *we*, the possessive determiner *our*, objective *us* and reflexive *ourselves*. More than half of the references are possessive determiners (56%), and 39 per cent are in subjective position. The remaining three categories are very small, with 6 instances of objective *us*, two instances of reflexive *ourselves* and one instance of
subjective *we* that refers both to the company and the audience (see Table 6.1 below).

The Swedish first person references fall into six subcategories. Plural forms are the subjective *vi*, the possessive determiner *vår/vårt/våra*, the objective *oss* and the reflexive *oss*. Subjective is the most frequent form with 122 instances (48%), whereas the possessive occurs 103 times (40%). The objective *oss* is used 21 times (8%) and the reflexive occurs twice. The only singular form used is one single instance of objective *mig*. Finally, there are six instances (2%) of inclusive *vi*, which refer to both the company and the audience. The frequencies of the five subcategories are shown in Table 6.1 below. The percentages have been rounded off to the closest whole number.

The subjective *we* occurs 66 times in the American data. Two companies use this form more than twice as often as the possessive determiner: CA and Hilland Knowlton. These companies are also part of the group with first person dominance (see above). Typically, *we* occurs somewhat later in the text. There is only one example of *we* in a heading, and that occurs in the second heading on the page. Four companies introduce *we* in the first sentence, and another three in the second sentence on the page.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical category</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective forms</td>
<td>plural <em>we/vi</em></td>
<td>66 (39%)</td>
<td>122 (48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>incl. pl <em>we/vi</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive forms</td>
<td>plural <em>our/vår, vårt, våra</em></td>
<td>96 (56%)</td>
<td>103 (40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>incl. pl <em>we/vi</em></td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective forms</td>
<td>plural <em>us/oss</em></td>
<td>6 (4%)</td>
<td>21 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>singular <em>me/mig</em></td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive forms</td>
<td>plural <em>ourselves/oss</em></td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>171</td>
<td>255</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possessive determiner *our* makes up more than half, or 56 per cent, of the first person pronoun references. *Our* forms part of a nominal group, thus anchoring the rest of the group to the company through first person reference. Of the companies with first person dominance, four have clearly more instances of *our* than of *we*.
In the Swedish texts, the subjective \textit{vi} typically occurs somewhat later in text: there are only three instances of \textit{vi} occurring in a heading, and none in the first sentence. The possessive \textit{vår} behaves similarly, with two occurrences in a heading and one in the first sentence. Half of the companies introduce \textit{vi} or \textit{vår} in the second or third sentence, whereas the other half displays these forms later in the text, or not at all (3 companies). The objective \textit{oss} is never used text-initially. The single instance of objective \textit{mig} is found at the end of Ogilvy’s text, together with two instances of inclusive \textit{vi}. The other four instances of inclusive \textit{vi} occur in the middle of the long EDS text.

When different features of first person use among the American companies are compared with first person dominance on their pages, there is no clear pattern (cf. Table 6.2). The only strong co-occurrence is with the name in text-initial position: in five cases out of eight the company name can be identified as the referent for the first person pronoun, since there are no 3\textsuperscript{rd} person references interfering with that position. The name and the first person reference can occur in the same initial clause, as in examples 6.23-24. The connection can also be established by combining the title and the first clause, as in \textit{About CA} (title 1) \textit{Welcome to the new CA} (title 2) \textit{We’re in the business of [...]}. Sometimes the referent for first person is the page logotype, as in the case of Hill&Knowlton, which uses first person pronouns in titles and initial clauses, but does not give the company name until in the second paragraph. Nevertheless, the logotype with the name forms the starting point.

6.23. \textit{At Lilly, we strive to exceed our customers’ expectations…}

6.24. \textit{Explore this About Microsoft Website to find out how we are living our mission and values.}

In the Swedish data, first person features show no clear distributional patterns on the pages with first person dominance (see Table 6.2 below). The eleven pages with first person dominance are rather evenly distributed between \textit{vi} and \textit{vår} dominance. Five of the companies (3M, CSC, EDS, Ogilvy and Pfizer) show a co-occurrence of first person dominance and first person in a heading; meaning also that the name is defined as first person text-initially. Only one company, Hudson, displays first person reference in the page heading without having a first person dominance.
## Table 6.2: Co-occurring features of 1st person use on the About Us pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company page</th>
<th>1st p. dominance</th>
<th>1st p. in heading</th>
<th>Name=1st p. text-initially</th>
<th>WE/OUR dominates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3M</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw. vår</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBRE</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw. vi/vår</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDS</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw. vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill&amp;Knowlton</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am. we</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hudson</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilly</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marsh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am. our</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogilvy</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw. vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfizer</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td>Sw. vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitney Bowes</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>Am. our</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter&amp;Gamble</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symantec</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transperfect</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sw. vår</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unisys</td>
<td>Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyeth</td>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xerox</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.1.3 Noun phrases

The noun phrase (NP) references fall into three subcategories. More than half of the American references are abstract noun phrases referring to the company (50; 63%). The human references are noun phrases describing people connected to the company (28), and two instances of pronouns referring to these (cf. Table 6.3.). Similarly to the American data, the Swedish noun phrase references fall into three subcategories. Most of the 143 noun phrase references are either abstract NPs (85) or human NPs (56). There are 2 instances of a third person pronoun referring to a human.

Table 6.3: Noun phrase references to the company on the About Us pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NP company</th>
<th>NP employees</th>
<th>Pronoun employees</th>
<th>Noun phrase references total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>50 (63%)</td>
<td>28 (35%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>80 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>85 (59%)</td>
<td>56 (39%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>143 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than half of the abstract noun phrases referring to the American company contain the noun company (e.g. a marketing company; a ‘Blue Ribbon’ company). Other frequent nouns are firm, leader and provider, as in risk and insurance services firm; a global leader; the world’s leading provider. Of the human noun phrases, employees is the most common, followed by people.

The most commonly occurring noun in the Swedish abstract noun phrases is företag (‘company’). It is used 38 times, either on its own, with or without adjective (ett företag, ett globalt företag) or in a compound (e.g. kunskapsföretag, läkemedelsföretag (‘knowledge company, medical company’). Other abstract nouns used about the Swedish company are for instance bolag and leverantör, as in ett helägt dotterbolag and en ledande leverantör (a wholly owned subsidiary, a leading supplier). The most common noun phrases that refer to individuals or groups of people connected to the company are anställda and medarbetare (‘employees’). Anställda is used 16 times, most often in connection with a figure specifying the number of employees (42 000 anställda). Other specifications include the company name (IBM-anställd) and geographical location (anställda i Sverige (IBM). Medarbetare is used 10 times, in a similar way as the previous noun. The nouns denoting individuals are restricted to VD and Verkställande director (equivalent of CEO, Chief Executive Officer), and the only exception is one instance of singular anställd.

The American noun phrase references to company include one instance of individual, which refers to both the company and the audience. The Swedish noun
phrase data feature five cases of references inclusive of both the company and the audience; these include two instances of the pronoun alla (‘all’) and one instance each of människa, människor and individ (human, humans, individual). All of these inclusive references, both the American and the Swedish, refer to human beings.

6.1.1.4 Names
In the American data, the category of names falls into three subgroups: the company name (161 instances), third person it referring back to the name (12 instances) and person names (4 instances). As mentioned above, the company name is always present on the web page, starting from the logotype. However, in text the name is introduced in different ways. Twelve out of twenty companies introduce the name in the page title: About [name]. Seven of these companies also start their texts with the company name and five of them use the construction [Company Name] is a/the [NP] in the introduction, where the company name is the Subject, ‘is’ constitutes the Finite and the noun phrase is the Complement (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004). In terms of transitivity, this construction represents a relational clause which is either identifying or attributive, so that the company name is represented as either Token or Carrier. Four companies repeat the name throughout the text, so that every, or, nearly every new paragraph starts with the company name, even when the paragraphs are clearly connected and a pronoun would suffice for participant tracking.

The Swedish corpus shows the same subgroups for the use of names. The biggest category is the company name (240), whereas person names (19) and third person 'it' referring back to the name (2) form much smaller categories. In the Swedish data, fourteen companies out of twenty introduce the company name already in the page heading. A further five introduce the name as the first lexical item after the page heading. A total of 13 companies use the construction [Company Name] is a/the [NP] initially, i.e. far more than in the American data. However, there are no examples of the name repetition pattern which can be found in some of the American texts. Five companies can be said to display a company name dominance: CA, Hudson, IBM, Wyeth and Xerox; this dominance is, however, not as overwhelming as in the American data. Moreover, the patterns for the name dominance companies are not as clear between all the features. There are two companies with name dominance in both language versions: Wyeth and Xerox.

Table 6.4 below shows distributional patterns between different features of name use on the About Us pages. The pages where the name is the most common company reference make up less than half of the sample. Nevertheless, the company name is foregrounded through other features, which often co-occur: the page heading ‘About + [name]’, the name as the initial lexical item, and the construction
When noun phrase references to first person and name references within the same company are compared, a few trends can be noticed (cf. Table 6.4). First of all, companies with name reference dominance seem to be more inclined to use noun phrases than companies with first person dominance. In four cases, there are more noun phrases than 1st person references. The rest show an equal distribution of first person and noun phrase references. Moreover, half of the companies with name dominance show a clear preference for referring to themselves with the pronoun *it*. As was mentioned above, five of them also choose to start their texts with the construction ‘[Name] is a/ the [Noun Phrase]’.

Of all the companies with first person dominance, there is only one which displays a balance between the use of first person and NP references: Procter & Gamble. In all the other companies, NP references are in minority. CA, with first person dominance, displays no abstract NP references at all. CSC and IBM, who both show a balance between the frequencies of first person and name references, display only one instance of an abstract noun phrase.

Related to the total number of company references, person names are slightly more common in the Swedish than in the American data: in the Swedish data, the person name category accounts for 3 per cent of the references, whereas the category in the American data accounts for only 1 per cent. The person names used on the Swedish pages are either those of the CEO, some other manager, or the founder(s) of the company. Nine of the companies display at least one person name reference.
Table 6.4: Features of name use for all investigated About Us pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>[Name] most common reference</th>
<th>[Name] in page heading</th>
<th>[Name] is the initial lexical item</th>
<th>Constr.: [Name] is a/the [NP]</th>
<th>it/det refers to company name</th>
<th>[Name] repeated in every para.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3M Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBRE Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDS Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill &amp; Knowlton</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hudson Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilly Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marsh Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogilvy Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfizer Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitney Bowes Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symantec Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TransPerfect Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unisys Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyeth Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xerox Am.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3M Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CA Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBRE Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSC Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDS Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hill &amp; Knowlton</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hudson Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBM Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lilly Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marsh Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microsoft Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ogilvy Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pfizer Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pitney Bowes Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procter &amp; Gamble</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Symantec Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TransPerfect Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unisys Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wyeth Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xerox Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.1.2 References to the audience

There are altogether 237 instances of audience reference in the investigated American material, i.e. 4.34 audience references per 100 words. A comparison of the frequencies of occurrence shows that noun phrases are the most common form of reference: together, the human and abstract NP references with related pronouns make up 59 per cent. Moreover, the abstract NP references outweigh the human NP references. There are 94 references to second person (40%) and one single instance of first person. Names do not occur. The frequencies and percentages are shown in Figure 6.2 below.

![American audience references (n=237)](chart)

**Figure 6.2: American references to the audience (About Us)**

In the American data, the company refers to the audiences through first person, second person or noun phrase. The first person reference is inclusive *our*, referring simultaneously to both the company and the audience. The second person references fall into explicit second person pronouns and implicit pronouns (imperatives). The pronouns occur in either the subjective form (see example 6.25), objective form (6.26), as possessive determiners (6.27) or as reflexive pronouns (6.28). The instances of implicit ‘you’ are imperatives addressing the audience directly (*contact us, learn more, download the brochure*). The noun phrase references refer either to humans (*consumers, journalists*) or to abstract entities (*communities, organisations*). Sometimes it is not entirely clear whether the referents are human or abstract, for instance in all cases of *customers* or *clients*, as companies can have both consumer clients and business clients (*see examples 6.29-30 below*). If the context of
certain references does not explicitly imply human presence, these instances have been placed in the abstract category. There are also a few instances of pronouns referring back to either the abstract or human noun phrases. There are no references to the audience by name.

6.25. Did you know? (CSC)
6.26. Unisys helps you secure your business operations
6.27. New ways to help your business (Xerox)
6.28. See for yourself (Pitney Bowes)
6.29. We translate these advanced technologies into value for our customers through our professional solutions, services and consulting businesses worldwide. (IBM)
6.30. Marsh will provide transparency to its clients regarding its negotiations with insurers on their behalf. (Marsh)

In the Swedish data, the company refers to the audiences through first person, second person or a noun phrase. Furthermore, names for both associations and of people are used. There are altogether 268 references to the audience in the Swedish data, i.e. 3.82 references per 100 words (see Figure 6.3 below). Third person references are the most common: together, the abstract and human categories make up 63 per cent (169 instances) of all audience references. The biggest single category is that of abstract NP references and pronouns (38%), followed by human NP references and pronouns (24%). Second person references make up 21 per cent of the total, and first person references only two per cent. There are 35 instances of a company/organisation name, and two instances of a person name.
The first person references consist solely of inclusive instances of first person references (vi). The second person references can be either singular (du) or plural (ni); the singular form is the most common. They are used either as explicit pronouns, or implicitly by ways of an imperative. Since the imperative makes no difference between the singular and the plural form, it is impossible to know which form is intended. The context of explicit forms helps, but they are not always present. Moreover, in this material the Swedish second person singular pronoun is capitalised into the form Du by one company. The second person pronouns occur in the subjective case (see example 6.31), in the objective case (6.32) and as possessive determiners (6.33). The instances of implicit ‘du’ address the audience directly in an imperative, as in example 6.34.

6.31. Du hittar lätt till oss med denna karta (3M)
'You can easily find us with this map’

6.32. Och med årtionden av erfarenhet i ryggen av att lösa komplicerade IT-problem kan vi bana väg för er [...] (CA)
'And with decades of experience in solving complicated IT problems we can pave the way for you…’

6.33. Vår jobb- sökarguide har svaret på alla dina frågor om hur det är att jobba hos oss (IBM)
6.34. Läs mer om hur det är att jobba på 3M och om det finns några lediga platser

'Read more about working for 3M and if there are any open positions’

The noun phrase category falls into human and abstract references. The human references are all noun phrases referring to an individual (e.g. konsument ‘consumer’) or a group of people (e.g. människor ‘people’). Connected to these is a small category of pronouns referring to the human NPs (han, hon, de, man, någon, alla ‘he, she, they, someone, all’). The abstract NPs are noun phrases referring to abstract entities (organisationer, företag ‘organisations, companies’) and pronouns connected to these (de). This category also includes references which can be both human and abstract, but lack the context to support that they refer to human beings (e.g. kunder ‘clients’). Example 6.35 below provides example of an instance of kunder, which is abstract since the earlier context has defined the target groups as abstract entities, and an instance of kollegor (‘colleagues’), which can be either abstract (meaning other CSC branches) or human (the human colleagues at the other CSC branches). The name references consist of names of organisations (e.g. NASA) and names of people.

6.35. Vårt uppdrag är att leverera lösningar till företag, organisationer och myndigheter. [...] CSC Sveriges vision är att vara den ledande IT-leverantören. Tillsammans med våra kunder och våra kollegor i Norden och övriga världen så tror vi att det är möjligt.

'Our mission is to provide solutions to companies, organisations and authorities. [...] CSC Sveriges’s vision is to be the leading IT provider. Together with our clients and our colleagues in the Northern Countries and the rest of the world we believe that this is possible.’

6.1.2.1 Overall distribution

Second person dominance. In seven American pages out of 20, references to the audience in second person dominate: 3M, EDS, Hilland Knowlton, IBM, Pitney Bowes, Unisys and Xerox. These companies have at least twice as many second person as noun phrase references. Hilland Knowlton forms a special case due to its inclusive reference to company and audience (one instance of our, see example 36 further down); furthermore, it is the only company with no noun phrase references to the audience. In the Swedish data, there are only two companies who seem to
prefer second person over noun phrase references: 3M and Lilly. While the former displays twice as many second person as noun phrase references, the latter lands in this category because of one single instance of second person reference – the only one on that page.

**Noun phrase dominance.** Eight American company pages are characterised by noun phrase references to the audience: CA, Lilly, Marsh, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Symantec, Transperfect and Wyeth. Half of these (Lilly, Marsh, Transperfect and Wyeth) display no first person references at all. In the Swedish data, five companies display at least twice as many noun phrase as first person references to the audience: CSC, EDS, Hill Knowlton, Hudson and Procter&Gamble. Another five companies display only noun phrase references and no first person references at all: CBRE, Marsh, Pitney Bowes, Unisys and Wyeth. Of these five, Marsh, Pitney Bowes and Unisys use abstract NPs as the only type of audience reference.

**Balanced reference distribution.** Five American company pages display a balanced distribution of first person and noun phrase references to the audience: CBRE, CSC, Hudson, Microsoft and Procter & Gamble. The Procter & Gamble page includes an instance of noun phrase reference to both company and audience (the inclusive *individuals*). In the Swedish About Us data, there are seven companies displaying a rough balance between second person and noun phrase references: CA, IBM, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Symantec and Transperfect. Only four companies include references to audience by organisation name and one company uses person names. Xerox Sweden is the only company that totally lacks references to an external audience, however, the internal audience of anställda (‘employees’) is mentioned once.

### 6.1.2.2 Interpersonal pronouns

In the American data, there is one single instance of inclusive *our* referring both to the company and the audience:

6.36. *There has been a huge increase in complexity, contradiction and uncertainty in all our lives and these magnify arguments in society.*

(Hilland&Knowlton)

The second person references fall into five subcategories: implicit *you* (imperative) and the subjective form, objective form, possessive determiners and reflexive form. The biggest subcategory is the imperative, which makes up two thirds of all the second person references (63 out of 94, or 67%). The possessive determiners and objective forms of *you* account for 16 and 12 per cent respectively.
You is rarely used in the subjective form (6%) or the reflexive (1%) case (cf. Table 6.5).

**Table 6.5: Second person references to the audience (About Us)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Subjective forms</strong></td>
<td>you</td>
<td>du</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>10 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ni</td>
<td>3 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective forms</strong></td>
<td>you</td>
<td>dig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 (12%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>er</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Possessive forms</strong></td>
<td>your</td>
<td>din/ditt/dina</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 (16%)</td>
<td>4 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>er/ert/era</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reflexive forms</strong></td>
<td>yourself</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperative</strong></td>
<td>63 (67%)</td>
<td>35 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>94 (100%)</td>
<td>56 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Swedish pages also contain a small category of first person references, as there are five instances of inclusive *vi*, referring to both the company and the audience simultaneously. The second person references fall into seven subcategories. Apart from the subjective, objective and possessive forms for both the singular *du* and the plural *ni*, there are the imperative forms which realise an implicit subjective in either singular or plural. The imperative is by far the biggest category: 63 per cent (35 instances out of 56) are implicit second person references in the form of imperatives. The singular second person forms are more frequent than the plural forms. Following the imperative references, subjective *du* is the second biggest single category with 18 per cent of the total. The remaining categories account for less than 10 per cent of the total each (see Table 6.5).

### 6.1.2.3 Noun phrases

The noun phrase references to the American audience either refer to human participants or abstract entities. These categories are further subdivided into noun phrases proper and pronouns. The biggest category is that of abstract noun phrases, which accounts for 55 per cent of the noun phrase references. Human noun phrases (NP) account for 39 per cent. The pronoun categories are small, six instances (4%) of abstract *they/them/their* and three of human *their* (2%). Of the abstract noun phrases, the most common are *clients* and *customers*, in either singular or plural.
Both these noun phrases could refer also to human participants, depending on the context. All unclear cases, where the context does not reveal whether the referent is human or abstract, have been referred to the abstract category (see examples 29, 30 and 35 above. The most common human noun phrases are *people* and *consumer(s)*.

The Swedish noun phrase references also fall into two subcategories: human and abstract references. The human references can be further subdivided into noun phrases proper and pronoun references. Human noun phrases make up 28 per cent of all the noun phrase references. The three human pronoun categories are all very small. The definite pronouns include *de* (4 instances) and *andra* (1). The quantitative pronouns include *alla* (4), *man* (1), *ingen* (1), *någon* (2), *sig* (3) and *sin* (1). The dominating category is that of the abstract noun phrases, which makes up more than half of all the third person references (60%). There is also a small abstract pronoun category including *de* (1), *sin* (1) and *sina* (2). The frequencies are shown in Table 6.6 below.

The most commonly used Swedish human noun phrases are *människor* and *medarbetare* (*people, employees*). *Medarbetare* is an ambiguous term, since it can refer to both the company and the audience, depending on the context. The company can thus identify itself through the employees in one context, while addressing them as an audience in another. Among the abstract noun phrases, *kund* and *kunder* (*client/s*) are the most common, followed by *företag* (*company*) in both singular and plural.

**Table 6.6: Noun phrase references to the audience (About Us)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Am.</th>
<th>Sw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Human NP</td>
<td>54 (39%)</td>
<td>47 (28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human pronoun, definite</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
<td>5 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human pronoun, quantitative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract NP</td>
<td>76 (55%)</td>
<td>101 (60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract pronoun</td>
<td>6 (4%)</td>
<td>4 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP references total</td>
<td>139 (100%)</td>
<td>169 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.1.2.4 Names

There are only three instances of name references to the audience in the American data and they represent names of organisations. In the Swedish data, fourteen per cent of all the audience references are names of either companies (or organisations) or a person. The 35 references to a company or organisation name all occur on the pages of four companies: CA, CBRE, CSC and EDS. All organisation names refer to
customers of the respective company. The two instances of person name occur on Pfizer’s page, and they are names of fictive patients that the company wishes to help.

6.1.3 Summary

The American data displays altogether 428 references to the company (7.8 references per 100 words), whereas the Swedish data contains 659 (9.4 references per 100 words). In spite of the difference in absolute and normalised frequency counts, the references to company are relatively evenly distributed across the five categories of first person pronouns, company name, human and abstract noun phrases and person names. The audience references amount to 237 in the American data (4.3 references per 100 words) and 268 in the Swedish data (3.8 references per 100 words). The audience references are distributed across the categories of human and abstract noun phrase, second and first person references, and names. While noun phrase references are equally common in both corpora, there are variations in the other three categories (see 6.1.3.2 below).

6.1.3.1 Referring to self

First person references are most common, but the company name is only a few percentage points behind. Roughly one fifth of the references are made by noun phrase, the abstract references being slightly more common. Person names are rare. The distribution of company references across verb processes also seem to be rather similar in English and in Swedish. However, within the categories there are some differences regarding relative frequency.

In the American texts, the possessive is used more than the subjective form in first person references – the possessive case is also the most common category. In the Swedish data, the situation is the opposite, with subjective form as the largest first person category. The category of the objective case is also relatively larger in the Swedish than in the American data. The Swedish texts contain no reflexives, instead, there are a few instances of inclusive subjective (company and audience) and one instance of singular objective (mig). In comparison to the American data, the Swedish company role can thus be inclusive of the audience, but also realised through one single person.

The company name is equally common in both corpora. However, some of the American texts show a clear pattern of name repetition, even in cases where the paragraphs of a text are connected and a pronoun would suffice for participant tracking. This pattern is not found in the Swedish data. The American texts also show a strong co-occurrence of high name frequency and the text-initial construction ‘[Company name] is [NP]’. There is a similar co-occurrence in the Swedish data, but the number of companies with name dominance is much smaller.
However, the total number of companies with the text-initial construction 
'[Company name] is [NP]' is higher than in the American data – irrespective of
name frequency.

6.1.3.2 Referring to the audience
The most common way of referring to the audience is using noun phrases: this
category makes up more than half of the audience references in both the American
and the Swedish material. The abstract NP references are, moreover, more common
in both languages. However, second person references, which represent 41 per cent
in the American data, only make up 21 per cent of the Swedish references. Instead,
the Swedish data includes names (14%), which are completely absent from the
American texts. These take the form of mainly organisation names, but there are also
a few instances of person name. First person references exist in both language
versions, but they are extremely rare.

Audience address in second person mostly occurs through implicit ‘you’
(imperatives), which makes up more than half of the second person references in
both languages. However, the explicit pronouns show different frequencies. Whereas
the American pages choose the possessive and the objective over the subjective case,
the Swedish texts seem to prefer the subjective. More than one fifth of the Swedish
references are in subjective form, whereas the objective is very rare. Subjective
singular is more common than plural; all in all, the singular forms outweigh the
plural ones. Finally, the Swedish texts introduce a few inclusive subjective forms,
whereas the American data only displays one instance of inclusive possessive. The
Swedish audience thus seems to be given a slightly more explicit active role in second
person than the American audience.

The noun phrase references to the audience are dominated by abstract noun
phrases in both corpora (more than 50%). References to human beings equally
common in the American and Swedish corpora; however, the Swedish texts seem to
prefer pronouns over noun phrases. Apart from the third person plural, which is
used in both corpora, the Swedish texts display other pronouns referring to humans
– especially impersonal pronouns. Impersonal pronouns do not occur in the
American data.

In contrast to the American data, names occur also as Swedish audience
references. In the case of organisation names, which are more common, the name
always refers to a client organisation and thus serves as an example of a customer.
The two instances of person name are used to describe fictive clients. The names
could of course be read as representing a third party completely separate from the
audiences. However, since the names refer to clients, and clients are one audience
group that the page targets, the named clients can be seen as examples of the targeted
audience of ‘clients’.
6.2 Results from the transitivity analysis

In order to account for what goes on in the texts and what actions the main participants are involved in, a transitivity analysis was conducted. The clauses were first classified according to their process type, after which the participants were coded according to their roles in the clauses. Furthermore, the roles were categorised according to their dynamism and placed on a continuum which is based on Hasan’s (1985/1989) cline of dynamism and Thompson’s (2008) adapted version thereof (see Chapters 4 and 5). Based on the results of the analysis, some changes to the roles included in Thompson’s cline have been made in order to provide a simple overview and include all the relevant roles. The investigated data for this chapter includes the following roles given to the main participants: Actor, Senser, Sayer, Carrier, Token, Existent, Recipient, Client, Scope, Goal, Value and Attribute. The roles of Actor, Senser and Sayer are labelled as dynamic by Thompson, and thus given numerical values above zero. For the sake of simplicity, no distinction between Actor +1 and Actor +2 is made here, but these roles are all labelled dynamic. Thompson calls Carrier and Token static roles, and gives them the value of 0. To these two roles I have added Existent, which also represents a static role. Finally, Thompson assigns Scope and Goal numerical values below zero, in describing them as the least dynamic roles. To this least dynamic category I add Recipient, Client, Value and Attribute, which also represent roles below zero in dynamism. The entire group is here labelled passive roles, and no distinctions are made between the numerical values. While Thompson’s cline also included the highly dynamic roles of Assigner/Initiator, i.e. participants who cause another participant to take action, these roles were not found in the data under investigation and are therefore excluded. The categories worked with henceforth are thus dynamic, static and passive roles as presented in Table 6.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynamic roles</th>
<th>Actor, Senser, Sayer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static roles</td>
<td>Carrier, Token, Existent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive roles</td>
<td>Recipient, Client, Scope, Goal, Value, Attribute</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results emerging from the data also called for a division of the audience participant into two subcategories: the primary external audience and the secondary internal audience (audience II), consisting of company employees. The roles are therefore presented as assigned to i) the company, ii) the audience and iii) the audience II.
6.2.1 Process types

Processes in the investigated data occur in either main clauses or subclauses. The processes in main clauses are foregrounded in comparison to the processes in subclauses. As a result, the perceived dynamism of processes and participants is stronger in main clauses.

The total number of processes in the American About Us data is 362. A majority of the processes (83%) occur in main clauses (see Table 6.8 below). The most common process type is the material process, which makes up close to half of the total process frequency. 137 material processes take place in a main clause, 42 in a subclause. The number of relational clauses is 117 and they thus represent close to one third (32%) of the process total. They mostly occur in main clauses (105), with a minority in subclauses (12). Mental processes are not very common in this data; there are altogether 39 mental clauses (11%) and all but three occur in a main clause. Even less frequent are the categories of verbal process (6%) and existential process (2%). All but two of the verbal and existential processes take place in main clauses.

Table 6.8: Process frequency and distribution on the American (AM) and Swedish (SW) About Us pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>About Us</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Existential</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM main clause/subclause</td>
<td>137/42</td>
<td>105/12</td>
<td>36/3</td>
<td>18/2</td>
<td>5/2</td>
<td>301/61 (83%/17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM total (% of all clauses 362)</td>
<td>179 (49%)</td>
<td>117 (32%)</td>
<td>39 (11%)</td>
<td>20 (6%)</td>
<td>7 (2%)</td>
<td>362 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW main clause/subclause</td>
<td>199/113</td>
<td>198/46</td>
<td>26/9</td>
<td>29/8</td>
<td>24/5</td>
<td>476/181 (72%/28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW total (% of all clauses 657)</td>
<td>312 (48%)</td>
<td>244 (37%)</td>
<td>35 (5%)</td>
<td>37 (6%)</td>
<td>29 (4%)</td>
<td>657 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the Swedish data, the total number of processes is 657 (see Table 6.8 above). Close to half of the processes are material (48%). Roughly two thirds of the material processes occur in main clauses (199), and one third (113) in subclauses. The relational processes form the second largest category, as they represent 37% of the process total. The majority of the relational processes take place in a main clause (198). The rest of the categories, mental, verbal and existential processes, are very small. Compared to the American data, the proportion of relational clauses is slightly higher (by 5 percentage points), whereas the percentage of mental clauses is somewhat lower (by 6 percentage points).
Based on the process type distribution alone, the About Us texts are dominated by activities in the external world (material processes). However, the relational processes of being and having account for roughly one third of the processes, meaning that the texts also focus on describing participants and their qualities. The About Us page thus reflects activity, with some description. Judging by the relational processes alone, there seems to be slightly more description in the Swedish About Us data, which might be due to the fact that the American companies presumably are less known to the Swedish than to the American audiences. The mental processes of sensing do not form a big category, but they are still slightly more common in the American data.

6.2.2 Process distribution across individual companies

Material processes are used on all American pages except for CSC’s. Relational processes are used on all 20 pages. Mental processes occur on 14 pages, verbal processes on eleven pages. The least common process, the existential, occurs on seven pages. Three companies use all of the investigated process types: 3M, Symantec and Xerox. Material and relational processes are used on all Swedish About Us pages. Existing processes occur on twelve pages, as do verbal processes. Finally, mental processes are used on half of the pages. Six companies make use of all the process types investigated here: 3M, CSC, EDS, Pfizer, Procter & Gamble and Xerox.

The distribution on American individual company pages on the whole resembles the total frequency distribution. On 14 pages, the material processes account for half, or more, of the process total. The material process is the single most common category on eleven pages. On five pages, the relational process is the most common page features the same frequency for material and relational processes, with no other process types used. Mental clauses are used more often than relational clauses on three pages, most notably Microsoft’s. Verbal processes are not very frequent on individual pages, but occur three times each on the pages of IBM, Symantec and Xerox.

The frequency distribution on Swedish individual pages resembles the total distribution, with some variations. Material and relational processes are the two most common, or the only occurring, categories on 19 pages. On twelve pages, the material processes make up roughly half, or more, of the process total. Microsoft represents an exception: while material processes form the biggest category, mental clauses are more common than relational clauses. On nine pages, material processes form the most common category, whereas relational processes are most common on
eight pages. The remaining three pages display an equal frequency for material and relational processes.

6.2.3 Participant roles

The overall distribution of roles among the main participants show that the company is assigned more than half of the roles in both data sets (see Table 6.9 below). The American company is assigned 65% of the roles, whereas the Swedish company gets an even higher proportion of the roles total, 76%. The external audience gets close to 30 per cent of the roles on the American data, but only 13 per cent on the Swedish pages. The internal audience II is not very common in the roles assigned, as it represents 6 per cent of the roles in the American data, and 11 per cent in the Swedish data. Based on role distribution alone, the overall picture thus suggests that the company is given slightly more active role in the Swedish About Us data than in the American, whereas the external audience is given more space on the American pages than on the Swedish pages.

Table 6.9: Participant role distribution across three participants in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Company roles</th>
<th>Audience roles</th>
<th>Audience II roles</th>
<th>Roles total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am. About Us</td>
<td>154 (65%)</td>
<td>69 (29%)</td>
<td>15 (6%)</td>
<td>238 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(362 clauses)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sw. About Us</td>
<td>331 (76%)</td>
<td>55 (13%)</td>
<td>47 (11%)</td>
<td>433 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(657 clauses)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perceived dynamism and passivity of the participants can also be approached by investigating the distribution of roles across main clauses and subclauses. Main clauses underline the dynamism of a certain participant, whereas subordinate clauses give the participant a more passive role. A simple categorisation of the role data distribution across main and subordinate clauses is presented in Table 6.10 below. In the American About Us data, the main clauses are dominated by company roles (63%). The primary audience is involved in almost 30% of the main clauses, whereas the secondary audience is almost invisible in the American data. The subclause roles are played by the company (76%), with a few instances of audience I. Audience II does not take any roles in subclauses.
Table 6.10: Role distribution across participants and clause types (About Us)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Company roles</th>
<th>Audience roles</th>
<th>Audience II roles</th>
<th>Roles total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Main clause Am. (301)</td>
<td>135 (63%)</td>
<td>63 (30%)</td>
<td>15 (7%)</td>
<td>213 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subclause Am. (61)</td>
<td>19 (76%)</td>
<td>6 (24%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>25 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main clause Sw. (476)</td>
<td>264 (76%)</td>
<td>47 (14%)</td>
<td>35 (10%)</td>
<td>346 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subclause Sw. (181)</td>
<td>67 (77%)</td>
<td>8 (9%)</td>
<td>12 (14%)</td>
<td>87 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Swedish data also display a distribution with mostly company roles in the main clauses (76%). However, audience I has fewer roles than in the American data. While almost invisible in the American data, audience II is here lifted close to audience I in terms of role distribution. Company roles, again, dominate the subordinate clauses. The two audience types are also given roles in subclauses, but not as frequently. Audience II, which is given no roles in the American subclauses, account for 10% of the main clauses and 14% of the subclauses.

6.2.3.1 Dynamic company roles

The dynamic roles for the American company make up 61% of the total company role frequency (see Table 6.11). The role of Actor is the most frequent (54%), whereas Sayer and Senser are rare (6% and 1%). In the Swedish data, the dynamic company roles make up 55% (184 instances) of the total. Here, too, the role of Actor is the most common, whereas Sayer and Senser are rare.

Table 6.11: Dynamic company roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Senser</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Dynamic roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>83 (54%)</td>
<td>9 (6%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>94 (61%)</td>
<td>153 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>157 (47%)</td>
<td>13 (4%)</td>
<td>14 (4%)</td>
<td>184 (55%)</td>
<td>331 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Actor is the most common company role in both sets of data (see Table 6.12). In the American data, the company Actor is realised by first person plural in 48 cases out of 83 (example 6.37). The company name is used in 28 cases. Of these, one instance refers only to a part of the company: *Fort Dodge Animal Health* (part of Wyeth). The small category of noun phrases includes *the company, our company, the firm, Microsoft adcenter labs, and Microsoft community affairs*. Finally, there is one
instance of company Actor in the form of the pronoun *one*, used as a numerical expression. The Swedish company Actor is realised by first person plural in 88 cases out of 157. The second largest company Actor category is that of company name (58 instances, see example 6.38). The final category is represented by nine noun phrases, including different variations on the noun *företaget* (‘the company’), but also *varje center*, *våra nordiska kontor* and *förstahandsvalet för stödlösningar* (‘every centre, our Nordic office, the first choice within support solutions’).

6.37. *Each year, we complete thousands of successful assignments with clients from the gamut of industries.* (CBRE) **Actor:** *we*

6.38. *EDS hjälper idag fler än 9 000 kunder i 62 länder att bli mer flexibla och snabbfotade, att minska kostnader och risker.* (EDS) **Actor:** *EDS*

‘Today EDS helps more than 9,000 customers in 62 countries to become more flexible and agile, to reduce costs and risks.’

In the American data, the company Senser is realised by *we* in six cases (example 6.39). The company name is used twice for Senser, and the impersonal *one* is used once. The Swedish data features nine cases of Senser as first person plural (example 6.40) and two cases of Senser as company name. There is also one case where the company Senser is realised by the impersonal pronoun *man* – in this particular clause, a heading, the pronoun can also include both audience I and audience II: *Varumärken man kan lita på* (‘brands that one can trust’) (Procter & Gamble). Finally, there is one instance of Senser realised as third person pronoun *han* (‘he’), which refers to the company founder. This Senser could be referred either to the company, or to the employees (audience II) category.

6.39. **3M** *values diversity in the workforce and in the global markets and communities we serve.* **Senser:** *3M*

6.40. *För bara när vi känner kundens alla styrkor och svagheter, möjligheter och utmaningar, kan vi utveckla vårt samarbete till affärsmöjligheter.* (EDS) **Senser:** *vi*

‘Only when we know all the strengths and weaknesses, opportunities and challenges of the client, we can develop our cooperation into business opportunities.’
Table 6.12: Lexical realisation of dynamic company roles (About Us)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Existent</th>
<th>Static roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>24 (16%)</td>
<td>25 (16%)</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
<td>52 (34%)</td>
<td>154 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>50 (15%)</td>
<td>50 (15%)</td>
<td>14 (4%)</td>
<td>114 (34%)</td>
<td>331 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two instances of American company Sayer are realised by we (example 6.41) and company name. The Swedish data contains 14 instances of Sayer. In eight cases, it is realised by we (example 6.42), in four cases by company name. There are also two instances of third person han referring to the company founder, which could be seen as a representative of both the company and the employees.

6.41. Marsh will insist that insurance companies show commission rates on all policies. **Sayer: Marsh**

6.42. Vi kallar det 360 graders varumärkesbyggande. (Ogilvy) **Sayer: vi**

'We call it 360 degree branding.'

6.2.3.2 Static company roles

The static company roles make up roughly 34% of the total company role frequency in both data sets (see Table 6.13 below). The distribution is also very similar across categories in the American and the Swedish material. Carrier and Token are equally common: in the American data, these categories both hold 24 instances. Existent is very rare. In the Swedish data, Carrier and Token feature 15% of the roles each. Existent is the smallest category with 4% of the roles.

Table 6.13: Static company roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Existent</th>
<th>Static roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>24 (16%)</td>
<td>25 (16%)</td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
<td>52 (34%)</td>
<td>154 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>50 (15%)</td>
<td>50 (15%)</td>
<td>14 (4%)</td>
<td>114 (34%)</td>
<td>331 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The company Carrier is realised by either we (13, see example 6.43) or name (10) in the American data (see Table 6.14). There is also one instance of the determiner each: each of our seven businesses. The Swedish company Carrier is also realised mainly by we (22) and company name (20). There is also a small category of Carrier realised as a noun phrase, including six variations on företaget (‘the company’, example 6.44) and one instance of den svenska organisationen (‘the Swedish organisation’). The one instance of third person han has multiple referents (cf. dynamic company roles above, Senser and Sayer realised by han).

6.43. In addition, Wyeth has a strong presence in the osteoarthritis treatment market. (Wyeth) Carrier: Wyeth

6.44. Idag har företaget ca 850 medarbetare i fem städer runt om i Sverige. (CSC)
Carrier: företaget
'Today, the company has approximately 850 employees in five cities in Sweden.'

The American company Token is mostly the company name (21 instances). First person plural is used in three cases. There is finally one instance of a noun phrase token; our market information group. This could, however, also refer to the employees of the company, i.e. audience II. In the Swedish data, the most common realisation of Token is also the company name (35 cases). In twelve cases, the pronoun we is used. There one instance of an impersonal pronoun (det, ‘it’) and two instances of noun phrases, including VD för Eli Lilly Sweden (‘CEO of Eli Lilly Sweden’) and VD för moderbolaget (‘CEO of the parent company’). Examples 6.45 and 6.46 show the company name as Token:

6.45. Pitney Bowes is the world’s leading provider of mailstream solutions. Token: Pitney Bowes

6.46. IBM är ett av världens ledande företag inom informationsbehandling. Token: IBM
'IBM is one of the world’s leading companies within information processing.'

There are three instances of company Existent in the American material: one we, one name and one noun phrase (3M Center, example 6.47). The Swedish features the same realisation categories: three instances each of first person plural and company name (example 6.48) and eight instances of a noun phrase. Noun phrases
used for the company Existent include for instance *det nordiska huvudkontoret*, *vårt svenska kontor* and *filialen euroPARC* (‘the Nordic headquarters, our Swedish office, the branch office euroPARC’).

6.47. **3M Center** is located four miles east of downtown St. Paul, Minnesota (*I-94 at McKnight Road*). (3M) **Existent: 3M Center**

6.48. *I Sverige finns Hudson i Stockholm, Göteborg och Malmö.* (Hudson) **Existent: Hudson**

’In Sweden, Hudson is located in Stockholm, Gothenburg and Malmö.’

Table 6.14: Lexical realisation of static company roles (About Us)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>First person pl. pron</th>
<th>Company name</th>
<th>First person sg. pron</th>
<th>General/impersonal prons</th>
<th>Noun phrases</th>
<th>Multiple referents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carrier Am.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1 (han)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier Sw.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token Am.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token Sw.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>1 (det)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent Am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent Sw.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.3.3 **Passive company roles**

The passive company roles form a small part of the company roles. In the American data, passive company roles make up 5% of the total, in the Swedish data the corresponding figure is 10% (see Table 6.15). The eight passive roles in the American data are Scope (5 cases), Recipient (1 case), Receiver (1) and Value (1). In the Swedish data, most of the passive company roles are in the form of material Goal. There are also a few cases each of material Scope (2), Recipient (3), and Client (2). The verbal role of Receiver occurs four times. Finally, in four cases the company is represented by the relational Value (4).

Five of the American passive company roles are realised by company name (example 6.49). Two instances of Scope and the one instance of Receiver are realised by first person *us*. The Swedish company Goal is realised by company name in 12 cases. The first person *oss* (‘us’) is used four times (example 6.50). There is also one instance of an impersonal pronoun, *det* (‘it’). The remaining instances of Goal are realised by a noun phrase, including *det svenska dotterbolaget*, *företaget*, *hela organisationen* and *vårt svenska kontor* (‘the Swedish subsidiary, the company, the
entire organisation, our Swedish office’). The three cases of Recipient are realised by first person oss, while Client is realised by company name and oss. All four cases of Receiver are realised by oss. The two instances of Swedish company Scope are realised by first person plural, one vi (‘we’) and one oss. Value is realised by name (two cases), vi (one case) and one noun phrase; Xerox’ tillverkningsanläggning i Venray (‘Xerox’ production site in Venray’).

6.49. Collaboration with our sister division, Highland Partners, a global boutique in C-level retained executive search, gives Hudson unrivaled capabilities across the entire spectrum of human capital services. (Hudson) Recipient: Hudson

6.50. Kontakta oss (Microsoft) Receiver: oss ‘Contact us.’

Table 6.15: Passive company roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Material clauses: Scope Recipient Client Goal</th>
<th>Verbal clauses: Receiver</th>
<th>Relational clauses: Value</th>
<th>Passive roles total</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>5 1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8 (5%)</td>
<td>152 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>2 3 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>33 (10%)</td>
<td>331 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.3.4 Dynamic audience I roles

The roles assigned to the primary audiences of the About US pages are mostly dynamic. 90% of all the audience I roles in the two data sets are either Actor, Senser or Sayer (see Table 6.16). The Actor is the most common role, representing 39% of the American and 44% of the Swedish roles. Senser is slightly less common, and Sayer is the smallest category. The roles of Actor and Sayer are somewhat more common in the Swedish data, whereas the role of Senser is less common.

Table 6.16: Dynamic audience I roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Senser</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Dynamic roles total</th>
<th>Total audience I role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience I Am.</td>
<td>27 (39%)</td>
<td>25 (36%)</td>
<td>10 (15%)</td>
<td>62 (90%)</td>
<td>69 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience I Sw.</td>
<td>24 (44%)</td>
<td>16 (29%)</td>
<td>10 (18%)</td>
<td>50 (90%)</td>
<td>55 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The dynamic audience roles are mostly realised by imperatives. In the American data, all but one, or 26 cases of Actor (see example 6.51) are realised by an imperative (Table 6.17). There is one instance of second person pronoun. The Senser role is realised by an imperative 21 times, and by second person pronoun four times (6.53). The audience Sayer is always realised by an imperative (see example 6.55).

In the Swedish data, the audience I Actor is realised by an imperative (13 cases) or a second person pronoun (9 cases, see example 6.52). Eight of the second person pronouns are in the singular, and one in plural. The two cases of first person have multiple referents, as they refer to all main participants in the form of inclusive vi. The Swedish audience I Senser is mostly realised by imperative (12 cases, example 6.54). There is also one instance each of a second person pronoun (du) and a quantitative generalising pronoun (man). Finally, Senser is also twice realised by a vi with multiple referents (cf. Swedish Actor above, inclusive vi). The Swedish audience I Sayer roles are realised by imperative nine times, and by second person pronoun once (example 6.56).

6.51. **Visit our newly launched web site for tracking our compounds in development** (Pfizer) **Actor: (you)**

6.52. **Vill du arbeta på Microsoft? Actor: du**  ’Do you want to work at Microsoft?’

6.53. **Unisys helps you secure your business operations, so you can better focus on opportunities.** (Unisys) **Senser: you**

6.54. **Läs mer om CSCs globala verksamhet. Senser: (you)**  ’Read more about CSC’s global operations’

6.55. **Sign up now** (Xerox) **Sayer: (you)**

6.56. **För svar på frågor om IBMs produkter, service och tjänster kan du kontakta oss på IBM General Service Centre. Sayer: du**

’For answers to questions about IBM’s products you can contact us at the IBM General Service Centre.’
Table 6.17: Lexical realisation of dynamic audience I roles (About Us)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audience I</th>
<th>2nd person pronouns</th>
<th>Imperative structure</th>
<th>1st person pronouns: multiple ref.</th>
<th>General/ impersonal pronouns</th>
<th>Noun phrases</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor Am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor Sw.</td>
<td>8 du/1 ni</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2 (vi)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Am.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Sw.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2 (vi)</td>
<td>1 (man)</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Am.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Sw.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.3.5 Static audience I roles

There are very few static audience I roles. In the American data, there is one case of audience I Existent, realised by *you*. The Swedish data feature two instances of Existent, realised by second person plural *ni* (see example 6.57), and one instance of Carrier, realised by second person singular *du*.

6.57. *Och med årtionden av erfarenhet i ryggen av att lösa komplicerade IT-problem kan vi bana väg för er – från den punkt där *ni* är idag till den punkt *ni* vill nå.* (CA) **Existent: ni**

’And with decades of experience in solving complex IT problems, we can pave the way for you – from the point where you are today to the point you want to reach.’

6.2.3.6 Passive audience I roles

Passive audience I roles are rare in the About Us data. There are altogether six passive roles in the American data: five instances of Client which are realised by second person *you* (see example 6.58), and one instance of Scope, also realised by *you*. The Swedish data feature two instances of Client, one of which is realised by *er*, the other by *dig*.

6.58. *Unisys helps *you* secure your business operations* (Unisys) **Client: you**

6.2.3.7 Audience II roles

The company employees are assigned 15 roles in the American About Us data and 47 roles in the Swedish data. The American audience II is assigned an active role in one third of the cases, as they are featured as Actor three times and Sayer two times
(see Table 6.18). The Actor roles are realised by employees, Wyeth researchers and Wyeth scientists (example 6.59). The Sayer roles are realised by EDS fellows and CEO Anne Mulcahy. The Swedish audience II is assigned an active role in 26 cases; that is more than half of the total audience II role frequency. The Swedish employees occur as Actor 19 times, Sayer three times and Senser 4 times. The Actor roles are realised by for instance människor, n anställda, en handful pionjärer, våra konsulter (‘people, n employees, a handful of pioneers, our consultants’). The Senser roles are realised as vi and man (‘we’, ‘one’, see example 6.60), which are inclusive, and han (‘he’), which refers to the company founder. In the role of Sayer we find the company name and han (‘he’).

6.59. In research, Wyeth scientists are investigating novel treatments for bone and tissue repair. (Wyeth) Actor: Wyeth scientists

6.60. Vi ser det i den utbredda användningen av datorer, internets genomslagskraft, den hård konkurrensen inom IT-branschen och den digitala ekonomin anchored. (EDS) Senser: vi ‘We see it in the widespread use of computers, the impact of the internet, the tough competition in the field of IT and the arrival of the digital economy.’

Table 6.18: Dynamic audience II roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Senser</th>
<th>Dynamic roles total</th>
<th>Total audience II role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Am.</td>
<td>3 (20%)</td>
<td>2 (13%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 (33%)</td>
<td>15 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Sw.</td>
<td>19 (40%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>4 (9%)</td>
<td>26 (55%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The employees are assigned four static roles in the American data (see Table 6.19). There is one instance of Carrier, realised by EDS people, and three instances of Token, realised by our Fellows, people and our market information group. The Swedish data holds six instances of static audience II roles. The Carrier roles are realised by de, han and 6000 medarbetare (‘they, he, 6,000 employees’) whereas the Token roles are realised by medarbetarna (example 6.61), de 120000 personer and de 125 personer (‘the employees, the 120,000 people, the 125 people’).

6.61. Medarbetarna är EDS största och viktigaste tillgång […] (EDS) Token: medarbetarna

‘The employees are EDS’ largest and most important resource.’
Table 6.19: Static audience II roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Static roles total</th>
<th>Total audience II role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Am.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 (27%)</td>
<td>15 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Sw.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6 (13%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The passive audience II roles are six in the American data and 15 in the Swedish data (see Table 6.20). The American data features four instances of Scope, realised by our people, people, colleagues, and the leaders (see example 6.62). The two case of Attribute are realised by our global community of employees and 26,000 employees. The Swedish data holds nine instances of Scope, which all are realised by noun phrases like ca 90 anställda, drygt 52000 medarbetare (‘about 90 employees, over 52,000 employees’). There is one instance of Client, realised by medarbetarna (the employees) and five cases of Value, realised by either a number plus a noun for employees, or a person name.

6.62. Meet the leaders of what Forbes Magazine called one of "The Best Managed Companies in America." (Symantec) Scope: the leaders

Table 6.20: Passive audience II roles in the About Us data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Scope</th>
<th>Client</th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Passive roles total</th>
<th>Total audience II role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Am.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>6 (40%)</td>
<td>15 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience II Sw.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15 (32%)</td>
<td>47 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.2.3.8 Summary of participant roles
The overall distribution of roles across the participants 'company', 'external audience' and 'internal audience' show that the company is assigned a slightly higher proportion of the roles in the Swedish About Us data than in the American data (difference: 12 percentage points). As a consequence, the Swedish external audience is assigned fewer roles than the American external audience (difference: 26 percentage points). The distribution on main clauses and subclauses show that the difference in company role distribution between the language versions is concentrated to the main clauses. Main clauses in the American data thus contain 13 percentage points more company roles than main clauses in the Swedish data. For the external audience, the differences in distribution are rather similar across main clauses and subclauses. The internal audience, which represents a small category in
both data sets, occurs both in main clauses and subclauses in Swedish, but only in main clauses in English.

Of the assigned company roles, more than half are dynamic, that is they represent either Actor, Senser or Sayer. Actor is the most common role, whereas Senser and Sayer are rare. The distribution is similar in both language data sets. Roughly one third of the company roles represent a static state in both data sets. Carrier and Token account for 15-16% each, whereas Existent is rare. The passive company roles represent less than 10% in both sets of data.

The external audiences, when involved in processes, are also mostly portrayed in dynamic roles, as 90% of the audience I roles are dynamic in both data sets. Actor is the most common role, followed by Senser and then Sayer. Even if the role proportions are rather evenly distributed across the data sets, Senser is slightly more common in the American than in the Swedish data. Most dynamic roles are realised by imperatives directed at the external audience; however, the Swedish data include a few pronoun realisations, especially in the Actor category. The Swedish data also reveals four cases of first person plural referring simultaneously to the company and both audience groups. The static and passive audience I roles are very few in both the American and the Swedish data. This suggests an audience that is, in clauses, rarely described nor portrayed in direct interaction with the company. Instead, the external audience is urged into dynamism via the use of imperatives.

The internal audience, that is the employees, are not very visible in terms of assigned roles, as they represent only 6% (Am.) and 10% (Sw.) of the roles assigned in total. The internal audiences are mostly realised by noun phrases in both data sets. The projected dynamism of the internal audience differs somewhat between the two language versions, in that the Swedish audience II is more dynamic. Whereas one third of the American audience II roles are dynamic, more than half of the Swedish audience II roles belong to the dynamic category. Actor is the most common role. In relation to the total number of roles assigned, the static and the passive audience II roles are more common in the American than in the Swedish data.

### 6.3 Speech functions

The American About Us corpus consists of 361 clauses, and 287 other segments, which are clause fragments, headings, slogans, different list items (including link lists), address lines, phone numbers or stock exchange quotes. The segments that do not qualify as clauses are excluded from the speech function categorisation, but they are of course included in the participant reference analysis (see section 6.1). In this section, the focus will be on imperatives and interrogatives. Of all the clauses in the American About Us data, 300 are declaratives (83%), 56 are imperatives (16%) and 4
(1%) are interrogatives. While declaratives are used on all investigated pages, imperatives occur on 15 pages and interrogatives on four pages.

The Swedish About Us data consists of 657 clauses and 236 other textual segments. The elements not counted as clauses include address information, link lists, financial information, headings and clause fragments. Of all the clauses in the Swedish corpus, 616 (94%) are declaratives, 34 (5%) imperatives and eight (1%) interrogatives. Declaratives are used on all investigated pages, imperatives on 12 pages and interrogatives on five pages.

6.3.1 Imperatives

In the American data, the 56 imperatives involve the audience in material, mental and verbal processes. There are 22 imperative material clauses, 22 mental clauses and 12 verbal clauses. Clause examples are presented in Table 6.21 below. The material clauses deal with gaining information, expressed by a variety of process verbs (Examples A1-A6). The users were, for example, asked to visit a page or a site (A1, A3), download a brochure (A6), locate an office, find out about policies (A5), print pages, meet employees (A2) or simply find out more (A4). Of the material imperative clauses, 14 are hyperlinked in themselves (underlined in the table), whereas the rest occur in the immediate proximity of a hyperlink. Even if the verb phrases used vary, all of the clauses serve to inform the audience about how and where to find more information by navigating the site.

Of the Swedish imperative clauses, eleven express a material process, thirteen a mental process and ten a verbal process. The division between process types is thus very even. Some material imperative clauses are concerned with visiting another page (S1, S2) or meeting corporate representatives (S3). These types of imperative serve to offer the user information. Four imperatives deal with printing the page (S4), while one urges the user to add dates to their calendar (S5). These imperatives refer to actions outside the website.

In a linked list of current campaigns within the company, Microsoft lists three clauses phrased as commands (see S6-S8). These three clauses are not imperatives directed at the audience. Nevertheless, they can be read as commands: the first one addresses the surfing behaviour of the Internet users (S6), thus also including the audience of the website. The second and the third campaign activities are constructed as commands directed at the company itself.

The 22 American imperatives that contain mental clauses all express actions of reading (A7), seeing (A8, A9), and learning (A10, A11). These are mental processes; however, in this case they also serve to guide the web user in how and where to gain more information. Of course, visiting and browsing a website always involves reading and seeing, but in these examples the mental activities are explicitly stated.
The Swedish mental imperative clauses are concerned with reading more (10 cases, see Ex. S9) or otherwise receiving more information by means of a mental process (S10).

The imperatives realised by commands with verbal process are concerned thematically with contacting the company (A12-A15), looking for contact details (A16), emailing a page or link (A17, A18), rating the contents of a page (A19), signing up for a newsletter (A20, A21) or ordering something (A22). Seven of the twelve verbal clauses are hyperlinked.

The linked commands that appear within the text area of the web page ask the users to comply with the verbal process and click the link, which in a sense doubles the power of the imperatives. The remaining verbal clauses are not hyperlinked. The CA example (A14) forms a heading for the company contact details. The IBM imperatives occur as part of a longer clause, where the imperative actions occur as solutions to questions that the user might have (A15-A16). The Xerox example, which is a heading, asks the user to subscribe to the newsletter (A20). The text after the heading finishes with the linked sign up-imperative (A21).

It is often difficult to draw a line between certain verbal processes and material processes. It can be argued that subscribing, ordering and signing up in fact reflect material actions. However, since the actions primarily involve communication with the other party in the way of implicitly asking for something by providing contact details, these examples are categorised as verbal processes. Nonetheless, they are more implicit in their verbal qualities than straightforward asking.

The Swedish verbal process imperatives deal thematically with contacting the company, asking questions, and sending tips to friends. Half of them contain a hyperlink. As can be seen from the examples above, the clauses express different grades of imperative power. The first two occur as direct commands, the IBM clause is a heading (S11), whereas the Pfizer example is a hyperlink occurring independently within the text space (S12). The third example imposes restrictions on the user within the imperative and may be read more like a request (S13). The examples by Microsoft (S14) and Ogilvy (S15) function primarily as offers, even if the grammatical form is a command.
Table 6.21: Examples of imperative clauses (About Us)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Am.</th>
<th>Sw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1. To learn more about our volunteers, cash gifts and product donations, visit this site. (3M)</td>
<td>S1. Besök Microsofts pressrum (Microsoft) ('Visit Microsoft’s press room’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. Meet Our People (3M)</td>
<td>S2. Besök gårna vår globala sida för utförligare information genom att klicka här. (Hudson) ('Please visit our global page for more detailed information by clicking here’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| A3. For more information, go to http://www.wpp.com. (Ogilvy) | S3. Träffa ledarna för företaget (Symantec) ('Meet the leaders of the company’)
| A4. Find out more. (Pitney Bowes) | S4. Skriv ut sidan (EDS) ('Print the page’)
| A5. Get details on Microsoft’s intellectual property, trademarks, and copyrights. (Microsoft) | S5. Lägg in 8-12 maj i din kalender (Symantec) ('Mark 8-12 May in your calendar”)
| A6. Download the brochure. (PDF, 1.4 MB) (Xerox) | S6. •Surfa Lugnt (Microsoft) ('Surf without a care’)
| A7. Read more about Global Volunteer Day » » (EDS) | S7. •Skapa nya möjligheter på den lokala orten (Microsoft) ('Create new possibilities in the new location’)
| A8. To see some of these programs in action, check out our TV and print advertising. (Microsoft) | S8. •Ge människor tillgång till den nya tekniken (Microsoft) (Give people access to the new technology’)
| A9. See our Operating Principles to better understand […] (Unisys) | |
| A10. Learn about Microsoft’s businesses, executives and directors, and corporate governance. (Microsoft) | |
| A11. Learn how to make the most of your mailstream. (Pitney Bowes) | |
| Mental | Mental |

Material

Mental
6.3.2 Interrogatives

There are four interrogative clauses in the American data. Three of the American interrogatives are direct questions to the audience, involving the reader in a mental process:

6.63. Did you know...? (3M)
6.64. Did You Know? (CSC)
6.65. Would you like to participate? (Microsoft)

3M and CSC use a question to introduce a possibly interesting fact about the company and then offer the information. The reader is thus asked to participate in a knowledge exchange, and is also addressed directly by you. Microsoft enquires about the reader’s willingness to participate in a survey, also by direct pronominal address. By answering yes, the reader can fill out a survey and thus engage in an activity exchange with the company.

The fourth interrogative has a text-organising function:

6.66. So how does Hill & Knowlton do superior quality work, even on the toughest tasks? (Hilland & Knowlton)
In the Swedish About Us data there are altogether eight interrogatives. Of these, three are identical repetitions on the same page. The relational clauses consist of the clause *Vilka är vi*, always without questions mark (CSC, EDS), that serves as an introductory heading for information about the company. A material interrogative with a similar function is *Vad gör vi* (EDS). There are two more material interrogative clauses:

6.67. *Varför jobba på IBM? Vår jobbsökarguide har svaret på alla dina frågor* (IBM)

   'Why work at IBM? Our jobseeker guide has the answer to all of your questions.'

6.68. *Vill du arbeta på Microsoft?* (Microsoft)

   'Do you want to work at Microsoft?'

The non-finite clause in the IBM example is a question that the company uses to introduce its guide for applicants which supposedly can answer the question. As such, this question can be seen as something the prospective employee would ask and the company is thus trying to cover the question that might be on the reader’s mind. The Microsoft example is, by contrast, a question directed at the user. Even if primarily material (*arbeta*), this clause also projects the modal value of wanting. This clause serves as an introduction to a short text on working for the company. Finally, Ogilvy provides a mental question for the audience, after having described their views on how to best build a brand (6.69). This question is followed by an invitation to get in touch with the company.

6.69. *Tycker du också det?* (Ogilvy)

   'Is this also what you think?'

### 6.3.3 Summary

Declaratives dominate both About Us corpora, and are somewhat more common in the Swedish data in relation to the clause total. Fragments and other non-clauses are also very common. Imperatives make up 16% of the American clauses, and 5% of the Swedish clauses. In relation to the clause total, the Swedish data thus have fewer imperatives than the American data. The proportion of interrogatives is only 1%.

The mental and material imperative processes deal primarily with information-related activities, such as navigating the site and learning more about various topics. There are, however, a few examples of actions outside the site. The verbal imperatives function as commands, requests or offers. The interrogatives have three functions: they organise the text, they offer knowledge exchange, or activity exchange.
Chapter 7: Interacting with a Specific Audience

The corporate website usually includes a section with information on careers and open positions within the company. Most companies also link to this section from their starting page. Often, this section of one or several pages is simply called Careers, and addresses prospective job candidates with information on what it is like to work for the company in question. As the Careers pages constitute a subsection of the company information pages, the audience addressed is more specific than on the About Us pages. Typical topics include current job openings, information on pay and benefits, career possibilities and guidelines for applying. These pages may also include company information.

This chapter presents the findings from the participant reference and transitivity analyses of the Careers pages. The references and roles are followed by a report on speech functions.

7.1 Participant references

7.1.1 References to the company

The investigated American data of 4,569 words contain altogether 385 references to the company (8.4 references per 100 words), and they fall into the categories of first person plural and singular, company name, noun phrases for the company and noun phrases for the employees. In addition, there are three small categories of pronouns referring to the company name or to a noun phrase. The distribution across categories is shown below (Figure 7.1). First person plural is the largest category, with 154 instances (40%). The company name is the second biggest category (130 instances; 34%). There are a few pronouns referring back to the company name (3; 1%). The noun phrases referring to the employees make up 13% of the references, whereas noun phrases to the company as an abstract entity are 9% in total. Connected to the noun phrase references are two pronoun categories: pronoun references to a company noun phrase (NPC) and to an employee noun phrase (NPE).
Figure 7.1: American references to the company (Am. Careers)

In addition to these figures, there are two cases where both the company and the audience are included in the lexical reference. These are everyone (everyone's potential, Microsoft), and one instance of ‘us’ (both of us, Procter & Gamble):

7.1. At Microsoft, we’re working toward a future where everyone’s potential can be fulfilled.

7.2. By recruiting the best people and providing development opportunities to learn and grow, we help ensure a bright future for both of us. (Procter&Gamble)

The Swedish data of 4,188 words contains a total of 422 references to the company (10.1 references per 100 words). The distribution across categories is shown in Figure 7.2 below. The biggest single category is that of first person plural, and in the Swedish material it accounts for more than half of all the references (51%). First person is thus more common here than in the American data (39%). Instead, the company name category is smaller, with 23% of the references against 33% in the American data. Noun phrases referring to the employees (14%) and to the company as an entity (9%) show roughly the same frequencies as in the American data. Person names are equally rare as on the American pages (2%). In addition, there are two small categories of pronouns referring to the company name, and to employee noun phrases.
7.1.1.1 Overall distribution

First person dominance. On the American Careers pages, eleven companies display at least twice as many first person as noun phrase references to the company, which suggests a dominance pattern. These include CSC, Hudson, IBM, Lilly, Pitney Bowes, Procter&Gamble, TransPerfect, Unisys and Xerox. IBM has no noun phrase references at all. Of the American Careers pages with first person dominance, Lilly, Pitney Bowes, Procter&Gamble and Unisys also display first person dominance on their About Us page. On the Swedish Careers pages, eleven companies display at least twice as many first person references as noun phrase references. These include CSC, Hill&Knowlton, IBM, Marsh, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Procter & Gamble, Symantec, TransPerfect, Unisys and Xerox. Microsoft has no noun phrase references at all. Seven of the Swedish Careers pages with first person dominance (CSC, Hill&Knowlton, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Procter & Gamble, TransPerfect and Unisys) have the same dominance pattern on their About Us pages. Four of these companies, Procter & Gamble, TransPerfect, Unisys and Xerox prefer first person references also on their American Careers page.

Noun phrase dominance. The American Careers data contains no pages with third person dominance. The Swedish Careers pages of 3M and Lilly favour noun phrases over first person references. Lilly follows the same pattern on its American About Us page. However, Lilly’s American Careers page is dominated by first person references. 3M prefers first person on both the Swedish and the American About Us pages.
Company name. None of the American Careers pages display name reference dominance, however, Pfizer and Wyeth come close to the dominance limit, i.e. at least twice as many name references as first person or noun phrase references. The Swedish data contains no pages with name dominance.

On the whole, there are fewer cases of dominating reference categories on the American Careers than on the About Us pages. First person dominance is almost as common, but only half of the companies export this dominance pattern also to their Careers pages. The number of companies with an even distribution across the categories is higher, and both the company name and noun phrase references are down toned. Compared to the Swedish About Us pages, the dominance patterns are much weaker in the Swedish Careers data. However, the distribution is not completely even across categories, as the first person dominance seems to be exported from the Swedish About Us pages. On the whole, the Swedish Careers pages data seems closer to the Swedish About Us data than the American Careers data as regards reference dominance patterns.

7.1.1.2 First person
The references to the American company in first person fall into five categories: the subjective we (see example 7.3 below), the possessive our (example 7.4), the objective us (example 7.5) the subjective I and the reflexive myself (example 7.4). The distribution across categories is shown in Table 7.1 below. The possessive our make up half of the references (51%). The subjective we comes second (39%), whereas the objective us comes third (7%). The two categories for first person singular are very small and these references all occur on the same page in the data, CSC Careers.

7.3. We look forward to meeting you as we travel the country looking for the best and brightest to join 3M. (3M)

7.4. In empowering our employees/clients with the best of these technologies, I never stop learning myself – a unique career privilege at CSC. (CSC)

7.5. People look to us to safeguard the integrity of their information, ensuring it is secure and available. (Symantec)

The possessives dominate on four companies’ Careers pages; of these, two have a first person dominance. These four companies (EDS, Pfizer, Pitney Bowes and Procter & Gamble) prefer the possessive form also on their About Us pages. There is, however, one company with no possessive pronouns at all: Ogilvy, which only displays one instance of an objective pronoun. Unisys is the only company with a subjective we dominance.
Table 7.1: First person references to the company (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective forms</td>
<td>we 61 (39%)</td>
<td>vi 107 (49%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>jag 2 (1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive forms</td>
<td>our 80 (51%)</td>
<td>vår/vårt/våra 78 (36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective forms</td>
<td>us 12 (7%)</td>
<td>oss 27 (12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inclusive</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive forms</td>
<td>myself 1 (1%)</td>
<td>oss 5 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>157 (100%)</td>
<td>217 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared to the About Us pages data, first person references are rarely introduced in page titles or other headings on top of the page. As the most common page title is indeed Careers, it seems to be closer to a standard section title than the variable headings for the About Us section. Eleven companies introduce a first person pronoun in the first or second sentence, so that its direct referent is the company name (see example 7.6). Five companies define themselves by noun phrase before introducing a first person referent (example 7.7). The rest of the companies introduce first person pronouns later in the text, often leaving room for the audience in the first paragraph (example 7.8). In the examples, // is used to separate headings from the rest of the text.

7.6. Careers // In our business, relationships make the difference. At Marsh, we recognize the central role our professionals play in our success. (Marsh)

7.7. Careers at Hudson // As an organization focused on specialized staffing and outsourcing, we know the importance of making the right career decision. (Hudson)

7.8. Careers // What can I expect from a career at Lilly? Answers. // No matter where you are in your career, you ask questions. As a new college graduate, you wonder what kind of opportunities you’ll have and how your education can help you make an impact in your first job […] (Lilly)
The Swedish first person references fall into three categories: the subjective *vi* (see example 7.9 and 7.11), the possessive *vår/vårt/våra* (example 7.9) the objective *oss* (example 7.10) and the reflexive *oss* (example 7.11). Compared to the American data, the first person singular references are missing from the Swedish pages, meaning that no direct, personal quotes from company representatives are included. Whereas the possessives form the largest category in the American data, the Swedish data is dominated by the subjective form (see Table 7.1). *Vi* makes up close to half of the first person references (49%, 107 instances), whereas *vår* accounts for 36%. The objective form is also more common on the Swedish (12%) than on the American pages (7%). The small category of reflexive first person plural does not exist in the American data. The distribution of first person subjective, possessive and objective references on the Swedish Careers pages is actually rather similar to that of the Swedish About pages.

7.9. *Vi* på CA är alltid intresserade av att knyta nya kontakter med kompetenta människor inom våra affärsområden. (CA)

'We at CA are always interested in establishing new contacts with competent people within our business areas’

7.10. Är du intresserad av att arbeta hos *oss*, skicka din ansökan med CV. (CBRE)

'Are you interested in working with us, send your application with CV’

7.11. *Vi* begränsar *oss* inte till uppgiften vi fått på papper utan ser det bakomliggande syftet och till helheten. (Hill & Knowlton)

'We don’t limit ourselves to the task we’ve received on paper but see the purpose behind it and focus on the whole picture’

Most of the Swedish companies (13) introduce a first person reference for the company name, usually in the first or second sentence of the page text (example 7.12). Two companies, CSC and Transperfect, introduce themselves in first person already in the page title (examples 7.13-15). Seven companies (3M, EDS, Hill & Knowlton, IBM, Lilly, Procter & Gamble and Wyeth) define themselves with a noun phrase before introducing a first person reference. The noun phrase can be either human or abstract, or both can occur as in example 7.15 (*människor, kunskapsföretag*).

'Career // We strive towards creating a working environment that stimulates the employees’ development – both the personal and the professional.’

7.13. *Jobba hos oss* (page heading, CSC) 'Work with us'


7.15. *Arbeta på EDS // Värdefulla människor // EDS är ett kunskapsföretag, vars uppgift är att få kundernas informationsflöden att fungera. (EDS) ‘Work at EDS // Valuable people // EDS is a knowledge company, whose task is to get the clients’ information flows to work.’

7.1.1.3 Noun phrases
The noun phrases make up altogether 22% of the references to the American company. The references to employees are slightly more common (49, 13%) than the references to the company as an entity (34, 9%). In the Careers data there is thus a stronger focus on the human participants than in the About Us data, where more than half of the noun phrases represent the company as an abstract entity.

The most common noun phrases referring to the employees are *employees* (17 instances; see example 7.16), followed by *people* (14 instances). Often this noun is modified by another noun, for example the company name (*Wyeth employees*) or the possessive *our* (*our people*). Other noun phrases include for instance *professionals, staff and colleagues*. Sometimes a certain position or work function is used as a reference (*General Managers, a Human Resource Professional, Head of CSC India’s Office of Innovation*). The small category of pronouns that is connected to the employee references contains three instances of possessive *their* and one instance of subjective *they* (see examples 7.17 and 7.18). The instance of *they* in example 7.18 below refers to the job function of General Managers.

7.16. *We empower our employees with the freedom and support to create what has never existed before.* (Symantec)

7.17. *EDS people put their passion to work every day in a variety of challenging and rewarding careers.*

7.18. *They are responsible for an office’s staff, reputation and profitability* (Hill&Knowlton).
The most common noun phrase references to the company as an abstract entity, or part thereof, include company and employer (example 7.19). Other nouns are for instance division, firm, enterprise and organization. Noun phrases describing the qualities of the company include top competitor, world leader and clear leader. The two instances of pronouns refer to nouns on Pfizer’s page.

7.19. Marsh Inc. is an equal opportunity employer. (Marsh)

In the Swedish Careers data, the noun phrase categories are similar to those of the Swedish About Us pages. However, the shift towards more human references on the American Careers pages is visible here, too. There are altogether 61 noun phrases referring to the employees, and 36 noun phrases referring to the company as an entity. In addition, there is one small pronoun category connected to the employee references.

The most commonly used nouns in the employee noun phrases in the Swedish Careers pages data are medarbetare (‘employees’, 17 instances) and anställda (‘employees’, 11 instances), which also dominate on the About Us pages. There are four pronouns connected to these employee noun phrases: subjective alla (1), possessive sin/a (2) and reflexive sig (1).

7.20. Vi söker ständigt nya professionella och nytänkande medarbetare. (Pfizer)

'We are continuously looking for new professional and innovative employees.’

7.21. Vi ger våra anställda frihet och stöd att skapa nytt. (Symantec)

'We give our employees freedom and support in creating something new.’

25 of the 36 noun phrases references to the company as an entity contain the noun företag (‘company’) – this is also the most commonly used non-human noun phrase in the About Us data. See example 7.22 and 7.23 below.

7.22. Nyligen blev vi även utsedda till årets företag av den amerikanska affärstidningen Forbes. (Pfizer)

'Recently we were also named company of the year by the American financial journal Forbes.’

7.23. Företaget ingår i ett av världens största läkemedelsföretag, Wyeth, med huvudkontor i New Jersey, USA. (Wyeth)

'The company forms part of one of the world’s largest pharmaceutical companies, Wyeth, with its headquarters in New Jersey, USA.’
Table 7.2: Noun phrase references to the company on the Careers pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NP company</th>
<th>Pronoun company</th>
<th>NP employees</th>
<th>Pronoun employees</th>
<th>Noun phrase references total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>34 (9%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>49 (13%)</td>
<td>4 (1%)</td>
<td>89 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>36 (9%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>61 (14%)</td>
<td>4 (1%)</td>
<td>101 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.1.1.4 Names

The company names represent a large category also in the Careers data, but the references are more evenly distributed than in the About Us data. There are no pages with name dominance. However, Pfizer and Wyeth have very high name frequencies compared to other forms of company reference. These two companies also display a name dominance on their About Us pages. Wyeth’s American Careers page shows a pattern of repeating the name throughout the text. The use of company name in page titles is rare; this might be due to the standardised page title of Careers. However, nine companies use the name in the title or in a subheading.

Person names referring to the company occur on two company pages. On 3M’s page, the names mentioned are the first names of two employees whose testimonials can be accessed via links. On Hill & Knowlton’s page, the full names of four people are given along with email links; these are people responsible for different divisions within the company.

The company name is the second largest category in the Swedish Careers page data. However, no company shows a clear name reference dominance. Instead, the name often occurs in the page title and is repeated throughout the page. The Careers page title thus shows more variation than in the American data, with ten companies displaying their name already in the page title, often in the form of *Jobba/Arbeta på/hos [Name]* (‘Work at [Name]’).

Person names occur on the pages of CA, EDS, Hill & Knowlton and Ogilvy. All of these instances represent people to get in touch with when applying for a post at the respective company.

7.1.2 References to the audience

There are altogether 293 instances of audience reference in the American Careers pages data (6.4 references per 100 words) and they are distributed across the categories of first person singular, first person plural, second person plural, noun phrases and pronouns referring to the noun phrases. The frequencies are shown in Figure 7.3 below. Second person reference is, by far, the most common category (69%). The first person reference categories are very small (2% and 1%). Noun
phrases referring to human beings account for 24% of the references, whereas pronouns referring to these human noun phrases make up 3% of the total. There is also a small category of abstract noun phrase references (1%). The Careers section thus relies mainly on direct audience address, and favours human references over abstract reference forms.

![American audience references (n=293)](chart)

**Figure 7.3 American audience references on the Careers pages**

In the American data, the first person references to the audience consist of five instances of first person singular *I/me* (examples 7.24-25) and one instance of inclusive *us*, referring simultaneously to both the company and the audience (example 7.26). The second person references are either explicit second person pronouns or implicit pronouns (imperatives). The pronouns occur in the subjective form (see example 7.27), objective form (7.28), as possessive determiners (7.27) or as reflexive pronouns (7.29). The imperatives address the audience directly (*submit resume, learn more, search for jobs*).

7.24. *What can I expect from a career at Lilly?* (Lilly)

7.25. *I can be me at P&G* (Procter & Gamble)

7.26. *By recruiting the best people and providing development opportunities to learn and grow, we help ensure a bright future for both of us.* (Procter & Gamble)

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7.27. *When you think about your career, think Pitney Bowes.* (Pitney Bowes)

7.28. *We invite you to explore, dream big and learn more about what we can offer you.* (Microsoft)

7.29. *See yourself succeeding? See yourself at CA.* (CA)

The noun phrases referring to humans (*people, professionals, students, graduates*) are far more common than those referring to abstract entities (*businesses, clients*). There is a small category of pronouns (*they/their*) referring back to the human noun phrases, as well one instance of inclusive everyone (example 7.30). There are no references to the audience by name.

7.30. *At Microsoft, we’re working toward a future where everyone’s potential can be fulfilled.* (Microsoft)

In the Swedish Careers page data, there are altogether 268 references to the audience, i.e. 6.4 references per 100 words (see Figure 7.4 below). Compared to the Swedish About Us data, the distribution across categories is very different: the About Us pages are dominated by third person references, whereas the Careers pages favour second person references. The categories are similar to those of the American Careers data. Second person references constitute the dominant category as they account for 71% of the total. First person singular is used only in two instances. Noun phrase references to human beings account for 13% and pronouns referring to these constitute 2% of the total. Noun phrases referring to abstract entities and pronouns referring to these account for 13% of the total. Compared to the American Careers data, the Swedish pages contain relatively more noun phrases referring to abstract entities.
The first person references consist of two instances of possessive min (‘my’) in Min CSC jobbportal (‘my CSC job portal’). There are no inclusive references. The second person references all occur in the singular (du, ‘you’). One company, Lilly, chooses to capitalize the second person singular pronoun as Du/Dig (example 7.31). The second person pronouns occur in the subjective case (see example 7.32), in the objective case (7.33, 7.34) and as possessive determiners (7.34, 7.35). The implicit ‘du’ addresses the audience directly in imperatives, as in example 7.35.

7.31. Lilly vill ge Dig en så bra start som möjligt. (Lilly)  
‘Lilly wants to give you as good a start as possible.’

7.32. Är du intresserad av att jobba på Hill & Knowlton? (Hilland Knowlton)  
‘Are you interested in working at Hill & Knowlton?’

7.33. Vi kan erbjuda dig ett spännande jobb. (IBM) ‘We can offer you an exciting job.’

7.34. Hur långt kan din talang ta dig? (Microsoft) ‘How far can your talent take you?’

7.35. Hitta ditt drömmjobb på Microsoft. (Microsoft) ‘Find your dream job at Microsoft.’

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The noun phrase references are either human (e.g. *medarbetare, jobbsökande, konsumenter, personal*; ‘employee, job seeker, consumers, staff’) or abstract (e.g. *företag, myndigheter*; ‘company, authorities’). Connected to these are the small categories of pronouns referring back to either human or abstract noun phrase referents. Similarly to the About Us pages, the category of abstract noun phrases also includes references which can be both human and abstract, (e.g. *kunder* ‘clients’). There are no name references to the audience.

7.1.2.1 Overall distribution

**Second person dominance.** In thirteen American pages out of twenty, second person references dominate. These companies include CA, CBRE, CSC, EDS, Hill & Knowlton, IBM, Lilly, Marsh, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Procter & Gamble, TransPerfect and Unisys. CBRE, CSC, and IBM form a special case, since the only audience references they display are in second person. Procter & Gamble is the only company referring to the audience in first person via inclusive ‘us’. Compared to the About Us pages data, there are only four company pages with second person dominance in both data groups: EDS, Hill & Knowlton, IBM and Unisys. In the Swedish Careers data, fifteen companies display a second person dominance: 3M, CA, CSC, EDS, Hudson, IBM, Lilly, Marsh, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Pitney Bowes, Procter & Gamble, Symantec, Transperfect and Wyeth. Transperfect forms a special case since they display no noun phrase references to the audience at all. Only two companies prefer second person for both their Swedish Careers and About Us pages: 3M and Lilly (also the only ones with second person dominance on the About Us page). 12 out of the 15 mentioned companies also have a second person dominance on their American Careers page.

**Noun phrase dominance.** There is only one company with noun phrase dominance on their American Careers page: Hudson. In the Swedish data, Hill & Knowlton and Unisys display a noun phrase dominance. In the American data (both About Us and Careers), these two companies prefer second person over noun phrase references. On their Swedish About Us page, however, Hill & Knowlton prefers noun phrases.

**Others.** In the American data, six companies (3M, Pitney Bowes, Symantec, Wyeth and Xerox) display a balanced distribution of second person and noun phrase references. In the Swedish data, there are three companies, CBRE, Pfizer and Xerox, that display this distributional balance between second person and NP references.

7.1.2.2 Interpersonal pronouns

The first person references are altogether five and four of them occur on the page of Procter & Gamble (*I, me*), whereas one occurs on Lilly’s page (*I*). They fall into two
subcategories: subjective *I* and objective *me*. There is also one instance of the first person plural objective *us*, which includes both the audience and the company. See section 7.1.2 above for examples. The Swedish data includes only two first person pronouns, two instances of possessive *min* (‘my’) referring to the audience.

The second person pronouns fall into the subcategories of: imperative constructions (implicit *you*), subjective *you*, objective *you*, possessive *your* and reflexive *yourself* (see Table 7.3). The imperative forms the biggest single category in this data (90 out of 203 instances). The categories of subjective (49) and objective (43) *you* are roughly of the same size. There are 19 instances of objective *you* and three instances of the reflexive *yourself*.

Table 7.3: Second person references to the audience (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjective forms</td>
<td><em>you</em></td>
<td>48 (24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective forms</td>
<td><em>you</em></td>
<td>19 (9%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive forms</td>
<td><em>your</em></td>
<td>43 (21%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive forms</td>
<td><em>yourself</em></td>
<td>3 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td></td>
<td>90 (44%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>203 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Swedish Careers data include a total of 189 audience references in second person (Table 7.3). Like the American Careers section, the Swedish Careers data also show a higher density of first and second person pronouns than the About Us data. However, the distribution across categories is somewhat different. Whereas the imperatives make up 44% in the American data, they only account for 23% of the Swedish. Instead, the subjective *du* accounts for 39%. The possessive category is roughly the same, but the objective category is slightly larger than on the American pages.

Compared to the Swedish About Us pages, the distribution is also different. The About pages are dominated by imperatives, which only represent 23% of the Careers page references. The About Us data also include categories of audience address in plural (*ni, er, era*), which are completely missing from the Swedish Careers pages.

7.1.2.3 Noun phrases

In the American Careers pages there are altogether 74 noun phrases referring to the audience, which corresponds to 25% of all the audience references. Four of these
noun phrases refer to abstract entities (example 7.36) whereas the rest refer to human beings (example 7.37-38). The most common nouns to be used in these phrases are *people* (14 instances), *clients* (11), *professionals* (5) *students* (4), *applicants* (3) and *engineers* (3). Connected to these noun phrases is the small category of co-referential third person pronouns: three instances of the possessive *their* and one instance of subjective *they*. The pronoun category also includes one instance of the inclusive *everyone’s* (example 7.39).

7.36. *EDS is a technology services company that provides businesses and governments with business solutions that focus on growth, productivity and change.* (EDS)

7.37. *We are seeking outstanding and diverse candidates with a wide range of backgrounds [...] (TransPerfect)*

7.38. *At Hudson, we are looking for exceptional people to become an integral part of our continued success.* (Hudson)

7.39. *At Microsoft, we’re working toward a future where everyone’s potential can be fulfilled.* (Microsoft)

The Swedish data contains altogether 63 noun phrases which refer to the audience (23%). 28 refer to abstract entities (see example 7.40), whereas the 35 refer to human beings (example 7.41). The most commonly used noun is *medarbetare* ('employees', 6 instances). In these cases, however, it refers to future employees that the company wishes to hire and therefore it is categorised as an audience reference. Other nouns include for instance *människor, personal* and *student* ('people, staff, student'). The pronouns referring to the audience noun phrases are more diverse on the Swedish than on the American pages: there is subjective *de* (1), reflexive *sig* (2), possessive *sina* (1) and even indefinite *man* (4) (example 7.42).

7.40. *Vi hjälper företag och organisationer av alla storlekar att få maximal avkastning på sina IT-investeringar [...] (Unisys) ’We help companies and organisations of all sizes to maximise the return on their IT investments’*

7.41. *Vi tror att detta är det enda sättet att locka och behålla medarbetare med talang, framåtanda och vision i världsklass.* (Xerox) ’We believe that this is the only way to attract and keep employees with talent, ambition and vision of world-class.’
7.42. *Man kan börja en tjänst på en ort och successivt arbeta sig fram, både uppåt och på tvären i organisationen.* (EDS) 'One can start on a job in one location and successively work one's way forward, both upwards and sideways in the organisation.'

7.1.3 Summary

7.1.3.1 Referring to self
The companies use three different ways of referring to themselves in both language corpora: first person pronoun, company name and noun phrases. There is also a small category of person names when referring to company employees. First person is the most common reference in both corpora; however, it is more common in the Swedish texts. The category of company name is smaller in the Swedish than in the American texts. Although many companies display first person dominance i.e. a first person frequency that is at least twice the number of noun phrase references on their Careers pages, the dominance patterns are on the whole much weaker than on the About Us pages. There are no examples of repetitive name use or specific constructions involving the company name, as is the case especially on the American About Us pages (cf. section 6.1.1.4.).

Even if the categories used are the same across the language versions, there are some differences within the categories. The first person references fall into subjective, possessive and objective forms in both sets of data. However, while the American pages prefer the possessive form (the largest single category), the Swedish pages are dominated by the subjective form. Compared to the American pages, the Swedish pages thus give the company a more active role in the first person.

The noun phrase category is dominated by references to the employees in both language versions. On the whole, there is thus a clear shift towards human beings when compared to the About Us data. Even if the company name is less frequent in the Swedish data, it often occurs in page headings. The Swedish Careers section thus foregrounds the company name by specifying it in the page heading, whereas the American pages employ a more standardised page title of simply *Careers.*

7.1.3.2 Referring to the audience
The most common way of referring to the audience in both language versions is by second person. Second person references make up more than 80 per cent of all the audience references in both the American and the Swedish pages. The smallest categories are also similar: both third person pronouns that are co-referential with noun phrases and first person references are rare. Noun phrase references are
slightly more common in the Swedish data. Neither of the Careers corpora contains any reference to the audience by name.

Both Careers corpora show a higher density of audience reference in the second person than the About Us data. The distribution across categories, however, shows some variation between the languages. The American pages favour implicit ‘you’ (imperative), which is the single largest category with 44 per cent of all second person references. The subjective ‘you’ accounts for roughly one fourth. In contrast, the Swedish pages prefer the subjective form, which accounts for 39 per cent, and the implicit ‘du’ only amounts to 23 per cent. Possessives are equally common relatively speaking, whereas the second person objective form is slightly more common in the Swedish than in the American data. The smallest categories also show some variation, and the inclusive pronouns do not occur in the Swedish data.

Audience noun phrases are equally common in relative frequencies in both data sets. However, distribution across abstract and human noun phrases differ, as the abstract noun phrases are more common in the Swedish data.

### 7.2 Results from the transitivity analysis

Like in Chapter 6, the clauses were first classified according to their process type. After this, the participants were coded according to their roles in the clauses and given a value based on their dynamism in the cline of dynamism (see Chapter 4 and section 6.2). The roles emerging from the Careers data comprise the same dynamic (Actor, Senser, Sayer) and static roles (Carrier, Token, Existent) along the cline of dynamism in the About Us data. The passive roles are complemented with the roles of Receiver and Phenomenon, whereas Attribute is missing in these pages. Recipient plays a passive role in a material clause, whereas Phenomenon takes the passive role in a mental clause. Thompson’s original cline also includes the highly dynamic roles of Assigner/Initiator, but these roles were not found in the Careers data. The categories of dynamic, static and passive roles are presented in Table 7.4.

#### Table 7.4: Dynamic, static and passive roles (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dynamic roles</th>
<th>Actor, Senser, Sayer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Static roles</td>
<td>Carrier, Token, Existent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive roles</td>
<td>Goal, Scope, Client, Recipient, Receiver, Phenomenon, Value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.2.1 Process types

The most common process type on the Careers pages is the material process. The total number of processes in the American data is 491, and 261 of these, or 53%, are
material processes (see Table 7.5). The material processes are somewhat more common in subclauses than in main clauses, meaning that more than half of the material clauses are backgrounded. The total number of relational clauses is 101. They tend to occur in main clauses (72 in main clauses and 29* in subclauses). Mental clauses are almost equally common as relational clauses (99). They also show a tendency to occur in main clauses: roughly two thirds or 69 of the mental processes take place in main clauses and 30 in subordinate clauses. Verbal processes are not very frequent in this material, as only 19 of the processes belong to this group. Thirteen of the verbal processes take place in main clauses and six in subclauses. The least frequent category is the existential process, which occurs 11 times, six times in main clauses and five times in subclauses.

In the Swedish material, the material clauses also make up half of the processes, which are 467 in total (see Table 7.5). The total number of material processes is 235. Here, the material processes are slightly more common in the main clause (134) than in the subclause (101). The relational clauses are slightly more common here than in the American data, as they make up 27% of the Swedish process total, compared to 21% in the American data. Instead, the mental processes are slightly less frequent. 16% of the Swedish processes are mental, compared to 20% in the American data. The small categories of verbal and existential processes are of roughly the same size as in the American data.

Judging from the high frequencies of material processes across the American and Swedish data, combined with much lower frequencies for relational and, in particular, mental processes, the texts are clearly dominated by activities and things happening in the external world. This reflects the nature of the Careers page: to appeal to potential employees and urge them to apply for a job with the company. The latter function is sometimes carried out explicitly in verbal clauses, but mostly in material processes. The accounts of what goes on in the external world take place both in main clauses and in subclauses, and usually the main clauses carry a higher frequency of all process categories. The only exception occurs with the material processes in the American Careers data. Balancing the actions in the outer world are mental and relational clauses. The mental clauses, which reflect processes of sensing, are more common in the American than in the Swedish data, suggesting that the American texts allow for more inner states and actions than the Swedish texts. Instead, the Swedish data display a higher proportion of relational clauses, suggesting that they stress static states of being and having more than the American texts. This difference implies that the Swedish pages include more descriptions of the participants and their qualities than the American pages, for instance identification of the company and its operations. The verbal clauses are not very common in either of the data sets. The small category of verbal processes in both data sets suggest that
there is some communication between the two main participants, a communication which is further stressed in the links section of the pages.

Table 7.5: Process frequency and distribution on the American (AM) and Swedish (SW) Careers pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Careers</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
<th>Existential</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AM main clause/subclause</td>
<td>127/134</td>
<td>72/29</td>
<td>69/30</td>
<td>13/6</td>
<td>6/5</td>
<td>286/201 (59%/41%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AM total (% of all clauses 362)</td>
<td>261 (53%)</td>
<td>101 (21%)</td>
<td>99 (20%)</td>
<td>19 (4%)</td>
<td>11 (2%)</td>
<td>491 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW main clause/subclause</td>
<td>134/101</td>
<td>73/53</td>
<td>46/27</td>
<td>19/4</td>
<td>8/2</td>
<td>280/187 (60%/40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SW total (% of all clauses 657)</td>
<td>235 (50%)</td>
<td>126 (27%)</td>
<td>73 (16%)</td>
<td>23 (5%)</td>
<td>10 (2%)</td>
<td>467 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.2.2 Process distribution across individual companies

Material clauses are used on all Careers pages in the American data. Mental processes occur on all pages except for Hill & Knowlton’s, and relational processes occur on all pages except for IBM’s. The three biggest categories are thus in use on almost all pages. Verbal processes occur on 11 pages, whereas existential processes are used on 5 pages. There are four companies which make use of all five process types investigated here: EDS, Lilly, Ogilvy and Symantec.

The individual American Careers pages largely follow the frequency proportions of the most common process types in the whole data set. Material clauses are the most common clause type on 15 pages. However, there are variations within this pattern. On six pages, the material processes are more dominant than overall, so that roughly two thirds of the processes are material. These companies are EDS, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, Pfizer and Symantec. The remaining seven have a material clause frequency which is more or less the same as the total of the other process types. These are Hill & Knowlton, Hudson, Marsh, Ogilvy, Transperfect and Xerox. On the pages of CBRE, Procter & Gamble and Unisys, the material clause is the most common single category, but it is overshadowed by the total of the other processes. CBRE has almost as many relational processes as material, whereas Procter and Gamble has a high proportion of mental clauses. Finally, Unisys frequency for existential clauses comes close to that for material clauses (roughly one third of the process total).

On five company pages, the material process is equally, or less common, than the other processes. The page of CSC display 5 material processes, but also 5 mental and 5 relational processes (plus a verbal process). On the pages of CA and Pitney Bowes,
the mental category is the most common. On Wyeth’s page, the relational process is the most common category.

The distribution of relational versus mental processes, which is rather similar in the data overall, as both categories make up roughly 20% of the processes, is not so clear-cut on the individual pages. Individual variation is common, as roughly half of the companies depart from this trend. The clearest examples are Hill & Knowlton, which lacks mental clauses altogether, and IBM, which lacks relational clauses.

Material clauses are used also on all Careers pages in the Swedish data. While mental clauses do not appear on the pages of Pfizer and Transperfect, relational clauses are used by all companies. Nine companies include verbal processes, and six companies use existential processes. Three companies, Hill & Knowlton, Marsh and Procter & Gamble, make use of all the investigated process categories.

The material clause is the most common category on nineteen company pages. For four companies, Hudson, Lilly, Microsoft and Transperfect, it corresponds to roughly two thirds of the process total. Eleven companies have roughly 50% of material clauses. For four companies, the total of other processes overshadow the material processes. CSC, EDS and Hill & Knowlton display a relational process frequency which comes close to that of material processes. Procter & Gamble show a rather even distribution over processes. 3M is the only company where material processes are not the most common category; instead, the relational processes dominate.

A further note on relational and mental processes in the Swedish data is also in order. While most pages, in accordance with the general trend for the Swedish data, have the relational clause as their second most common category, there are a few exceptions. Five companies, Microsoft, Procter & Gamble, Pitney Bowes, Symantec and Xerox, list the mental process as their most common category and are therefore more in line with the overall distribution on the American pages.

### 7.2.3 Participant roles

The overall distribution of roles among the main participants show that the American audience is assigned more than half of the roles total, whereas the American company is assigned 39% (see Table 7.6). In the Swedish data, the distribution of roles is very even between the company and audience I. The internal audience is given around 10 percent of the roles in both data sets. Based on the distribution alone, it seems that the external audience is given slightly more space in the American data than in the Swedish.
The distribution of roles across main clauses and subclauses is presented in Table 7.7. In the American Careers data, the audience represents more than half of the main clause participants roles (54%), while the company represents close to 40% of the participant roles. 7% of the main clause roles are played by the secondary audience. In the subclauses, the distribution for company and audience roles is rather similar to that in the main clauses. However, the secondary audience is proportionally more frequent in the subclauses than in the main clauses. The Swedish Careers data look slightly different. Here, the company represents more than half of the main clause roles, whereas the audience represents 40 per cent. In the subordinate clauses, audience roles are more frequent (52%) than company roles (33%). Like in the American data, the secondary audience occurs proportionally more often in subclauses than in main clauses.

Thus, while both the company and the audience are assigned more roles in main clauses than in subordinate clauses (in absolute frequencies), there is a difference concerning the distribution within each clause category. Whereas the American audience addressed in the texts seem to dominate the roles both in main and subordinate clauses, the Swedish audience only dominates the subclause roles. While the American company is less frequent than the audience both in main and subordinate clauses, the Swedish company dominates the main clause category.
7.2.3.1 Dynamic company roles

The dynamic company roles make up more than 60% of the total company role frequency for both language data sets (Table 7.8). The dynamic roles are slightly more frequent in the Swedish data (by 8 percentage points). The role of Actor is most common, as half of both the American and the Swedish company roles belong to this category. The distribution for the role of Senser in mental processes show the highest variation between the data sets: while the American pages assign the role of Senser to the company in 7% of the cases, the Swedish pages feature a total of 16% Senser roles. The Swedish company thus seems to be slightly more involved in processes of sensing than the American company. The role of Sayer is equally infrequent in both sets of data (roughly 4%).

Table 7.8: Dynamic company roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Senser</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Dynamic roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>84 (51%)</td>
<td>12 (7%)</td>
<td>6 (4%)</td>
<td>102 (62%)</td>
<td>164 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>97 (51%)</td>
<td>30 (16%)</td>
<td>7 (4%)</td>
<td>134 (70%)</td>
<td>192 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Actor is the most common role assigned to the company and it makes up more than 50 percent of all company roles in both the American and the Swedish data. In the American data, the company Actor is realised lexically by first person plural in more than half of the occurrences (43); see example 7.43. The second biggest category is that of company name (26); see example 7.44. There are also two cases of the company as Actor in first person singular. Other lexical realisations include noun phrases referring to the company as an abstract entity, like company (4), organization, enterprise, and the firm. There are also Actor realisations that refer to some person or function within the company, such as general managers, practice managers, global account managers, human resources professional and the appropriate recruiting contact. The latter noun phrases could, of course, also be referred to the category of audience II instead of the company category. However, since they represent an abstract realisation of a function within the company, I choose to count them as company role realisations.

7.43. *We’re looking for hard-working, roll-up-your-sleeves people who like to achieve results.* (EDS) **Actor:** we

7.44. *Unisys offers free online courses in essential subject areas.* (Unisys) **Actor:** Unisys

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The company Actor in the Swedish data is also realised by first person plural in more than half of the cases (68/97); see example 7.45. The company name features as Actor in roughly one fifth of the cases (22). Other lexical forms of Actor include the impersonal alla (2) (‘all’) and the noun phrases vår organisation, din chef, team CNS, och avdelning x (‘our organisation, your boss, team CNS, department x’). There is finally a case of unclear Actor realisation, where the clause contains no lexical item that can be connected to the company role. However, it seems clear from the context that it is the company who is assigned with the roles of Carrier and Actor. See example 7.46 below. The process verbs are underlined.

7.45. Förutom ett tufft jobb med stora krav och utmaningar, erbjuder vi dig ett arbete i ett kompetent och trevligt gäng. (EDS) **Actor: vi**
‘Apart from a tough job with high requirements and challenges, we offer you a job in a skilled and pleasant team.’

7.46. Vår företagskultur omfattar att utgöra ett positivt inslag i våra anställdas liv,
**Main clause, process: relational Subcl.1, process: relational, Carrier: (company)** och erbjuder ömnesidig tillit och respekt, personlig utveckling och individuellt utformat ledarskap. (Symantec Careers Sw.)
**Subclause 2, process: material, Actor: (company)**
‘Our corporate culture encompasses forming a positive element in the lives of our employees, and offer mutual trust and respect, personal development and individually designed leadership’

The second most common role for the Swedish company is that of Senser (example 7.48). This category comes third in the American data, together with the category of Carrier. The American company Senser is usually realised by we (11, see example 7.47). There is one instance of company Senser as first person singular I. The Swedish company Senser is usually vi (28) (‘we’). Other lexical realisations include the company name (1) and the noun phrase ett företag som EDS (‘a company like EDS’).

7.47. At Marsh, we recognize the central role our professionals play in our success. (Marsh) **Senser: we**

7.48. Vi tror på långsiktiga relationer och partnerskap. (CSC) **Senser: vi**
‘We believe in long-term relations and partnerships.’
A small category of company role is that of Sayer in a verbal process (examples 7.49 and 7.50). The American company features as Sayer six times, three times in the form of *we*, twice as company name and once as the noun phrase *a human resources professional*. The Swedish company is presented as Sayer in seven processes, six times as *vi* and once in the form of name.

7.49. *We invite you to explore, dream big and learn more about what we can offer you.* (Microsoft) **Sayer: we**

7.50. *Som organisation uppmuntrar vi till balans mellan arbete och fritid.* (Hudson) **Sayer: vi** 'As an organisation, we encourage balance between work and free time.'

Table 7.9: Lexical realisation of dynamic company roles (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>First person plural</th>
<th>Company name</th>
<th>First person singular</th>
<th>General/ impersonal pronoun</th>
<th>Noun phrases</th>
<th>Unclear realisation</th>
<th>Total (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor Am.</td>
<td>43 (51%)</td>
<td>26 (31%)</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>1 (<em>it</em>) (1%)</td>
<td>12 (14%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor Sw.</td>
<td>68 (70%)</td>
<td>22 (23%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (4%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Am.</td>
<td>11 (92%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (8%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Sw.</td>
<td>28 (93%)</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Am.</td>
<td>3 (50%)</td>
<td>2 (33%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (17%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Sw.</td>
<td>6 (86%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first person plural is clearly the preferred lexical realisation for the dynamic company roles (see Table 7.9). The company name is used mainly in the role of Actor but to some extent also in the role of Sayer. The Senser is nearly always realised with the pronoun *we*; note however two exceptions in the Swedish data. The first person singular is very rare, as are also general and impersonal pronouns, such as *it* and *alla* ('all'). Noun phrases are used sparingly, most notably as a realisation for American company Actor.

7.2.3.2 Static company roles

Between one fourth and one fifth of the company roles are static roles (Table 7.10). The American Careers pages assign the company a static role in 25% of the cases, whereas the Swedish Careers pages include 21% static roles. The frequency of static
roles is thus rather similar in the American and in the Swedish data. The most common static role is that of Token in an identifying relational clause, closely followed by Carrier in an attributive relational clause. The least common category is that of Existent. The distribution over individual categories in the two data sets is rather similar. Thus, while the dynamic company roles are the most frequent on the Careers pages, there is still a need for static roles which describe the company and its assets to the job seekers and other audiences.

Table 7.10: Static company roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Existent</th>
<th>Static roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total company role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Company Am.</td>
<td>14 (9%)</td>
<td>21 (13%)</td>
<td>6 (4%)</td>
<td>41 (25%)</td>
<td>164 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company Sw.</td>
<td>18 (9%)</td>
<td>20 (10%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>40 (21%)</td>
<td>192 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The company is featured as Carrier in 14 processes in the American data, making this category roughly the same size as that of Senser (compare Table 7.11). In the Swedish data, this category comes fourth (18 instances). See examples 7.51 and 7.52 below. The American Carrier is lexically realised by *we* (9), *name* (1), *I* (1), *they* (1), *everyone* (1) and *pharmaceutical company* (1). The Swedish Carrier is realised by *vi* (13), *name* (3) and *alla* (1). There is also one unclear realisation where the Carrier cannot be clearly attributed to a lexical item in the clause (see example 86 above), but the context defines the company as the Carrier.

7.51. *EDS has more than 100,000 people serving clients in 57 countries.* (EDS)  
*Carrier: EDS*

7.52. *Vi har alla resurser och allt stöd man kan komma att behöva på vägen.*  
(EDS) **Carrier: vi**  
'We have all the resources and all the support one may need on the way.'

The second most common role for the American company is that of Token. This category comes third in the Swedish data (see examples 7.53 and 7.54). Most of the American company Tokens are realised by *name* (15). *We* is used in three instances. Other realisations include *I* and the noun phrases *organization* and *Marsh Inc family of companies*. The Swedish company Token is realised by *vi* (11) (‘*vi*’), *name* (7) and *företaget* (2) (‘the company’).

7.53. *Marsh Inc. is an equal opportunity employer.* (Marsh) **Token: Marsh Inc.**
7.54. Vi var det första företaget på området att belönas med utmärkelsen Investor in People. (PitneyBowes) **Token: vi**

‘We were the first company in the industry to be given the award Investor in People.’

The company role of Existent is the smallest static category. The American company occurs six times in the role of Existent, always in the form of we. The Swedish company occurs as Existent in two existential processes, in the form of company name. In example 7.55 below, the Existent is realised with we twice when presenting where in the world the company has its operations. The second instance of Existent (**we’re global**) could also be interpreted as Carrier a relational attributive process, but due to the connection to the previous existential clause I choose to label it as Existent in the sense “we exist globally, in the entire world”. The Swedish example in 7.56 uses the verb ‘sit’ to describe an existential process; in this case it describes the location of the company’s premises in a very physical way.

7.55. *And we’re not just in one or two countries – we’re global, operating in over 100 countries and in both hemispheres.* (Unisys) **Existent: we**

7.56. *Sedan 1999 sitter Ogilvy Sverige på Humlegårdsgatan mitt i centrala Stockholm.* (Ogilvy) **Existent: Ogilvy Sverige**

‘Since 1999 Ogilvy Sverige sits at Humlegårdsgatan in the middle of central Stockholm.’

Table 7.11: Lexical realisation of static company roles (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>First person plural</th>
<th>Company name</th>
<th>First person singular</th>
<th>General/impers. pronouns</th>
<th>Noun phrases</th>
<th>Unclear realisation</th>
<th>Total (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carrier Am.</td>
<td>9 (64%)</td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
<td>2 (14%)</td>
<td>1 (7%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier Sw.</td>
<td>13 (72%)</td>
<td>3 (17%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (6%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (6%)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token Am.</td>
<td>3 (14%)</td>
<td>15 (71%)</td>
<td>1 (5%)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token Sw.</td>
<td>11 (55%)</td>
<td>7 (35%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 (10%)</td>
<td>2 (10%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent Am.</td>
<td>6 (100%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existent Sw.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2 (100%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.3.3 Passive company roles

Passive company roles are rare on the Careers pages. Scope or Goal are the most frequent passive roles for both language versions. There are also a few instances of company as Recipient, Phenomenon and Receiver in both sets of data. Value occurs three times on the Swedish pages. Passive company roles are slightly more common on the American (12%) than on the Swedish (9%) pages. The difference is mainly due to a higher frequency of Phenomenon and Scope/Goal in the American data (see Table 7.12).

Table 7.12: Passive company roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Material clauses:</th>
<th>Mental:</th>
<th>Rel.AT:</th>
<th>Rel.ID</th>
<th>Verbal:</th>
<th>Passive roles total</th>
<th>Total company role freq.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scope/Goal</td>
<td>Recipient (Client)</td>
<td>Phenom</td>
<td>Attribute</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>12/1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(7/1%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(3%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(12%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company</td>
<td>5/4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sw.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(3/2%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(1%)</td>
<td>(2%)</td>
<td>(9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The company role of Scope is mostly realised by first person plural *us/oss* in both sets of data. There is also one instance of *we/vi* per data set: both come from Symantec’s pages and are realisations of Scope in clauses featuring the passive voice. Scopes in the form of noun phrases are *team* (2), *our firm* and *våra andra nordiska kontor* (‘our other Nordic offices’). The only instance of Goal in the American data is realised by company name, as are three instances in the Swedish data. The fourth Swedish company Goal is in the form of *oss*. Recipient occurs only once in the American data (*us*) and once in the Swedish data (*vi/oss*). Example 7.57 below shows the company Scope realised with *us*, whereas 7.58 showcases the company as Goal realised with *oss*.

7.57. *People look to us to safeguard the integrity of their information, ensuring it is secure and available.* (Symantec) **Scope: us**

7.58. *Det gör oss skickligare att kommunicera med målgrupper om skiftar på samma sätt.* (Hill&Knowlton) **Goal: oss**

 ‘It makes us more skilled in communicating with target groups that vary in the same manner’
The American company is assigned the role of Phenomenon five times. In three cases, the Phenomenon is *us*, and the two remaining cases are one name instance (Pitney Bowes, example 7.59) and the noun phrase *a company like 3M*. A Swedish company occurs once in the role of Phenomenon (name: Unisys).

7.59. *When you think about your career, think Pitney Bowes.* (Pitney Bowes)

**Phenomenon: Pitney Bowes**

The Swedish company is identified as Attribute in three cases. The lexical realisations are *en av oss* (‘one of us’): *Vill du bli en av oss* (Unisys), … *att vilja bli en av oss* (Hill&Knowlton), see also example 7.60 below. There is also one case where the company is both Token and Value in the same relational identifying clause: *Vi är Unisys* (‘We are Unisys’); here *vi* is Token and *Unisys* is Value.

7.60. *Varför inte bli en av oss?* (3M) **Attribute: en av oss**  ’Why not become one of us?’

In a few cases the company occurs as Receiver in a verbal process. This happens once in the American data and three times in the Swedish. The American Receiver is realised by name (CA) and occurs in a clause in the passive voice with the process verb *has been named*. The Swedish instances of Receiver are realised as *oss* (‘us’) *Personalavdelningen* (‘Human Resources’) and *Hill & Knowlton Sveriges vd Bo Albertsson* (‘Hill & Knowlton’s CEO Bo Albertsson’, example 7.61) and are at the receiving end of the verbs *kontakta* and *sänd* (‘contact, send’).

7.61. *Kontakta Hill & Knowlton Sveriges vd Bo Albertsson.* (Hill&Knowlton)

**Receiver: Hill & Knowlton Sveriges vd Bo Albertsson**

The passive company roles of Scope, Goal, Recipient and Phenomenon are in the majority of cases realised by a first person pronoun. Names and noun phrases occur occasionally. Company Value and Receiver are either realised by name or a noun phrase, with the occasional first person pronoun (Receiver).

7.2.3.4 **Dynamic audience I roles**

The total number of dynamic roles assigned to the American audience I is 175, which corresponds to 80% of all the roles assigned to the American audience (see Table 7.13). The frequency for the Swedish audience is slightly lower, as the dynamic roles make up 68% of the audience role total. The difference between the audiences is mainly due to the stronger Senser role of the American audience (33% of roles
total, against 20% for the Swedish audience). The most frequent role, the Actor, is equally common in both sets of data. The verbal role of Sayer is the least common dynamic role in both sets of data.

Table 7.13: Dynamic audience I roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant(role)</th>
<th>Actor</th>
<th>Senser</th>
<th>Sayer</th>
<th>Dynamic roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total audience role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience I Am.</td>
<td>96 (44%)</td>
<td>72 (33%)</td>
<td>7 (3%)</td>
<td>175 (80%)</td>
<td>219 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience I Sw.</td>
<td>83 (43%)</td>
<td>38 (20%)</td>
<td>9 (5%)</td>
<td>130 (68%)</td>
<td>191 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common audience role is that of Actor in a material process. Usually the audience Actor is realised with either an imperative, or the second person pronoun you/du. In the American data, the audience Actor is mostly realised either by second person (49%) or by means of imperative construction (46%). Example 7.62 below shows how Actor is realised with the imperative Explore, here underlined to stress where the implicit Actor is located. The Swedish audience Actor, is realised by second person du in more than half of the cases (64%). Imperative structures come second (29%). Other lexical realisations of audience Actor include first person pronouns in English (I), Swedish impersonal pronouns (man, alla, ‘one, all’) and nouns (people, interested applicants, engineers). Example 7.63 includes two Actors: first, the implicit ‘you’ of the imperative, second, the pronoun du.

7.62. Explore our locations today! (Microsoft) **Actor:** (you)

7.63. Sök och du kommer bland annat att finna öppningar och lediga jobb. (Microsoft) **Actor:** (du), du

‘Search and you will find, among other things, openings and open positions.’

The second big role assigned to the audience is that of Senser in a mental process. The most common forms of realisation are the imperative and second person you/du. Again, the American audience Senser is mostly realised by an imperative (54%), whereas the Swedish pages prefer du (61%). Other lexical realisations include I and they in English and den and man in Swedish. The first example below (7.64) shows the audience Senser realised with both you and imperative. The Swedish example (7.65) depicts the audience Senser as du.
7.64. If you’re interested in P&G, learn more about our recruiting process here. (Procter & Gamble) **Senser:** you, (you)

7.65. Funderar du på att skriva uppsats eller göra ditt examensjobb hos oss? (CSC) **Senser:** du
‘Are you thinking of writing an essay or doing your thesis with us?’

The Careers pages sometimes give the audience the role of Sayer in a verbal process. The Sayer is realised through you (example 7.66), or an imperative. In the American data, all but one of the Sayer instances are second person pronouns. In the Swedish data, all nine instances of Sayer are realised using an imperative (example 7.67).

7.66. **You’re asking – What will I do in Cincinnati?** (P&G) **Sayer:** you

7.67. **För mer information kontakta Personalavdelningen.** (EDS) **Sayer:** (du)
‘For more information, contact Human Resources.’

Table 7.14 summarises the lexical realisations for audience I in its dynamic roles. Second person address is clearly favoured both on the American and the Swedish pages. However, while the American pages use both imperative forms and second person pronouns for Actor, the Swedish pages show a preference for pronouns. The Swedish data tend to use pronouns also for the role of Senser; here, too, the American data favours imperatives. The situation is somewhat different in the small category of Sayer: while the American pages use mostly pronouns, the Swedish pages tend to use imperatives.

**Table 7.14: Lexical realisation of dynamic audience I roles (Careers)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audience I</th>
<th>Second person pronoun</th>
<th>Imperative structure</th>
<th>First person pronoun</th>
<th>General/impersonal pronoun</th>
<th>Noun phrases</th>
<th>Total (100%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor Am.</td>
<td>47 (49%)</td>
<td>44 (46%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>3 (3%)</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor Sw.</td>
<td>53 (64%)</td>
<td>24 (29%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 (6%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Am.</td>
<td>28 (39%)</td>
<td>39 (54%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
<td>1 (they) (1%)</td>
<td>2 (3%)</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser Sw.</td>
<td>23 (61%)</td>
<td>11 (29%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4 (11%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Am.</td>
<td>6 (86%)</td>
<td>1 (14%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sayer Sw.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9 (100%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7.2.3.5 Static audience I roles

Static roles are not very common on the Careers pages (Table 7.15). Altogether, the proportion for American audience I static roles is roughly 8%, while the Swedish audience I is involved in static roles in 16% of the cases. Carrier is the most frequent role type, and this is also the main difference between the American and the Swedish data. The Swedish audience is depicted in the role of Carrier in 15% of the audience roles, whereas the American audience is Carrier in only 6% of the cases. The audience roles of Token and Existent occur only occasionally in both sets of data.

Table 7.15: Static audience I roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant/role</th>
<th>Carrier</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>Existent</th>
<th>Static roles TOTAL</th>
<th>Total audience role frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience Am.</td>
<td>12 (6%)</td>
<td>3 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>17 (8%)</td>
<td>219 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience Sw.</td>
<td>29 (15%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>31 (16%)</td>
<td>191 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Especially the Swedish pages rather frequently assign the role of Carrier to the audience. In the American data, nearly all instances of Carrier are realised with second person, as in example 7.68 below. There is one instance of everyone, and in this case the audience I role overlaps with an audience II role (employees). The Swedish Carrier roles are usually realised by second person du (‘you’, see example 7.69); only in rare cases by imperative, the general alla (‘all’) or impersonal man (‘one’).

7.68. At CB Richard Ellis, you have tremendous opportunity to grow and make an impact. (CBRE) **Carrier: you**

7.69. Har du idéerna och kunskaperna som gör att du kan vara med och forma vår framtid? (Symantec) **Carrier: du**

‘Do you have the ideas and the skills that enable you to take part in forming our future?’

Occasionally, the audience is depicted as Token in a relational identifying process. The realisation forms is usually you/du (examples 7.70-7.71). In addition, the American data includes one instance of first person singular and one instance of a noun phrase (exceptional people). There are a few cases where the audience is assigned the role of Existent. These are always realised through you/du. The examples 7.72 and 7.73 below depict a process of existing in a figurative sense – the
career of the audience or prospective employer is described as a physical place or scale, in which one can exist.

7.70. *Are you the right person for P&G?* (Procter & Gamble) **Token: you**

7.71. *Ett intressant och omväxlande arbete där du är en nyckelspelare i vårt kompetenscenter inom UNIX plattformen.* (EDS) **Token: du**

'An interesting and varied job where you are a key player at our competence centre within the UNIX platform.'

7.72. *No matter where you are in your career, you ask questions.* (Lilly) **Existent: you**

7.73. *Om du har kommit lite längre i din karriär kan vi erbjuda andra utvecklingsmöjligheter.* (Marsh) **Existent: du**

'If you have come a little further in your careers we can offer other development possibilities.'

### 7.2.3.6 Passive audience I roles

The passive roles assigned to the audience make up 13-15% of the audience roles on both the American and the Swedish Careers pages (Table 7.16). Passive audience roles are thus not favoured in this data. Both sets of data present the audience as Scope and Recipient in material processes and Receiver in verbal processes. In addition, the American data shows a few instances where the audience is Client in a material process, Phenomenon in a mental process and Value in a relational process. The second difference, although slight, is found in the material roles: while the frequency for Scope is rather similar, the Swedish pages show a higher frequency for audience as Recipient.

#### Table 7.16: Passive audience I roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>Scope Recipient</td>
<td>Client</td>
<td>Phenom.</td>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am.</td>
<td>14 (6%)</td>
<td>5 (2%)</td>
<td>3 (1%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>5 (2%)</td>
<td>30 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>16 (8%)</td>
<td>15 (8%)</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
<td>33 (17%)</td>
<td>191 (100%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Starting with the material processes, the most common passive roles assigned to the audience are those of Scope and Recipient. Scope is more common than Recipient in the American data, whereas these two categories are equally frequent in the Swedish data. Lexical realisations for the American Scope include you, but also noun phrases like people, professionals, candidates, innovators and visionaries, and the best of talents. The Swedish audience Scope (example 7.74) is either du/dig or a noun phrase: medarbetare, människor, jobbsökande, förmågor, innovatörer och visionärer (employees, people, job seekers, talents, innovators, visionaries’). Recipient is always realised with you/du/dig in the data (example 7.75). An expansion of the second person realisation is made once in the Swedish data: du och din familj (‘you and your family’). The Client role, which is sometimes hard to distinguish from Recipient, only occurs in the American data, in the form of you and applicants for employment (example 7.76).

7.74. Vi söker ständigt nya professionella och nytänkande medarbetare. (Pfizer) Scope: medarbetare ’We’re continuously looking for new professional and innovative coworkers.’

7.75. Förutom ett tufft jobb med stora krav och utmaningar, erbjuder vi dig ett arbete i ett kompetent och trevligt gäng. (EDS) Recipient: dig ’Apart from a tough job with great requirements and challenges, we offer you a job in a competent and nice gang.’

7.76. As a new college graduate, you wonder what kind of opportunities you’ll have and how your education can help you make an impact in your first job. (Lilly) Client: you

The audience appears as Phenomenon only in two processes in the American data. Both clauses are reflexive, the Senser being you and the Phenomenon yourself:

7.77. See yourself succeeding? See yourself at CA. (CA) Phenomenon: yourself, yourself

There is one instance in the American data where the audience can be identified in terms of both Token and Value. The Value is realised as me. These roles can be attributed to both audience types; both the external and the internal audiences.

7.78. I can be me at P&G (Procter & Gamble) Value: me

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Sometimes the audience is at the receiving end of a verbal process. The realisation is mostly you/dig with one exception: an imperative form in the American data:

7.79. Please be advised that your resume will be stored in an EDS international centralized database and may be shared with any of our affiliates worldwide.
(EDS) Receiver: (you)

7.2.3.7 Audience II roles
The secondary audience of employees makes up the smaller audience category. The role total for the American pages is 39, for the Swedish 46 (see Table 7.17). The American employees are assigned with 28% dynamic roles, whereas the Swedish employees have 46% dynamic roles. Examples 7.80 and 7.81 show the employee audience as Actor and Senser, respectively. The Senser realisation is the rather general människor, but the context of describing work at 3M frames these people as 3M employees. The static role frequency is roughly the same for both language data sets.

Table 7.17: Audience II roles in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Aud II Am.</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Aud. II Sw.</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>8 (21%)</td>
<td>12 (26%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senser</td>
<td>3 (8%)</td>
<td>9 (20%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic roles</td>
<td><strong>11 (28%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>21 (46%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carrier</td>
<td>5 (13%)</td>
<td>7 (15%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Token</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (11%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Static roles</td>
<td><strong>9 (24%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>12 (26%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scope</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>5 (11%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recipient</td>
<td>4 (10%)</td>
<td>2 (4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Client</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiver</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>5 (13%)</td>
<td>4 (9%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passive roles</td>
<td><strong>19 (45%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>13 (28%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td><strong>39 (100%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>46 (100%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The sentences from Hill & Knowlton below (7.82 and 7.83) exemplify the employees as Carrier and Token. The passive roles are more common for the American audience II (45%) than for the Swedish audience II (28%). Examples of the employee roles of Scope, Value and Receiver are shown in 7.84-7.86. In summary, the Swedish employee audience plays a more dynamic role on the Careers pages than the American employee audience.

7.80. Through passion and dedication our employees have created solutions such as Norton Disk Doctor and Norton Utilities - now standard industry terms. (Symantec) Actor: our employees

7.81. Arbete på nyskapandets yttersta kant innebär att människor ständigt tänjer sig och fokuserar på att uppnå både sina egna och gruppens mål. (3M) Senser: människor
   'Working at the outermost edge of innovation means that people continuously stretch themselves and focus on achieving both their own goals and those of the group.'

7.82. Hill & Knowltons medarbetare är djärva. (Hill & Knowlton) Carrier: medarbetare
   'Hill & Knowlton’s coworkers are brave.'

7.83. Hill & Knowlton’s staff is comprised of the industry's best and brightest. (Hill & Knowlton) Token: staff

7.84. Wyeth AB sysselsätter ca 250 medarbetare och omsatte 1,9 miljarder SEK år 2004. (Wyeth) Scope: ca 250 medarbetare
   'Wyeth AB employ appr. 250 coworkers and had a turnover of 1.9 million SEK in 2004.'

7.85. Vår främsta tillgång är vår kompetenta och kreativa personal. (Pfizer) Value: vår kompetenta och kreativa personal
   'Our best asset is our skilled and creative staff.'

7.86. Marsh encourages its colleagues to gain knowledge and acquire new skills throughout their careers. (Marsh) Receiver: colleagues
7.2.3.8 Summary of participant roles

Overall, the roles emerging from the Careers data are rather similar to those in the About Us data. The only differences occur in the category of passive roles, where Receiver and Phenomenon are added, and Attribute is omitted. The total role distribution across the three main participants show that the external audience is assigned roles more often on the Careers pages than on the About pages. The American Careers audience I is assigned 52% of all the roles, whereas the company is assigned 39%. The Swedish Careers audience I gets the same proportion of roles as the company, 45%. In the About Us data, the corresponding figures for the company were 65% (Am) and 76% (Sw). The distribution across main and subclauses show that the American audience I is assigned more roles than the company in both clause types, whereas the Swedish audience only dominates in the subclauses. The internal audience, which overall features with a role in 9-11% of all the clauses, is more commonly associated with roles in subclauses than in main clauses.

Company roles are mostly dynamic, as 62% of the American and 70% of the Swedish roles assigned to the company are either Actor, Senser or Sayer. Actor corresponds to over half of the dynamic company roles in both data sets. Sayer is the smallest category (4% for both), whereas the company Senser is slightly more common in the Swedish data than in the American data. The most common form of realisation for all dynamic categories in both data sets is first person plural. Company name is also used, mainly for the role of Actor. Noun phrases are not very common, but are used to some extent to realise the American company Actor. The static company roles correspond to roughly one fifth or one fourth of all company roles, with Carrier and Token as the biggest categories. Compared to the About Us data, the proportion is somewhat lower (34% static company roles in the About Us data). The static company roles are mostly realised by first person plural in both data sets, however, the American company Token is mostly realised by the company name. The distribution in the About Us data showed a higher proportion of company name throughout, even if it did not dominate the figures. The passive corporate roles make up roughly 10 per cent of all company roles. Here, the American companies seem to be slightly more passive than on the About Us pages, whereas the relative proportions of passive company roles in the Swedish data sets are similar in size.

The external audience is given a dynamic role in the majority of audience I roles. However, the dynamic audience seems to be less straightforward than in the About Us data, where both language data sets feature a dynamism of 90 per cent. The distribution across the individual dynamic roles in the Careers data show that Actor is the most common category for both languages. Senser is somewhat more common in the American than in the Swedish data. Compared to the About Us data, the
audience I Sayer is extremely rare (around 5%, 15% on the About Us pages). Based on these relative frequencies, the external audience is thus less engaged in the act of communicating on the Careers pages. The dynamic audience I roles are realised either with second person pronouns or with imperative structures. The American company Actor is either a second person pronoun or an imperative, whereas the Senser shows more realisations in imperatives. The Swedish Actor and Senser roles are mostly realised by second person pronouns. Second person pronouns as realisations of a dynamic role are thus much more common than in the About Us data, where imperative structures dominate all dynamic role realisations. The static audience I roles, which were very few in the About Us data, are given somewhat more space on the Careers pages. Especially the Swedish audience I is assigned more static roles, usually in the form of Carrier. The passive audience I roles, which were also extremely few in the About Us data, amount to roughly 15% in the Careers data. The most common individual categories are those of Scope and Recipient in a material clause.

The internal audience is the smallest category, with 9% (Am.) and 11% (Sw.) of all the roles assigned. The American audience II is more common in the passive roles, whereas the Swedish audience II is more common in dynamic roles. The difference in dynamic roles is mostly due to a higher number of Swedish Senser roles. Static roles represent around one fourth of the roles in both data sets. The Swedish internal audience is thus portrayed as slightly more dynamic than the American; the distribution was similar in the About Us data.

7.3 Speech functions

There are altogether 487 clauses (main clauses and subclauses) in the American Careers data, along with 91 other segments. There are 387 statements, realised by declaratives, which makes 79% of the clause total. The commands, realised as imperatives, are 85 (17%) and the questions, in the form of interrogatives are 18 (4%). There are also two interrogatives among the non-clauses, functioning as question fragments. Declaratives are used on all company pages, imperatives are used on 15 pages and interrogatives on ten pages.

The Swedish Careers data consists of 467 clauses and 96 other segments. The non-clausal segments include links lists, address information, headings and clause fragments. Of the Swedish clauses 412 (88%) are declaratives, 44 (9%) are imperatives and 11 (2%) are interrogatives. Declaratives are used on all pages, imperatives are used on 18 pages and interrogatives are used on nine pages.
7.3.1 Imperatives

The American imperatives are realised in material (37), mental (39) and verbal (9) clauses. The Swedish imperatives are realised in material (13), mental (12), verbal (19) and relational (1) clauses. This distribution differs from the American, since the verbal clauses are most common in the Swedish data and not material and mental clauses. Furthermore, the Swedish data includes one example of a relational imperative. Clause examples are presented in Table 7.18 below.

The American material clauses are concerned with gaining information and interacting with the site, for example by browsing career opportunities, exploring the site, finding answers and information (A1-A4). The Swedish material clauses fulfil similar functions (S1-S4).

In the American data, many of the mental imperative clauses deal with exploring the website in different ways and learning more about the company (A5-A6). However, the mental processes are also used to ask the audience to think or feel in a certain way. Examples A7-A9 are asking the users to picture themselves as employees. The examples from CBRE and Pitney Bowes both occur as the very first clauses after the heading of the Careers page. The CA example features the imperative as an answer to the interrogative and together, they form the heading for the entire page text. Finally, one company asks to experience something virtually by ways of imperative, A10-A11. The first example is linked to a video on the company, which makes the experience instant and concrete if the link is clicked. The second example occurs in the proximity of a link to a Cincinnati website, where the city can be explored. Most of the Swedish mental imperatives are concerned with reading (S5). Other mental activities include not forgetting, seeing, discovering and keeping oneself updated (S6-S9).

Table 7.18 Examples of imperative clauses in the Careers data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Am.</th>
<th>Sw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1. Browse our range of careers listed worldwide in the last 5 days. (CSC)</td>
<td>S1. Sök aktuella jobb (Microsoft) (’Apply for current job vacancies)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2. Explore our locations today! (Microsoft)</td>
<td>S2. Är du intresserad av att arbeta på P&amp;G besök: <a href="http://www.pgcareers.com/">http://www.pgcareers.com/</a> (Procter &amp; Gamble) (’Are you interested in working at P&amp;G visit [link]’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A3 Find answers to questions regarding employment opportunities at Pfizer. (Pfizer)</td>
<td>S3. Arbota internationellt (Wyeth) (’Work internationally’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A4. Click for dates and times. (Procter&amp;Gamble)</td>
<td>S4. Klicka på den befattning du är intresserad av... (3M) (’Click on the position that you are interested in...’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Mental | A5. Learn about CSC’s **corporate culture** and our management, business and IT consulting capabilities on **www.csc.com**. (CSC)  
A6. **Check out our new product innovations** (Procter & Gamble)  
A7. Imagine the possibilities. (CBRE)  
A8. **When you think about your career, think Pitney Bowes.** (Pitney Bowes)  
A9. See yourself succeeding? See yourself at CA. (CA)  
A10. **Experience P&G!** (Procter & Gamble)  
A11. Experience Cincinnati, a vibrant and friendly place to call home. (Procter & Gamble)  
A12. **Indicate the area of interest and title/position you are applying for in the subject line of the email** (Ogilvy)  
A13. Please be advised that your resume will be stored in an EDS international centralized database and may be shared with any of our affiliates worldwide. (EDS)  
A14. **Subscribe to our newsletter.** (EDS)  
A15. **Register today for our free online classes.** (Procter & Gamble) | S5. **Läs mer om lediga jobb** (CSC) (‘Read more about job vacancies’)  
S6. **Glöm inte att uppge tjänstens referensnummer.** (Pitney Bowes) (‘Don’t forget to state the reference number of the position’)  
S7. **Se då våra lediga jobb och se om något skulle passa dig?** (IBM) (‘Have a look at our job vacancies and see if something suits you’)  
S8. **Upptäck det genom att utforska vår webbplats** (Microsoft) (‘Discover it by exploring our website’)  
S9. **Håll dig uppdaterad** (Microsoft) (‘Keep yourself up to date’)  
S10. **Skicka din CV till Catarina Goodliffe** (CA) (‘Send your CV to Catarina Goodliffe’)  
S11. **Skicka din meritförteckning, ett följebrev och dina löneanspråk till följande adress:** (TransPerfect) (‘Send your resume, a cover letter and your salary request to the following address:’)  
S12. **Prenumerera på nyhetsbrevet International Microsoft Careers** (Microsoft) (‘Subscribe to the newsletter’)  
S13. **Kontakta Hill & Knowlton Sveriges vd Bo Albertsson.** (Hill & Knowlton) (‘Contact Hill & Knowlton Sweden’s CEO Bo Albertsson’)  
S14. **För mer information sänd ett e-mail till oss eller fyll i vår feedback form.** (EDS) (‘For more information, send us an email or fill in our feedback form’)  
S15. **Var först med att få information om de senaste karriär-möjligheterna genom att prenumerera på RSS feed.** (Microsoft) (‘Be the first to get information about the latest career opportunities by subscribing to the RSS feed’) |

| Verbal |  |

| Relational |  |
Two of the American imperative verbal clauses are concerned with the job application process (A12-A13). The Ogilvy example informs the applicant on how to go about applying, whereas the EDS example informs the applicant about how they handle applications. Both examples reflect concrete communication between the company and their audience. Examples A14-A15 reflect interaction with the corporate site in order to receive services online. The Swedish verbal clauses also include activities in the application process (S10-S11) and one clause reflecting interaction with the site (S12). Furthermore, the Swedish data include ten different clauses encouraging the audience to get in touch with the company (S13-S14).

The only relational imperative is found in the Swedish data (S15). This clause urges the audience to be the first to receive new information (by subscribing to the RSS feed).

7.3.2 Interrogatives

The American Careers data include 18 interrogatives. Of these, six are clause fragments, and the rest represent material (2), mental (8) and relational (2) processes. The Swedish Careers pages include 11 interrogatives, which all are full clauses, totalling 17 processes. Process types include material (7), mental (5) and relational (5). The questions on the American Careers pages are primarily directed at the prospective employees. Some of them occur in headings, and serve to attract interest and attention from the audience. The following questions serve as introductory headings for the following subsection, which provide the answers:

7.87. Did you know? (3M)
7.88. Curious about CSC? (CSC)
7.89. Why Xerox? (Xerox)
7.90. What excites you? (EDS)
7.91. See yourself succeeding? See yourself at CA. (CA)

The examples from CSC, Xerox and CA are clause fragments lacking the subject, the verb, or both. The CA example (which is also featured above in 7.3.1, example A9) integrates both question and imperative answer in the heading, thus creating a dialogue from the beginning of the text. The Swedish Careers data includes one interrogative used as a heading (7.92). However, this question is not directed at the reader:

7.92. Vad är det som gör Unisys så unikt i sin förmåga att tjäna tionusentals kunder världen över? (Unisys)
Questions can also have a text-organising function and create a question-answer pattern within text. The Microsoft text example switches between question and answer to create a dialogic rhythm to the discourse (7.93). The Swedish examples 7.94-7.96 provide a question-answer pair at the beginning of a paragraph.

7.93. *How far can your potential take you?* At Microsoft, we’re working toward a future where everyone’s potential can be fulfilled. What about yours? We offer opportunities around the world to make an impact with the next generation of technology we’re building today. (Microsoft)

7.94. *Varför inte bli en av oss?* Vi är ett öppet och spännande företag där alla har chansen att använda sin energi, skaparglädje och kompetens och därmed verkliga bidra. (3M)

('Why not become one of us? We are an open and exciting company where everyone has the chance to use their energy, creativity, and competence and thus really contribute')

7.95. *Vill du jobba hos ett globalt företag med spännande IT-projekt och ha möjlighet att skapa dig ett internationellt nätverk? Då är CSC nåt för dig!* (CSC)

('Do you want to work with a global company with exciting IT projects and have the opportunity to create your international network?')

7.96. *Hur långt kan din talang ta dig? Upptäck det genom att utforska vår webbplats.* (Microsoft)

('How far can your talent take you?')

The question-answer pattern can also be used to end a text. The example from Xerox’ page show the last two sentences of a long text explaining all the good reasons for choosing Xerox as one’s employer (7.97).

7.97. *Other reasons for choosing Xerox? You may already have many in mind.* (Xerox)

The Swedish Careers data display six examples of a question-answer pattern at the end of the web page text. The interrogative is either connected to the text before,
as in examples 7.98-7.99, or then forms part of a links section below or beside the main text (examples 7.100-7.101).

7.98. Är du intresserad av en karriär hos oss? Välkommen att skicka in din ansökan till...(Wyeth)
('Are you interested in a career with us? You’re welcome to send your application to…')

7.99. Är du intresserad av att arbeta på Hill & Knowlton? Kontakta Hill & Knowlton Sveriges vd Bo Albertsson. (Hill&Knowlton)
('Are you interested in working at Hill & Knowlton? Contact Hill & Knowlton Sweden’s CEO Bo Albertsson’)

7.100. Lediga platser // Vill du bli en av oss? (Unisys)
('Job vacancies // Do you want to become one of us?')

7.101. Sök jobb // Har du idéerna och kunskaperna som gör att du kan vara med och forma vår framtid?// Anpassa sökningen // Visa alla jobb (Symantec)
('Search for jobs // Have you got the ideas and the knowledge needed to take part and form our future? // Customise search // Show all vacancies')

Finally, questions are sometimes used to impersonate the audience with the help of first person pronouns:

7.102. You’re considering a career at P&G, but...Cincinnati!? You’re asking – What will I do in Cincinnati? Will I like it? Visit the Forum to ask questions and get real info from P&G people who know. (Procter & Gamble)

7.103. What can I expect from a career at Lilly? Answers. (Lilly)

The P&G example effectively creates a dialogue between the company and the audience, where the company impersonates the reader by means of direct speech (7.102). The final example from Lilly serves as an animated heading for the entire Careers page text, and the answer is shown slightly after the question, creating an onscreen dialogue (7.103). The Swedish data contains no impersonating interrogatives.
7.3.3 Summary

The most common speech function in the Careers data is the statement. Commands addressing the external audience, however, occur on more than half of the pages in both language data sets, whereas questions occur on roughly half of the company pages. Commands are somewhat more common in the Swedish data than in the American.

The commands urge the audience to apply for jobs, explore the site for information, read more and sign up for newsletters. Different activities in the application process are also lifted through commands. The American pages also encourage the audience to think, imagine, feel and experience different things, which is not as common in the Swedish data. By contrast, the Swedish pages encourage the audience to contact the company far more often than the American pages, either by sending their application, or getting in touch with a certain company representative.

The questions are the smallest speech function category in the Careers data. The questions are realised as either fragments, most notably on the American pages, or as full clauses. In this data, they form part of material, mental and relational processes. Especially in the American data, questions often form part of headings, followed by an answer or the entire text as an answer. Other text-organising uses include question-answer patterns within the text, creating a dialogic rhythm, and the text-ending questions, which are more common in the Swedish data. Two American pages use questions to impersonate the reader, as if to ask questions on the audience’s mind.
8 HYPERLINKS ON THE ABOUT US AND CAREERS PAGES

This chapter outlines the results for the three different hyperlink analyses, conducted on a total of 80 pages. The overall frequencies reflect a situation where the American pages contain more hyperlinks than the Swedish pages. The American About Us pages include a total of 949 hyperlinks, whereas the Swedish pages feature 643 links. The Careers pages display a similar pattern: 807 links in the American data, and 596 links in the Swedish data. These frequencies alone suggest that the Swedish audiences have access to fewer hyperlinks on the corporate About Us page and thus also less information than the American audiences. This is to be expected, since not all the English website contents exists in Swedish. Inevitably, and mostly for economic reasons, the different country sites end up smaller than their American or international master sites.

The chapter is divided into four main sections: rhetorical link functions, participant references, participant roles and speech functions. Within these sections the results from the About Us page data are first presented, after which the results from the Careers page data are outlined. Within the thematic page data sections, the American results are presented first, and then compared to the Swedish results.

8.1 Rhetorical link functions

The hyperlink functions are divided into three categories according to the three perspectives presented in Chapter 5: the corporate, the informative and the audience perspective. The corporate perspective includes the three link function types of authorising, enhancing and exemplifying links. The informative perspective is reflected in two link functions: the referencing/citing and the commenting links. Finally, the audience perspective includes mode-changing and self-selecting links.

8.1.1 ABOUT US

8.1.1.1 Overview

The distribution of link functions is not very different in the two data sets, apart from the fact that the Swedish material features roughly two thirds of the link frequency of the American material (see Table 8.1 below). There are some minor discrepancies: the exemplifying links are more common in the Swedish data; this is mainly due to Xerox Sweden’s choice to list most of their products as examples in drop-down menus. Another difference concerns the mode-changing links: here, the Swedish links are notably less frequent. Whereas the American pages offers links for
signing in, signing up and online shopping, these facilities do not exist to the same extent on the Swedish pages.

Table 8.1: Rhetorical link functions on the About Us pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Link type</th>
<th>About Us Am.</th>
<th>About Us Sw.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authorising</td>
<td>341 (36%)</td>
<td>195 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing</td>
<td>266 (28%)</td>
<td>209 (32%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplifying</td>
<td>62 (7%)</td>
<td>87 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commenting</td>
<td>77 (8%)</td>
<td>36 (6%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referencing/Citing</td>
<td>11 (1%)</td>
<td>8 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode-Changing</td>
<td>51 (5%)</td>
<td>17 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Selecting</td>
<td>141 (15%)</td>
<td>91 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>949 (100%)</td>
<td>643 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.1.1.2 The corporate perspective

There are altogether 341 authorising links in the American About data. 131, or 38% of them are About Us links and describe the company: corporate information, facts, history, people and management. 51 links (15%) connect the user to contact information and office locations, whereas 42 (12%) links take users to legal information, privacy policies, terms of use and copyright information. Corporate governance, values, ethics and mission statements are accounted for in 29 links (9%). Corporate citizenship, corporate social responsibility, community and philanthropy are the topic of 37 links (11%). Diversity issues are linked to in 13 cases (4%) and six links (2%) are concerned with sustainability and the environment. 21 links (6%) are concerned with the corporate brochure, annual report and similar financial information, whereas five links (1%) refer the user to awards and recognition. There are, in fact, another four links on different awards (PitneyBowes), but since they are listed under the general linked heading History & Awards, they are referred to the category of exemplifying links. Finally, there are three links (1%) to a message from the Chairman and three links (1%) to executive biographies.

The Swedish authorising links are altogether 195. Of these, 86 (44%) link the user to corporate information, facts, history, people and management, whereas 38 (19%) links are concerned with contact information of office locations. Legal information is provided in 34 links (17%). Mission, ethics and business conduct policies are described in nine links (5%), whereas CSR and community relations are the topic of ten links (5%). One of the CSR links also touches upon sustainable development and
the environment, which is further mentioned in four links. Eleven links provide financial information (6%). Finally, there are three links to executive biographies.

The enhancing link category includes a wide variety of thematically different links. Seven subtypes emerge from the data: *products, areas, company, careers, home, map* and *more*. *Products, areas, company* and *careers* include enhancing links to more information on these topics, whereas *home, map* and *more* stress the navigational properties of the enhancing link. Frequencies and examples of the subtypes are presented in Table 8.2. The American About Us pages includes 266 links (out of 949) with the primary function of enhancing. The Swedish About Us data features 208 enhancing links (643 total).

**Table 8.2: Subtypes of the enhancing link (About Us data)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enhancing subtypes</th>
<th>Am. About</th>
<th>Sw. About</th>
<th>Examples (American; Swedish)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>products</td>
<td>72 (27%)</td>
<td>49 (24%)</td>
<td>Products &amp; Services; IT-tjänster &amp; lösningar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>areas</td>
<td>42 (16%)</td>
<td>27 (13%)</td>
<td>Industries; Branscher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careers</td>
<td>33 (12%)</td>
<td>29 (14%)</td>
<td>CSC Careers; Karriär på Xerox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>company</td>
<td>32 (12%)</td>
<td>22 (11%)</td>
<td>Events &amp; Tradeshows; Evenemang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>home</td>
<td>56 (21%)</td>
<td>63 (30%)</td>
<td>About Microsoft Home; Om Microsoft AB hem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>map</td>
<td>16 (6%)</td>
<td>11 (5%)</td>
<td>Site Map; Webbkarta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>15 (6%)</td>
<td>7 (3%)</td>
<td>Learn more; Läs mer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL (100%)</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>208</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Products* links take the user to pages about the company’s products and services, *areas* refer to different sections within the company, and *careers* include information on working for the company as well as links to the career site. The *product* links are the most common subcategory in the American About Us data. The *home* subcategory includes an array of links concerned with the company’s activities, such as events, conferences, advertising, sponsorships and campaigns. *Home* links take the user back to the starting page, either of the section, the site, or the international site. *Map* links give an overview of the website. Finally, *more* links include the functional *Read more, Learn more* and *View all*.

The *exemplifying* link can be hard to define, especially in relation to the enhancing link. In this study, all links that list specific items under a general heading are labelled as exemplifying, such as *Industry Solutions* under *Solutions* (CA) and *Mail & Document Services Associates* under *Careers* (PitneyBowes). Of course, these
could also qualify as enhancing links. However, since they usually share some features with other listed items, and have a general heading (enhancing link), they are categorised as exemplifying. Example-like links of the authorising type have, by contrast, been classified as primary authorising since they normally do not share features with each other (cf. Overview and Management under the heading About CA, all classified as authorising links). Similarly, if the list of items represents country names, leading the user to those particular country sites, the self-selective function of the links is deemed stronger than the exemplifying function and label the country links are labelled self-selective.

There are altogether 62 exemplifying links in the American About Us data. Most of them represent examples of products or services that the companies offer. The rest include for instance examples of awards (see authorising above) and links to newsletter issues. There are altogether 87 exemplifying links in the Swedish data, all of which represent either services or product offered by five companies.

8.1.1.3 The informative perspective

In the About Us data, the commenting links usually link directly to press releases or to a page with news (called e.g. press room, press releases, news, and media room). This category contains 77 links; of these 32 (42%) are general links to a news section within the site, whereas 18 (23%) represent linked headlines of press releases. There are three links to corporate blogs (Hill&Knowlton (2) and EDS) and six links to company publications (articles, presentations etc.). Three links lead to Customer Successes/Quotes (all by CA). The final links to be included in this category are RSS feeds (3), Newsletter/Magazine (2), CSC Voices, and legal procedures (European Commission Decision, Consent Decree (Microsoft)).

The Swedish pages feature 36 commenting links. Of these, four links represent press release headings, one links to RSS feeds, whereas the majority (27, 75%) link to a news or press room facility (Nyheter, Pressrum, Pressmeddelanden or Media (‘News, Press room, Press releases, Media’)).

The referencing/citing links lead outside the corporate website. The American data contains 11 of these links, most of which link to owner or owned companies. Four referencing links lead to other places: the download page for Adobe Acrobat Reader (2) and external actors ensuring the site security (2).

The Swedish pages feature eight referencing/citing links. Six of them refer to parent companies or owned companies. The two remaining links are for Adobe Acrobat Reader and site security.

8.1.1.4 The audience perspective

The mode-changing links have the primary function of taking the user to a new type of activity (as opposed to just reading/viewing a particular page). These activities
may include, for instance, giving feedback, shopping, watching a video, listening to audio files, downloading something or signing up/logging in. There are altogether 51 mode-changing links in the American About Us data. The most common mode-changing link type is the sign in/log in link that requires previous registration to the website (13 instances; 25%). The login feature can be directed at employees, clients, or both. This group of links also includes other login-related links such as Modify Profile (Proctor & Gamble) and Account management (Xerox). Other mode-changing link types include the email link (7), registering/subscribing/signing up (6), survey/feedback (6), online shopping (5), and requesting information (6). A few links are also concerned with downloading/saving (2), radio features (1) job-posting (1) and sweepstakes (1).

The Swedish data include 17 mode-changing links. The most common type on the American pages, the Sign in feature, occurs only once on the page of Marsh (Logga in). Other mode-changing links include feedback (3), emailing information to a friend (email or tipsa 4), emailing the company (3), printing the page (4) and applying for a job (Sök till Wyeth). Finally, there is a link to Xerox Partner Webstore, which could be labelled enhancing, but since it takes the user to a shopping environment I choose to refer it to the mode-changing category.

The self-selecting links (Am.: 141 instances) have the primary function of offering tailor-made content to the user. This category includes an array of link types with a varying degree of self-selectedness. The Search links give the most freedom, since the user can type the desired term into a field and a search engine will render pages relevant to the search within that particular site. The search facilities are usually offered on top of the web page and can consist of an open field followed by Search or Go or an arrow. Some pages also offer an Advanced Search facility. The American About Us data include 24 Search links (17%). A related link type is that of country or language (47 instances, 33%). This category includes both direct choices of region, country or language, but also links of the type ‘company x worldwide’ or ‘change country’, which leads to a page featuring further geographical choices. Other choose-related links are those offering a drop-down menu with different business areas or product groups. The biggest category of targeted links consists of those that somehow characterise the role of the user in relation to the company or the website (57 instances, 40%). This category includes a few references to typical client groups (e.g. Small Enterprises (Marsh), Government Solutions (3M), Private Clients (Marsh), Small Office Solutions (Pitney Bowes)). The most common single role link is that of Investor. Other roles are Analyst, Journalist, Partner, Supplier, User, Client, Stockholder, Student, Alumni and Job Seeker. Finally, there is a general self-selective link called My preferences and two links that changes the page layout, Print version (Hudson) and Printable page (Hill&Knowlton, Pitney Bowes).
The Swedish About Us data include 91 self-selective links. Of these, 17 (19%) are general Search facilities, whereas 30 links (33%) define country, region or language choice. There is one menu link for choosing the business area. The biggest group, with 37 links (41%), is that of roles characterising the user. References to typical client groups (3) include Hem och hemmakontor, Småföretag and Företagslösningar (Symantec) ('Home and home office, Small business, Company solutions'). Common user roles include those of Investerare, Partners and Leverantörer, Användare, Journalister/Press (2), Branschanalytiker (2), Alumni (2), jobbsökande, aktieägare, allmänhet och patienter, häls- och sjukvården, and Verva (f.d. Statskontoret) ('investors, partners and suppliers, users, journalists/press, industry analysts, alumni, job seekers, shareholders, public and patients, healthcare, Verva (former Agency for Administrative Development)'). Finally, there are two links to preferences (Mina preferenser/uppgifter, ‘my preferences/data’), two links for the change of font size, one link for the company portal (CSC), and one link for print version.

8.1.2 CAREERS

8.1.2.1 Overview

All in all, the link type frequencies on the Swedish pages do not differ very much from those on the American pages. The largest discrepancy, the difference in the number of exemplifying links, can be explained by the unique nature of the American TransPerfect page which lists all available jobs as examples, thus distorting the frequencies. The main difference regarding the number of links is therefore the fact that the Swedish data features a total of 210 fewer links than the American data.

Compared to the link function types in the About Us data, there is a decline in the frequencies for authorising and exemplifying links on the Careers pages, especially in the American data. The enhancing links, however, are equally common here as in the About Us data. The decrease in two of the categories for corporate perspective result in an increase in the categories for audience perspective, especially the American mode-changing links. Based on link function frequencies, the company tones down its role in the links on the Careers pages and orients itself more towards the external audience by offering choices and different activities.
Table 8.3: Rhetorical link functions on the Careers pages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Link type</th>
<th>Am. Careers</th>
<th>Sw. Careers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Authorising</td>
<td>146 (18%)</td>
<td>133 (22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhancing</td>
<td>199 (25%)</td>
<td>177 (30%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exemplifying</td>
<td>195 (24%)</td>
<td>101 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commenting</td>
<td>30 (4%)</td>
<td>32 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referencing/Citing</td>
<td>16 (2%)</td>
<td>10 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode-Changing</td>
<td>80 (10%)</td>
<td>49 (8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Selecting</td>
<td>140 (17%)</td>
<td>93 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>806 (100%)</td>
<td>595 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.1.2.2  The corporate perspective

The American ‘Careers’ pages feature at total of 146 authorising links and more than half of them occur at the bottom of the page. The links to Privacy policy, Copyright information and Terms of use are nearly always at the bottom of the page, making this a typical, although not entirely fixed, placement. At the bottom of the page these links are thus accessible, but not overly stressed. The Contact and About links can also be placed at the bottom, but are often lifted to the top or the left-hand side, and sometimes repeated several times on the page, thus stressing their importance and authenticating function.

Of the authorising links, 41 are descriptive (28%). 35 links (24%) have a legal topic: e.g. privacy statement, terms of use, legal disclaimer, whereas 33 links (23%) offer contact information and links to local offices. Corporate social responsibility is featured in five links, and diversity in eleven links. Corporate values are present in ten links. Finally, there is one link to a Chairman’s message (CSC) and one to financial information. The Swedish Careers pages feature 133 authorising links. 63 of these (47%) are descriptive About Us links and 28 links (21%) provide contact and office information. Legal information is given via 32 links (24%). Corporate values are presented in four links, diversity in three links and CSR in two links. Finally, there is one link featuring financial information.

199 of the 806 links on the American Careers pages have the primary function of enhancing, thus making this type of link the most common in this data. This result seems initially to lend support to Harrison’s claim about enhancing links being the most common link type on corporate websites. However, the exemplifying links (195 instances) are almost as frequent as the enhancing links.
The enhancing links fall into eight sub-types, compared to seven in the About Us data. The home links provide navigational help and take the user back to the corporate home page or the starting page of a certain section. The home link function is either explicitly labelled ('home', 'Careers') or implicitly embedded in the company name and/or logotype. The American Careers pages include 66 home links (33%). Of these, 47 take the user to the corporate home page, whereas 19 connect to the Careers section starting page. The sitemap links (13, 7%) take the user to a page listing all the contents of the website. The more links (12, 6%) provide additional information on a previously mentioned topic. This links type is used on three company pages and take the label Read more, View all and Learn more. Being a Careers page, there are two characteristic link types for this section: work and apply. Work links (21, 11%) provide more information on the company as a workplace, whereas apply links (28, 14%) helps the user in the application process and provide links to open positions. Company-related enhancing links include products, areas and company links. Product links (32, 16%) take the user to information on company products and services. Areas (20, 10%) provide more facts on the company’s business areas. Finally, company links (7, 4%) include events, initiatives and online learning.

The most common link type in the Swedish data is, like in the American data, the enhancing link: 177 of the links are enhancing. The home links constitute the most common sub-category (52, 29%), and refer the user either to the corporate home page or the Careers section starting page. There is also one instance of home link which refers the user to the About section starting page. There is only one (1) instance of a more link. The page-specific link types are more common: there are 30 work links (17%) and 14 apply links (8%). Of the company-related links, product is the most common category (42, 24%). Finally, there are 14 area links (8%) and 12 company links (7%).

The second largest class in the American 'Careers' data is the exemplifying links, which are altogether 195 (roughly one fourth of the links). The exemplifying links are often difficult to separate from the enhancing links, and usually these two functions overlap, so that while providing subcategories of a certain topic, they also give more information on that particular subcategory. Exemplifying links can occur anywhere on the page but the most common placement is the top banner or the left-hand link panel. Hudson and Transperfect make use of drop-down menus for their exemplifying links, meaning that the links are not visible unless the user moves the cursor over the menus. Since Transperfect lists all of their current job opportunities on their Careers page, Transperfect shows the highest number of exemplifying links. The American ‘Careers’ pages list mainly different career opportunities,
straightforward job positions and product and service links in the exemplifying category. 88 of the links (45%) occur in drop-down menus.

In the Swedish data, the exemplifying link forms the third largest category with 101 instances. Open job positions are not very common on the Swedish pages, but the other subtypes with product and service links and careers opportunities are present. More than half of the exemplifying links occur in drop-down menus.

Table 8.4: Subtypes of the enhancing link (Careers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Enhancing subtypes</th>
<th>Am. Careers</th>
<th>Sw. Careers</th>
<th>Examples (American; Swedish)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>work</td>
<td>21 (11%)</td>
<td>30 (17%)</td>
<td>Benefits and compensation; Arbeta på EDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apply</td>
<td>28 (14%)</td>
<td>14 (8%)</td>
<td>Current open positions; Lediga tjänster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>products</td>
<td>32 (16%)</td>
<td>42 (24%)</td>
<td>Services &amp; solutions; Våra tjänster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>areas</td>
<td>20 (10%)</td>
<td>14 (8%)</td>
<td>Industries; Affärsområden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>company</td>
<td>7 (4%)</td>
<td>12 (7%)</td>
<td>Events; Portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>home</td>
<td>66 (33%)</td>
<td>52 (29%)</td>
<td>Symantec.com; Tillbaka Om Unisys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sitemap</td>
<td>13 (7%)</td>
<td>12 (7%)</td>
<td>Site map; Webbplatsöversikt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more</td>
<td>12 (6%)</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
<td>Read more; Mer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL 100%</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>177</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.1.2.3 The informative perspective

One of the smallest categories on both the American and the Swedish Careers pages is that of commenting links which together with the referring/citing links provide a third-party perspective on the presented information. The commenting links are usually concerned with news and press releases. 3M presents links to employee testimonials, while Hill & Knowlton is the only company that provides links to blogs.

20 (66%) of the 30 American commenting links are news-related, either press releases or links to a newsletter, news or media room section. Marsh provides the link Features & Articles, which also includes news. Tour de France and Team CSC World Class Cycling (CSC) is an ambiguous case since it could be labeled simply as an enhancing link. However, as the main objective with this information seems to be to provide news on the team, I chose to classify it as commenting. 3M gives two links to employee testimonials, whereas CA links to customer success stories (Customer Successes). Finally, Hill&Knowlton gives two links to their Blogs and one link to Case Studies.
The Swedish pages feature 32 commenting links. 30 (94%) of these are news-related. One link provides a testimonial under the heading *En minut med...* (Pfizer) ('One minute with'), another links to publications (CSC).

The *referring/citing* links are rarely completely external; only 16 cases were found on the American pages. The majority (12, 75%) takes the user either to affiliated websites or affiliated companies’ sites, thus reinforcing the corporate website as a rather closed system. The Swedish pages feature ten (10) referencing/citing links.

### 8.1.2.4 The audience perspective

The *mode-changing* hyperlinks amount to 80 in the American Careers data. By clicking on these links, the user is offered the possibility of entering into another activity than reading. A common type of mode-changing link is the search for jobs (25 links, 31%). Other typical activities include registering, subscribing, signing in and other actions connected to creating a personal job seeker account (25 links, 31%). These links often occur on the left or right-hand side of the page. Other mode-changing types include email links (12, 16%), feedback (5, 6%), learning more via a video clip or a downloaded brochure (7, 9%). TransPerfect provides four links to forms for free price quotes, whereas Symantec features one link for locating a partner and another for becoming a partner. Other mode-changing links include shopping, printing and managing navigational features. The Swedish Careers data feature 49 mode-changing links. These include the following actions: email (15, 33%), search (10, 22%), feedback (3, 6%), print (4, 9%), quotes (4, 9%), applying (4, 9%), logging in, sharing, asking the company, and reading / installing additional content.

There are altogether 140 *self-selecting* links on the American Careers pages. The self-selecting links are close to the mode-changing links in their function and some self-selecting links are also mode-changing. In this data, links that are both self-selective and mode-changing are referred to the self-selecting category. The basic feature of a self-selecting link is that users somehow get to adapt the content to their preferences. The open-field Search function is a typical example of pure adaptation: the user types in a word or phrase and presses a search link or button (21, 15%). Other typical types are links for selecting country or region (54, 39%) or language choice (8, 6%). Links specifying a certain audience type (35, 25%) include investors, employees, analysts, partners, suppliers, students and jobseekers. Client groups are also specified, for example in *Large Organizations* (Marsh) and *Small & Mid-Sized Business* (Symantec). Minor categories are for instance job feature links, printable page, and navigational search range. In comparison to the Search function links, these other common and less common link types are not purely adaptive, as the selecting feature is preset. The Swedish self-selecting links are altogether 93. There
are 19 search links (20%), 21 audience type links (23%), 7 country-related (8%) and 6 language-related (6%) links. Other smaller categories include for example text size, preferences and navigational search range.

8.2 Participant references in hyperlink labels

References made in hyperlinks to the company and audiences include names, pronouns, and noun phrases. Moreover, imperatives and questions can be used to invoke these main participants. This section presents all references found in the data, following the same order of presentation as in 8.1, moving from About Us data to Careers data. Since one link can contain several references, there is always some overlap between the participant reference categories. Therefore, the link frequencies and the reference frequencies do not match.

Table 8.5 below summarises the distribution of links with references to the company and the audience across the two link corpora. Company references are more frequent than audience references in both corpora. However, the frequency difference in the American Careers corpus is smaller than in the other subcorpora, due to a smaller relative frequency of company references.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Link corpus</th>
<th>Links with company reference</th>
<th>Links with audience reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am. About Us (949)</td>
<td>242 (26%)</td>
<td>174 (18%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sw. About Us (643)</td>
<td>200 (31%)</td>
<td>103 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Am. Careers (807)</td>
<td>151 (19%)</td>
<td>131 (16%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sw. Careers (596)</td>
<td>156 (26%)</td>
<td>82 (14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2.1 ABOUT US

8.2.1.1 References to the company

The American data refers to the company or associated companies by name in 125 hyperlink labels (48%). The name is slightly more common in the Swedish data, where it occurs 130 times (63%). Since the total link frequency is lower in the Swedish corpus, the company name density is higher on the Swedish pages. The use of name can be further divided into six subtypes (see below).
The company pronoun category includes different forms of first person plural (
*we, our, us*), which is used to refer to the company in 67 American links (26%), and
in 52 (25%) Swedish links.

Other company references include noun phrases denoting the company either as
an abstract entity, or as a group of people. The American links feature 65 (25%) such
references and the Swedish links feature 20 (10%). References to employees by name
occur once in the American data and four times in the Swedish. Finally, the Swedish
data feature one imperative directed at the company, on Pfizer’s Careers page:
*Kontakta mig* (‘Contact me’).

**Table 8.6: Company references in About Us links**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company references in hyperlinks</th>
<th>American About Us (949 links)</th>
<th>Swedish About Us (643 links)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>125 (48%)</td>
<td>130 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company pronoun</td>
<td>67 (26%)</td>
<td>52 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>65 (25%)</td>
<td>20 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Named employee</td>
<td>1 (&lt;1%)</td>
<td>5 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company imperative</td>
<td>1 (&lt;1%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total reference frequency</td>
<td>258 (100%)</td>
<td>208 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The American About Us link corpus thus includes a total of 258 company
references. Due to links with more than one reference, these 258 references are
distributed on 242 hyperlinks. The Swedish About Us link corpus features a total of
208 company references, distributed on 200 hyperlinks. The Swedish data thus
includes somewhat more references to the company that the American data.

The references to the company fall into four main groups: name, company
pronoun, noun phrase and company imperative. The category of name has six
subtypes. The company reference categories are presented in Table 8.7 below. In the
following, the different types of company references will be described and compared
with illustrating examples.

All American pages feature the company name as a linked logotype on top of the
page (21 instances of a logotype). The link is a Home link, leading the user to the
starting or home page of the corporate website. Sometimes the logo is repeated at the
bottom of the page, as on the page of CA. The logotype adds credibility to the page,
and its linkedness helps navigation.

The Swedish pages feature a linked company name as logotype in 17 cases out of
20. The remaining three pages also include the logo, but without a link (Procter &
Gamble, Ogilvy, Pitney Bowes. While the logotype usually appears on the top left, Lilly and Unisys are the exceptions to this rule, with the logo to the top right. CA repeats its linked logo at the bottom of the page. Pfizer’s logo is embedded in a linked image banner across the top of the page. The navigational target function of the link is the Home page of the website.

Table 8.7: Company reference categories in the About Us link data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company references categories</th>
<th>Link example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>[Linked logotype]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company as entity</td>
<td>About [name]; Lilly at a glance; Wyeth i Norden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determiner</td>
<td>Pitney Bowes Timeline; 3M:s affärsområden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services, departments and employees</td>
<td>The Xerox Foundation, Samuel J. Palmisano</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addresses</td>
<td>About EDS.com</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affiliated companies</td>
<td>MMC Website, Hudson Highland Group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company pronoun</td>
<td>Our company, Contact Us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>Board of Directors, Företaget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company imperative</td>
<td>Kontakta mig</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 35 cases the American company names are used about the company as an entity. Of these, About + name occurs 11 times. Other descriptive links include Fast facts. Lilly at a glance, Pitney Bowes Today and Pitney Bowes Worldwide. The company occurs as Participant in 12 clauses, either in dynamic, static or passive capacity. These clauses are often links to press releases. The dynamic Participant roles include for instance Wyeth and Progenics to Begin Clinical Testing of a New Formulation of Oral Methylaltrexone Based on Phase 2 Findings (Wyeth), and Symantec Debuts Products, New Vision for Corporate Security (Symantec). Passive roles are taken for instance in Join Symantec. Pure confidence in a connected world and Contact 3M. Static roles are represented by e.g. Unisys Included in Dow Jones Sustainability Index. The company can also be described as a place, as in Careers at Hudson (2 instances) and eCommerce at Xerox. A tailored user experience is offered in the links to log-in pages Log In/My Xerox and My CBRE. The complete company name can also occur as a Home link at the bottom of the page, as in TransPerfect Translations, Inc. and Ogilvy & Mather. Finally, there are two instances of copyright notices (at the bottom of the page).
In the Swedish data, 65 hyperlinks present the company as an entity by name. More than half of these links are descriptive in nature (37). These links include the traditional *About + name* links, but also geographically specific description links like, for instance, *Wyeth i Norden, CSC internationellt, Var finns P&G i världen, Hudson globalt* and *CA i Göteborg* (‘Wyeth in the Nordic countries, Where in the world is P&G, Hudson globally, CA in Gothenburg’). Other descriptive links include *Etik hos Pfizer, Vi är Pfizer, P&G och samhället* and *Historien om CSC* (‘Ethics at Pfizer, We are Pfizer, P&G and society, The history of CSC’). Four links present the company as a dynamic actor, for example *Symantec lanserar arkiveringslösningen Enterprise Vault 7.0, and Microsoft stödjer datautbildning för äldre* (‘Symantec launches the archiving solution Enterprise Vault 7.0, Microsoft supports computer training for the elderly’). In five links, the company name occurs in a passive role: four of these are contact links (*Kontakta + name*) and the fifth is the English-language link *Join Symantec Pure confidence in a connected world* which also occurs on the American Symantec page. Nine links describe the company as a place: examples include for instance *Arbota på Hudson, Webbplatser från Pfizer, Sök till Wyeth* and *Arbeta på Xerox* (‘Work at Hudson, Websites from Pfizer, Apply to Wyeth, Work at Xerox’). Finally, there are two linked company names without logo, and two copyright notices.

The largest group of links including the company name represents a genitive or genitive-like usage of the name as a determiner (43). While one of these links is indeed a real genitive, *EDS’ Next Big Thing Blog* (EDS), the rest lack the genitive form. Typical examples include *3M Businesses, CSC Portal, EDS U.S. Retiree Web Site, Pitney Bowes Timeline, P&G Links, Transperfect History and IBM Venture Capital Group*. Some examples are not so clear-cut, as for instance *IBM Venture Capital Group* and *CSC Portal* can be seen as a name of a subsidiary within the company and the name of a service, respectively.

The use of company name as determiner in links is not as common in the Swedish data. There are altogether 16 links that can be considered genitive, some of them in English. True genitive form is expressed in *3M:s affärsområden, Ogilvys värld, P&G:s historia, TransPerfects bakgrund, TransPerfects kontor and Index över IBMs RSS feeds (US)* (‘3M’s business areas, Ogilvy’s world, P&G’s history, TransPerfect’s background, TransPerfect’s office, Index of IBM’s RSS feeds’). Genitive-like use of the name is present in *CA Tjänster, Pfizer uppdrag* and *IBM kontor i Sverige* (‘CA Services, Pfizer missions, IBM offices in Sweden’). These forms might be directly influenced by English, but are not generally acceptable in Swedish without a hyphen signalling a compound noun. *Adress-bok över IBM-anställda* (‘Address book for IBM employees’) is the only link with a hyphen after the name; this link is not a genitive, but signals a similar relationship: IBM’s employees.
Further influence from English is seen in the directly transferred links 3M Business, 3M Leadership, Ogilvy Business, Xerox Partners and Xerox Partner Webstore. These English-language links may, of course, also be seen as names of products or departments.

Apart from the company as an entity, the company name can also be used for services, departments and the like in connection with the company (11 instances). Examples with definite article include The 3M Experience, Get the Free Monthly P&G Everyday Solutions Newsletter and The Xerox Foundation. Links to company departments include for instance 3M Global Trading, Inc. and Ogilvyinteractive. Events can also carry the company name, as in Symantec Vision (a symposium). Finally, company employees can occur in links, as when IBM links to their CEO Samuel J. Palmisano.

In the Swedish data, 13 links display the names of a service, a department or the like, or an employee. Seven links are in English, and most of these occur also on the American pages. P&G Perspectives http://www.pgperspectives.com/ also include a web address, which adds navigational qualities to it (cf. Addresses below). There is only one link to an event in Swedish. There are five linked names of employees; two of these links are email addresses.

The company name occurs in a few addresses or page-related links (9), most of them with navigational function. These include for instance Symantec.com, Xerox Home, About Microsoft Home, About EDS.com, but also the email address Neo@Ogilvy.com (Ogilvy). On the Swedish pages, the company name occurs 14 times in address links with a website in focus. Ten of these direct the user to the global American site with a .com ending, whereas two links lead the user to the Swedish company home page (eds.se, unisys.se home). Two links direct users to the Swedish About Home page; Om Microsoft AB hem and an image link with no text at all, leading to the home page “Om Symantec”.

The name category includes a few affiliated companies, which are either owned companies or owner companies (7 cases). Examples include Kroll, Putnam Investments, Guy Carpenter, Mercer Human Resource Consulting, Mercer and MMC Web site (all examples from Marsh) and http://www.wpp.com (Ogilvy). There are eight Swedish links displaying names of affiliated companies. Three of these, Hudson Highland Group, MMC länkar (‘MMC links’) and Fokus på P&G Nordic (‘focus on...’) refer to the owning company, whereas the rest refer to owned companies.

The category of company pronouns refers to the use of first person plural. Eighteen companies refer to themselves by first person plural in a total of 67 links on the American pages. None of these link labels contain the company name, but noun phrases are rather common in connection with first person plural pronouns (17 instances). Examples include for instance our company, our business and our people.
21 links include the audiences by means of the imperative (mostly Contact us), and one link uses a second person pronoun for the audiences (Your success and our brand; Hill&Knowlton). The form we is the least common (4) and only occurs in the links Who we are. The objective us occurs in 26 links, with either the label Contact us or About us. Both we and us thus only occur in authorising links. The possessive determiner our is the most common subcategory, as it occurs in 37 links. Of these, 33 have an authorising and four an enhancing function. Labels include for instance Our company, Our vision and values, Our people.

In the Swedish data, 16 companies refer to themselves 52 times by first person plural in a total of 50 links. Of these, one link also makes reference to the company by name, and three links also include a noun phrase. 19 links include the audience by means of imperative (mostly Kontaktta oss, ‘contact us’), whereas one link is phrased as a question (Vad gör vi, ‘what do we do’). The form vi occurs 8 times in 7 links, whereas the possessives vår/vårt/våra occur in 23 links (eg. Vårt företag, Våra discipliner, Vår historia ‘our company, disciplines, history’). The objective oss, finally, is present in 21 links.

The noun phrases used to refer to the American company are either abstract or human. The most commonly used noun phrase in the American ‘About Us’ link corpus is the abstract company (19 instances). Other nouns describing the company, or a part thereof, as an abstract entity are business, enterprise, team, executive management, management team, divisions, board, board committees, market information group and employer. Human noun phrases fall into two subcategories: specific functions within the company and general references to people. The specific functions include executives, directors, contacts, chairman & CEO, security advisor, sales expert, and authors. The Pitney Bowes page includes two links that refer to job opportunities as Mail & Document Services Associates and Corporate Officers. Even if these do not directly represent the people working at the company, they are still corporate job titles and are therefore classified as specific functions within the company. The general references to company people include the noun phrases people, women, employee, volunteer and one man. The links that refer to the company employees (Employee Directory (IBM), Employee WebBoard (Xerox) and Global Volunteer Day (EDS)) can also be seen as references to the secondary audience.

The noun phrases referring to the Swedish company are either abstract or human. The references to the company, or a part thereof, as an abstract entity dominate (16 instances), including företaget, ledning, ledningsgrupp, styrelsen, team and kontor (‘the company, management, management group, the board, team, office’). Anställda, personal, and alla (‘employees, staff, all’) represent human references to the company. All of these represent general references to people
working at the company. Unlike on the American page, there are no references to specific job functions within the companies. The noun phrases *anställda* and *personal* (‘employees, staff’) also refer to the company employees as a secondary audience for the pages. *Alla* in the link *Internet – en säkrare plats för alla* (Microsoft) (‘Internet – a safer place for all’) has several reference points: it refers to the company, the audience and people in general.

The final category concerns imperatives. The American data contain no company imperatives, whereas the Swedish data contain one. The imperative contact link *Kontakta mig* (Pfizer) is directed at the company and simultaneously refers to the audience by means of first person singular in the objective form.

### 8.2.1.2 References to the audience

The American About Us link corpus includes a total of 181 references to the audience, distributed on 174 links. The Swedish corpus features 106 references to the audience, distributed on 103 links.

The audience is referred to by imperatives in 86 American hyperlinks (48%), and 57 Swedish hyperlinks (54%). A few of these links also include an audience pronoun. Audience pronouns, including *my, you* and *your* are used in altogether 14 American links (8%). In the Swedish data, the audience pronouns include *mina, mig, din* and *du* (‘my, me, you’) and they occur in five links (5%). Noun phrases describing the possible target audience occur in 81 American About Us links (45%), and 44 Swedish links (42%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audience references in hyperlinks</th>
<th>American About Us (949 links)</th>
<th>Swedish About Us (643 links)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>86 (48%)</td>
<td>57 (54%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience pronouns</td>
<td>14 (8%)</td>
<td>5 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>81 (45%)</td>
<td>44 (42%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total reference frequency</td>
<td>181 (100%)</td>
<td>106 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most common way of referring to the audience in both link corpora is by means of the imperative. The American About Us pages contain 86 imperatives, distributed on 85 links. Five of these imperatives also refer to the audience using an interpersonal pronoun. 21 of the imperative links refer to the company by an interpersonal pronoun (mostly *us*, as in *Contact us*), whereas seven imperatives refer to the company by name. The imperative links represent all investigated link
functions, except the exemplifying one. The largest single function category is the authorising imperative links (25), many of which carry the label Contact us. The enhancing imperative links are 21, most of which belong to the subtype more (e.g. Read more, view all). The audience perspective, however, is most strongly represented in the 23 mode-changing imperatives (e.g. Modify Profile, Register, Email this page, Post a Job, Request for Info), and the 13 self-selecting imperatives (e.g. Choose a category, Make selection). There are two commenting imperatives (Browse Press Releases, View Current Newsletter) and one referencing/citing link (Get Adobe Acrobat Reader).

The Swedish About Us data contains 57 imperatives, distributed on 56 links. One of these imperatives also refers to the audience by an interpersonal pronoun (Klicka här för din trygghet på nätet (click here for your safety online’), whereas two refer to a possible audience by a noun phrase (Hitta en partner, Bli en partner,’Find a partner, become a partner). 20 imperative links include the company through use of the interpersonal pronoun us: these are mostly Contact us links, as in the American data. 12 of the imperatives refer to the company by name (e.g. Arbets på Hudson, Sök till Wyeth ‘Work at Hudson’, apply to Wyeth’); one of these also refer to the company by noun phrase (Besök Wyeth.com för mer information om företaget, ‘Visit Wyeth.com for more information about the company’). The imperative links represent all link functions except the commenting. The company perspective is present in 18 authorising links (mostly Kontakta oss, ‘contact us’), 18 enhancing links (e.g. Sök job på CA, Jobba hos oss, Läs mer, ‘apply for jobs at CA, work for us, read more’). The audience perspective is represented in 11 mode-changing imperatives (e.g. Tipsa, Skriv ut, Fråga oss (‘tip, print, ask us’) and five self-selective imperatives (e.g. Välj land, Sök, ‘choose country, search’). The informative perspective, finally, is present in two referencing/citing imperatives (Klicka här för din trygghet på nätet (click here your safety on the net’), Get Adobe Acrobat Reader).

In the American data, ten companies refer to the audience by means of second person in a total of 14 links. Five of these links are also phrased as imperatives, and one as an interrogative. Two of the links also refer to the company by name (My CBRE, Login/My Xerox). The singular possessive my occurs in five links, whereas you occurs in two links (Did you know?, Explore how science performs for you). The possessive form your is present in seven links. The Swedish data contains five links with five references to the audience by interpersonal pronoun, on the pages of five companies. One of these links is phrased as an imperative. There are two instances of mina (Mina preferenser, Mina uppgifter ‘my preferences, my information’) and one instance of mig (Kontakta mig, ‘contact me’), which is also the company imperative mentioned above in 8.2.1.1. There is also one instance each of du and din (Här kan
du köpa, Klicka här för din trygghet på nätet ‘here you can buy’, ‘click here for your safety on the net’).

The audience noun phrases represent general and specific audience references in the American data. The general references include customers, clients, user, user groups, visitor, women, and the collective noun community. Audience II references include employees and the more peripheral retirees and alumni. Students, job seekers and patients represent specific categories that may be interested in the company for personal reasons. Professional audience references include investors, stockholders, partners, analysts and journalists. Of these, the first three can refer to either single people or abstract legal entities. Finally, abstract legal entities are represented by affinity groups, associations, large organizations, mid-size businesses and government.

Like the American, the Swedish references to the audience can be divided into general and specific. The general references include användare, allmänhet och patienter, kunder, barn och ungdomar (‘users, the general public and patients, clients, children and youth’) and the above mentioned pronoun alla (‘all’). The link För allmänhet och patienter (Pfizer), however, includes both a general and a specific reference. Specific references to audiences which might be interested in the company for personal reasons include the above mentioned patienter, but also arbetssökande and jobbsökande (‘job seekers/applicants’). The professional audiences are represented by investerare, partners, aktieägare, leverantörer, journalister and branschanalytiker (‘investors, partners, shareholders, suppliers, journalists and industry analysts’). Of these, all but journalister and branschanalytiker can, of course, refer to both single people and abstract entities. Three companies, 3M, CBRE and Hudson, choose to link to investors in English on their Swedish page (investor relations/information). Abstract audience and client entities are represented by hem och hemmakontor, företag, småföretag, hälso- och sjukvården (home and home office, companies, small companies, healthcare’) and Verva (f.d. Statskontoret, ‘former Agency for Administrative Development’). The secondary audience is represented only by two instances of MSAB Alumni (Microsoft) and direct employee references are absent.

### 8.2.2 CAREERS

#### 8.2.2.1 References to the company

The most common way of referring to the company in the investigated hyperlinks is by means of the company name. Usually the web page starts with a linked company logotype, which is nearly always placed top-left on the page. The name occurs 102 times (64%) in the American Careers link labels and 97 times (58%) in the Swedish (see Table 8.9).
The first person plural is also used to refer to the company in the hyperlinks. *We, our or us* occurs 42 times (26%) in the American hyperlinks and 56 times (34%) in the Swedish. The first person plural is thus somewhat more common in the Swedish data than in the American data, whereas the name is slightly more common in the American data.

**Table 8.9: Company references in Careers links**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company references in hyperlinks</th>
<th>American Careers (807 links)</th>
<th>Swedish Careers (596 links)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>102 (64%)</td>
<td>96 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company pronoun</td>
<td>42 (26%)</td>
<td>56 (34%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>16 (10%)</td>
<td>12 (7%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company imperative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total reference frequency</td>
<td>160 (100%)</td>
<td>165 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Other references to the company include noun phrases denoting the company in the third person, either as a group of people or as an abstract entity. The American links include 16 such references (10%, and the Swedish feature 12 (7%). Finally, the Swedish data set contains one imperative link directed at the company.

The company’s name occurs in all types of link functions on the American Careers pages. The highest name frequency is found in the most common link function, the enhancing link group (51 links out of 249). However, the highest rate of name use proportionally occurs in the authorising (25% of the links) and referencing/citing (40%) link groups. In the remaining link categories only 6-8% of the links include the company name.

On the Swedish Careers pages, the company name occurs in all link functions except the commenting and the mode-changing. Most of the name-links occur in the enhancing link category (60 out of 253, 24%). Roughly one fourth of the authorising links (22/86, 26%) and one third of the referencing/citing links contain the company name.

The categories for company references are the same as in the About Us data: name, company pronoun, noun phrase and company imperative. The six subcategories of name use are also the same as on the About Us pages.

In the American Careers data, 18 companies out of 20 feature the name as a linked logotype on top of the page (20 logotype links). The exceptions are Marsh and Ogilvy, who include the logotype on top but not with a link. Sometimes the linked logo is included at the bottom of the page (Marsh, CA).
Of the Swedish Careers pages, 17 feature at least one linked logotype on top of the page. Two companies, CA and Marsh, display another logo at the bottom of the page. Ogilvy, Procter & Gamble and Pitney Bowes do not any logotype links.

In 44 American Careers links, the company is presented as an entity. 18 of these are links to company descriptions, usually About + name (14 cases). Other descriptive links include Why Lilly?, Why Xerox, Curious about CSC? and Experience P&G! Learn more about our student programs here. In 17 links, the company is described as a place, for instance Find a career at Pfizer and Life inside Symantec. The reference to place is not always very clear, as in Search Jobs Wyeth, where the clause has been interpreted as omitting the preposition ‘at’ (Wyeth). There are three link clauses where the company occurs as Participant. Once in a dynamic role, in CSC wins globally recognized professional learning award and twice in a passive role (Contact 3M, Join Symantec …). Lilly Worldwide and Pitney Bowes Worldwide give access to worldwide company contacts, whereas Log in/My Xerox and My CBRE provide a tailored user experience. Finally, the full company name occurs once as a Home link on the bottom of the page in TransPerfect Translations, Inc.

In the Swedish Careers data, there are 55 links describing the company as an entity. Of these, 31 are of a descriptive kind. Om + name (‘about + name’) is the most common form, but geographically specific links also occur (CA i världen, Wyeth i Norden, ‘Ca in the world, Wyeth in the Nordic countries’). Other descriptive links focus on history (Historien om CSC, ‘the history of CSC’), the current situation (EDS just nu, ‘EDS now’), society (Pfizer i samhället), and the company as a group of people (Vi är Pfizer). The last mentioned link also projects the company name as a static participant in the clause, the Identifier. Other clauses include two with the company name in a passive role (Kontakta 3M/Xerox), and one with the company name in an active role, although in English: EDS is looking for Systems Developer. 17 links refer to the company name as a place. Finally, two links display the complete name as a navigational help, and two name links consist of copyright notices.

20 American links represent a genitive-like use of the company name as determiner. Typical examples include CBRE Careers, P&G Links, Pfizer Businesses, All Wyeth sites and 3M Annual Report. In the Swedish data, a genitive or genitive-like determiner use of the company name is displayed in 14 links. Of these, two are genuine Swedish genitives, and two function as determiners with a hyphen. The rest consist of the company name as determiner in front of a noun (e.g. MMC länkar, Xerox Partners).

On the American Careers pages, the company name is also used as determiner in names of brands, employees, departments and the like. The pages feature 12 such links, for example P&G Everyday Solutions, Lisa, Marketing Manager and Wyeth Consumer Healthcare. There is one link with definite article, the 3M Experience,
which leads to information about working at the company. This is labelled as the name of a service, even if it is not a service that is sold, but a service offered for free as an information gateway. Finally, this category includes the name of a biking team in a link, Tour de France and Team CSC World Class Cycling and a conference, PG/NSHMBA 2006 Conference. On the Swedish pages, there are seven links featuring the company name as a name of a service or a department. Names of employees do not occur.

Four American name links display an address, with the website in focus: PGCincinnati.com, Xerox Home, Back to About Unisys and CSC Home. Whereas the first link takes the user to a new website, the three other help the user to navigate within the same site. The Swedish data contains one single navigational address link, Tillbaka Om Unisys (‘back About Unisys’).

On the American pages, there are two instances of name links referring to affiliated companies. One refers to a subsidiary company (Guy Carpenter & Company, Inc.) and the other refers to the parent company (Hudson Highland Group). The Swedish data displays one single link with the name of an affiliated company, the parent company Hudson Highland Group.

Fourteen companies refer to themselves by we in the American link data: 42 links contain references to the company in first person singular (1) and plural (41). These links contain almost no mention of the company name (2 exceptions); however, seven noun phrases denoting the company (company, people, employee) occur in connection with the pronoun. 19 of these links include the audience either in an imperative (18) or a second person pronoun (1). All but five imperatives are Contact Us links, which means that many of the links have an authorising function (21). 18 links show an enhancing function.

In the Swedish link data, fifteen companies refer to themselves by means of vi. 57 links contain either vi, vår or oss. Like in the American data, a few noun phrases occur in connection with the pronoun (e.g. vårt företag, vår personal ’our company’, ’our staff’). Of these 56 links, 19 are imperatives and one also refers to the audience in the form of dig. Most of the imperatives represent a Kontakta oss (‘Contact us’) link.

There are 16 instances of company noun phrase links in the American Careers page data. These include the abstract entities company, management team, and the human noun phrases chairman, directors, employee and people. The Swedish Careers link data include 12 references to company by noun phrase. Abstract entities are represented by företag/et, team, ledning, företagsledningen (’(the) company, team, management, corporate management’). The human noun phrases include anställda, personal and medarbetare (’employees, staff, employees’).
The American ‘Careers’ links feature no imperatives directed at the company. However, the Swedish data include one such instance, the link *Kontakta mig* (‘Contact me’) on Pfizer Sweden’s page.

### 8.2.2.2 References to the audience

The most common way of referring to the audience is by imperatives. 118 of the 139 American references constitute an imperative addressing the reader (85%). 67 of the Swedish audience references are imperatives (76%). Imperative audience references are thus slightly less common in the Swedish data.

Pronominal reference to the audience is not very common in the investigated links; only 14 American (10%) and 12 Swedish (14%) occurrences were found. Reference by means of a noun phrase is also rare; seven American and nine Swedish examples were found.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Audience references in hyperlinks</th>
<th>American ‘Careers’ (807 links)</th>
<th>Swedish ‘Careers’ (596 links)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>118 (85%)</td>
<td>67 (76%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience pronouns</td>
<td>14 (10%)</td>
<td>12 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>7 (5%)</td>
<td>9 (10%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total reference frequency</td>
<td>139 (100%)</td>
<td>88 (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since imperatives address the audience directly and urge them to take action, I expected to find a connection between imperatives on the one hand and hyperlinks that are either self-selective or mode-changing in function on the other.

In the American data, 43 out of 68 mode-changing links are imperatives, whereas only 28 out of 122 self-selecting links are imperatives. If we approach the topic from the opposite angle and start with the imperative links, we find that the 117 imperative links contain 43 that are mode-changing in function and 29 that are self-selective. Thus, there seem to be a stronger co-occurrence of imperatives and the mode-changing feature than imperatives and the self-selective feature. The remaining imperative hyperlinks have an enhancing (29), authorising (14) or an exemplifying (4) function. All the authorising imperatives are ‘Contact’ links (contact us/name).

In the Swedish data, 23 out of 49 mode-changing links are imperatives, whereas 20 of the 69 self-selective links are imperatives. Thus, these two hyperlink functions do not imply user action. Seen from the opposite angle; 43 of the 64 imperatives are either mode-changing (23) or self-selective (20) links. Many imperative links thus
have either of these two functions. The remaining imperatives are authorising (17), enhancing (6) and referencing/citing (2). All of the authorising imperatives are 'Contact' links ('kontakta oss/company name').

Apart from the 118 imperatives mentioned above, there are a few instances of first person singular and second person pronouns referring to the audience. Fourteen American Careers links contain an audience pronoun; of these links, eight are, in fact, imperatives so there is an overlap. These links tend to have a mode-changing (6) or self-selecting (6) function. The pronouns used include you, your, I and my. In the Swedish data, twelve links refer to the audience by either du or jag. The second person pronouns include du, din, dig and your, whereas the first person pronouns include min/a and mig. Four of these links containing interpersonal pronouns are imperatives.

The American Careers page links include seven instances of noun phrase reference to the audience. These include the abstract entity school team, and the human noun phrases student/s, volunteers, and job seekers. The Swedish data feature nine human noun phrase references: student, studerande (‘student’), arbetssökande (‘job applicants’), erfarna sökande (‘experienced applicants’), trainee and vän (‘friend’). The last example, vän, is part of the link Tipsa en vän (‘tip a friend’), which in fact makes it an instance of tertiary audience in the sense ‘a friend of the website user’.

8.2.3 Summary

Hyperlinks with company references are more common than links with audience references in all sub-corpora. However, the relative frequency of links with company references is somewhat lower in the Careers data than in the About Us data, whereas the relative frequencies for audience references are similar throughout the entire link data. The American Careers pages display roughly the same relative frequencies for company and audience frequencies.

In the About Us data, name references are the most common reference by far for the company, covering half or more than half of the occurrences. Company pronoun is the second most common reference form. Noun phrases come third in the Swedish material, but are as common as pronoun references in the American About data. Named employees are very rare in both sets of data, whereas a company imperative occurs only in the Swedish data. The distribution of the name references over sub-categories show some difference. The use of company name as an entity is more common in the Swedish About Us data, whereas the genitive-like use of the company name is more common in the American data.

The most common audience reference in the About Us links is the imperative, which occurs in roughly half of all the links featuring an audience reference. The
imperative category is closely followed by noun phrases, whereas audience pronouns form the smallest category. The distribution across the American and the Swedish sub-corpora is rather similar.

In the Careers data, names form the biggest category of company references, just like in the About Us data. Company pronouns come second and noun phrases third. There are no named employees at all in the Careers links data. The Swedish links contain one instance of a company imperative.

8.3 Participant roles in hyperlinks

8.3.1 ABOUT US

8.3.1.1 Company roles
The American companies are involved in a total of 26 processes (and links) in the investigated ‘About Us’ links. The majority of these (20) consist of the verbal process Contact us, where the company takes the role of Receiver. The remaining clauses entail two imperatives (see Ex. 8.1-2) where the company is the Scope of a material process, and four declaratives (Ex. 8.3), where the company takes the role of Token.

8.1. Meet our people (3M) (Material pr., Audience: Actor, Company: Scope)

8.2. Join Symantec (Symantec) (Material pr., Audience: Actor, Company: Scope)

8.3. Who we are (3M) (Relational identifying pr., Company: Token)

The Swedish companies are involved in totally 31 processes (distributed on 30 links). In 17 processes, the company is the Receiver in a verbal process. The most common link is that of Kontakta oss (12). Kontakta + company name occurs three times (3M, Pfizer). The remaining two clauses are two instances of Fråga oss (Wyeth). The company is also given the role of Actor in nine link processes (9 links).

Clauses with the Swedish company as Actor:

8.4. Vad gör vi (EDS) (‘What we do’)  
8.5. Hur vi gör det (EDS) (‘How we do it’)  
8.6. Microsoft stödjer datautbildning för äldre (Microsoft) (‘Microsoft supports IT training for the elderly’)
8.7. Läs mer om våra affärsetiska regler och hur vi arbetar med etik i Pfizer (Pfizer) (’Read more about our business ethical rules and how we work with ethics at Pfizer’)

A special case is formed by an image link on Microsoft’s page; an image with a long text:

8.8. Vi _ser en uppgift viktigare än alla andra_ På Microsoft _arbetar vi lika intensivt med att skydda barn och ungdomar från IT-övergrepp, som att förändra attityder och beteenden på nätet_. Läs mer om Livstid - ett _skolmaterial om hur man hanterar IT på ett ansvarsfullt sätt_. (Mental process, company: Senser; Material process, company: Actor; Mental process, audience: Senser)

(’We see one task a more important than all the others  At Microsoft we work intensely both on protecting children and young people from IT assaults, and on changing attitudes and behavior online. Read more about Life time – a set of school materials about how to manage IT in a responsible way’)

This link text features three processes involving either the company or the audience. The company is first assigned the role of Senser (the only case in this data), then the role of Actor. Finally, the audience is assigned the role of Senser in an imperative clause.

The Swedish companies are also assigned the roles of Token, Sayer, Existent and Scope (one occurrence of each). The role of company Sayer occurs in an imperative directed at the company (Ex. 8.10). The role of Scope occurs in an English clause – the same link that is featured on the American Symantec page.

8.9. _Vilka är vi_ (CSC) (Relational identifying, company: Token) (’Who are we’)

8.10. _Kontakta mig_ (Pfizer) (Verbal, company: Sayer, audience: Receiver) (’Contact me’)

8.11. _Var finns P&G i världen_ (Procter & Gamble) (Existential, company: Existent) (’Where is P&G in the world’)
8.12. Join Symantec Pure confidence in a connected world > explore (Symantec) (Material 1, company: Scope, audience: Actor; Material 2, audience: Actor)

8.3.1.2 Audience roles
The American audience is assigned a role in a total of 88 link processes (distributed on 84 links) in the ‘About Us’ pages. All processes but one occur in imperative clauses, the exception occurs in an interrogative clause. The most common role is that of Sayer in a verbal process (33 clauses, 32 links), closely followed by Actor in a material process (29 occurrences, 28 links). Most of the Verbal processes consist of the link Contact us (20); other examples are given below.

Verbal imperative clauses with the American audience as Sayer:

8.13. Ask a question or report a concern (3M) (2 verbal processes)
8.14. Email this page (Pitney Bowes)
8.15. Sign up now (Xerox)
8.16. Rate this page (Symantec)

Material imperative clauses with the American audience as Actor:

8.17. Manage your profile (Microsoft)
8.18. Explore how science performs for you (Procter & Gamble)
8.19. Download the brochure (Xerox)
8.20. Browse press releases (3M)

The American audience is also given the role of Senser in 26 link processes (25 links). Link processes of the type View all, Read more and Learn more are the most common in this category. Other examples are given below.

8.21. Did you know? (CSC)
8.22. See for yourself (Pitney Bowes)
8.23. View current newsletter (Procter & Gamble)
8.24. Find out more (Pitney Bowes)

The Swedish audience is assigned 62 roles (distributed on 61 links) in the ‘About Us’ data. The most common role is that of Actor in a material clause. There are 31 instances of audience Actor (30 links), all but one occurring in imperatives (for the exception, see Ex. 25). A reoccurring topic is that of working with the company, as in Jobba hos oss (CSC), Arbeta på Hudson and Sök till Wyeth. Other common links
include *Skriv ut sidan* (EDS), *Välj land* (3M) and other variations on these two topics. Further examples are listed below.

Link clauses with the Swedish audience as Actor:

8.25. *Här kan du köpa* (Xerox) (‘Here you can buy’)

8.26. *Besök Wyeth.com för mer information om företaget* (Wyeth) (‘Visit Wyeth.com for more information on the company’)

8.27. *Klicka här för din trygghet på nätet* (Pfizer) (‘Click here for your safety on the net’)

8.28. *Logga in* (Marsh) (‘Log in’)

The role of Sayer in a verbal clause is the second most common audience role. If occurs 20 times, 16 of which equal *Kontakta oss* or *Kontakta + company name*, or simply *Kontakta* (CA). The remaining four links are *Tipsa* (Hill & Knowlton), *Tipsa en vän* (Pfizer) and *Fråga oss* (Wyeth, two instances).

The Swedish is depicted as Senser in nine imperative clauses. These links are all related to reading more about a topic, simply *Läs mer* (six instances), or then a more elaborate phrase, such as *Läs mer om våra affärsidiska regler och hur vi arbetar med etik i Pfizer* (Pfizer) (‘Read more about our business ethical rules and how we work with ethics at Pfizer’).

The audience also occurs as Token once in the relational identifying imperative clause *Bli en partner* (Symantec) (‘Become a partner’). Finally, there is one link where the audience is depicted as the Receiver in a verbal clause: the company imperative *Kontakta mig* (Pfizer) which was discussed above.

### 8.3.2 CAREERS

96 of the American imperatives represent material processes, 16 are mental processes and one represents a relational process. In addition, there is an interrogative representing a relational process. There are four declaratives, of which two represent a mental process, one a relational and one a material process.
Table 8.11: Processes and speech functions in the Careers link data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process:</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Mental</th>
<th>Relational</th>
<th>Verbal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>link</td>
<td>96 imperatives</td>
<td>16 imperatives</td>
<td>1 imperative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clauses</td>
<td>1 declarative</td>
<td>2 declaratives</td>
<td>1 interrogative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 declarative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>link</td>
<td>60 imperatives</td>
<td>4 imperatives</td>
<td>1 interrogative</td>
<td>4 imperatives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clauses</td>
<td>6 declaratives</td>
<td>3 declaratives</td>
<td>1 declarative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

60 of the Swedish imperatives represent material processes, four represent mental processes and four are verbal processes. In addition, there is one interrogative representing a relational process and nine declaratives representing six material and three relational processes.

In five cases one and the same link contains two different processes. Therefore the number of processes in link clauses is not the same as the number of hyperlinks.

Material and mental process:

8.29. *Click here to find out more about P&G Brands (Procter&Gamble US)*

Two material processes:

8.30. *Search Jobs & Apply (Xerox US)*

8.31. *Search and Apply (CBRE US)*

Two mental processes:

8.32. *Experience P&G! Learn more about our student programs here (Procter&Gamble US)*

8.33. *Se då våra lediga jobb och se om något skulle passa dig? (IBM Sw.)*

(‘Have a look at our vacancies and see if something suits you’)

Since most of the full clauses are imperatives directed at the audience, the active role is assigned to the user. In imperatives representing material processes, the audience is thus depicted as Actor. In imperatives representing a mental process, the user is depicted as Senser. In imperative verbal processes, the user is assigned the role of Sayer.

The Swedish hyperlink data also contains one imperative link which is directed at the company (*Kontakta mig, Pfizer*), representing a material process with the company as Actor and the user as Goal. Another imperative is directed at the system or search mechanism of the web page, making this the Actor (*Visa alla jobb, Symantec ‘Show all jobs’*)

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8.3.2.1 Company roles

The company is involved in 21 processes in the American ‘Careers’ data. The majority of these processes are verbal, with the company as Receiver in the imperative clause Contact Us/company name (15 instances). These clauses describe the audience as Sayer, giving the company as passive role. The data includes two links with the company as Scope (and the audience as Actor), one declarative and one imperative with the company as Phenomenon (and the audience as Senser), and one declarative with the company as Actor (see examples 26-30 below, where the links includes several clauses; the relevant clause is marked with bold).

Material imperative clauses with the company as Scope (my boldface):
8.34. Meet Our People (3M)
8.35. Join Symantec Pure confidence in a connected world EXPLORE (Symantec)

Mental imperative clauses with the company as Phenomenon (my boldface):
8.36. Experience P&G! Learn more about our student programs here (Procter & Gamble)
8.37. You probably already know us (Unisys)

Material declarative with the company as Actor:
8.38. CSC wins globally recognized professional learning award (CSC)

One link on Procter & Gamble’s page forms a special case. The link is an identifying process, but the roles of Token and Value can vary depending on the perspective. If the link describes the situation of future employees, the roles are filled by the audience. However, if the link refers to current employees, the roles are filled by the company (in terms of its employees). Since the video behind this link does not quote or otherwise refer directly to current employees, the first interpretation might come closer to the truth.

Token: audience/company Value: audience/company:
8.39. I can be me at P&G (Procter & Gamble)

The Swedish company is mostly depicted in a passive role in the ‘Careers’ data. The company participates in 28 processes, 17 of which consist of Receiver in the verbal clause Kontakta oss/company name. There are two further instances of Receiver in two links Fråga oss (Wyeth). The last passive role occurs in the material clause Möt våra medarbetare (Microsoft), where the passive role of Scope is in fact
played by the secondary audience, the employees. All above-mentioned clauses are imperatives. Four clauses are declaratives, with the company in the role of Actor:

8.40. *EDS is looking for Systems Developer* (EDS) (English!)

8.41. *Vad vi erbjuder dig* (Microsoft) (audience dig=Recipient) (’What we offer you’)

8.42. *Så behandlar vi personuppgifter* (’This is how we use personal details’)

8.43. *Team CNC söker produktspecialist* (Wyeth) (Team CNC is looking for a product specialist’)

Finally, there is one instance of a verbal imperative clause, where the company is the Sayer and the audience the Receiver. Here, the imperative is directed at the company, as if someone in the audience is asking the company to get in touch with them:

8.44. *Kontakta mig* (Pfizer) (’Contact me’)

### 8.3.2.2 Audience roles

The American ‘Careers’ page audience is assigned a role in 105 processes, distributed on 101 links. 56 material clauses feature the audience as Actor. They are all imperatives and many are related to searching for jobs, creating an account and applying for jobs. Other topics include for instance navigational actions such as choosing country or region, and printing the page, or learning more about related topics.

8.45. *Search and Apply* (CBRE)

8.46. *Create/Update Resume* (3M)

8.47. *Check your browser* (CSC)

8.48. *Check out our new product innovations* (Procter & Gamble)

The audience occurs as Sayer in 27 verbal processes (and links). 15 of these processes consist of the link *Contact us/company name*. Examples of other verbal clauses are listed below.

8.49. *Rate this page* (Symantec)

8.50. *Send an email* (Hill & Knowlton)

8.51. *Subscribe* (EDS)
There are also 19 instances of audience Senser in a mental clause. Most of these entail the actions viewing, reading and learning (as in view all, read/learn more) but also experiencing, knowing and forgetting as in the examples 37-39 below.

Audience as Senser in mental imperative, mental declarative and mental interrogative clauses:

8.52. Experience P&G! Learn more about our student programs here (Procter & Gamble)
8.53. You probably already know us (Unisys)
8.54. Forgot your password (Wyeth)

The audience is given the roles of Carrier and Token once, as well as Value (see example 8.39 above).

Audience as Token in relational identifying imperative and relational interrogative attributive clauses:

8.55. Become a partner (Symantec)
8.56. Curious about CSC? (CSC)

The Swedish ‘Careers’ page audience is assigned a role in 57 processes, distributed on 56 links. In 25 clauses, the audience is featured as Actor. Most of these material clauses are imperatives (23) and many are concerned with applying or searching for jobs. Other common topics include choosing country or printing the page. One link offers installation of the program Silverlight, whereas two links lead outside the corporate site to external parties (Acrobat Reader; web security), and one link offers information on where to purchase products.

8.57. Gå till ansökningsformulär (Lilly) (‘Go to application form’)
8.58. Välj land (3M) (‘Choose country’)
8.59. Skriv ut den här sidan (Symantec) (‘Print this page’)
8.60. Klicka är för din trygghet på nätet (Pfizer) (‘Click here for your safety on the net’)
8.61. Här kan du köpa (Xerox) (‘Here you can buy’)

The audience is featured as Sayer in 24 verbal clauses. Most of these (17) consist of the company prompting the user to contact them (Kontakta oss/company name). Other links are concerned with asking the company a question, sending an email or telling a friend.
8.62. *Fråga oss* (Wyeth) (‘Ask us’)
8.63. *Skicka epost* (Hill & Knowlton) (‘Send email’)

The audience is assigned the role of Senser in five mental clauses, distributed on four links. They are concerned with either reading or viewing:

8.64. *Se då våra lediga jobb och se om något skulle passa dig?* (IBM) (‘See our open position and see if something would suit you’)

8.65. *Läs mer om utveckling och karriär* (Lilly) (‘Read more about development and career’)

The Swedish audience is featured as Token in one relational process:
8.66. *Om du är student* (Hill & Knowlton) (‘If you are a student’)

Finally, there are two links where the Swedish audience is the goal of the company’s actions. The audience occurs once in the role of Recipient in a material clause, with the company as Actor (8.67). There is also one link featuring a verbal process, with the company as Sayer and the audience as Receiver (8.68).

8.67. *Vad vi erbjuder dig* (Microsoft) (‘What we offer you’)
8.68. *Kontakta mig* (Pfizer) (‘Contact me’)

A final feature worth noting is that seven of the 56 links with audience roles are in English. Five links feature the audience as Actor, another two links present the audience as Sayer. Two examples are given below.

8.69. *Search our database of job opportunities* (Unisys)
8.70. *E-mail your CV to uk.hr.recruitment@pb.com* (Pitney Bowes)

8.3.3 Summary

In the About Us link data, the American companies are involved in 26 processes, most of which are verbal. Most company roles are passive, either Receiver or Scope. The only exception is one static role (Token). The Swedish companies are also portrayed as the passive Receiver of a verbal process in more than half of the processes (17 out of 31). However, there are also nine instances of the company as Actor, giving the Swedish companies a more active part in the hyperlinks. In addition, the Swedish companies display a greater variety of roles overall, as the
company is also assigned the occasional role of Senser, Sayer, Token, Existent and Scope.

The audience roles in the About Us link data are far more common than the company roles, due to the high number of imperatives addressing the audience. The American audiences are assigned a role in 88 link processes, whereas the Swedish audiences play a role in 62 processes. All audience roles in the American link data are active: Sayer is the most common role, closely followed by Actor and Senser. The Swedish audience roles are dominated by Actor, which covers half of the occurrences. The role of Sayer is assigned in 20 processes, while the audience Senser occurs in nine cases. In addition, there is one instance each of an audience Token and Receiver.

In the Careers link data, the American companies are involved in 21 processes, whereas the Swedish companies are involved in 28 link processes. The majority of the company roles are passive, with Receiver as the biggest category (12 instances). There are also a few instances of company as Scope and Phenomenon, and one instance of Actor. The Swedish companies are also mostly assigned passive roles, with 19 instances of Receiver and one Scope. In addition, there are four active roles, with the company depicted as Actor.

The audience roles in the Careers link data are again far more common than the company roles. This is most obvious on the American Careers pages, where the audiences are assigned a total of 105 process roles. Most of the American audience roles are active, and the audience Actor represents roughly half of the instances (56). The second most common role is the Sayer, followed by Senser. In addition, there is one instance each of Carrier, Token and Value.

The Swedish audiences occur in 57 processes, and mostly in active roles. 25 processes depict the audience as Actor, 24 as Sayer and five as Senser. In addition, there are a few instances of audience Token, Recipient and Receiver (one each).

### 8.4 Speech functions

Whereas a majority of the hyperlinks featured on the About Us and Careers pages are to be considered fragments, some of them are clauses and can be categorised in terms of both processes and speech functions. Section 8.3 above has already pinpointed the dominating role of the imperatives among the processes: Table 8.12 below serves to summarise the actual frequencies.
Table 8.12: Speech functions of links

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Link subcorpus</th>
<th>Imperatives</th>
<th>Declaratives</th>
<th>Interrogatives</th>
<th>Total link frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American About Us</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish About Us</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Careers</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>807</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish Careers</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>596</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the About Us data, roughly ten per cent of the hyperlinks can be classified according to speech function. Imperatives dominate, declaratives are uncommon and interrogatives extremely rare. In the Careers data, the proportion of links as clauses is slightly higher than in the About Us data, around 13-14 per cent. Here, too, an overwhelming majority consist of imperatives, with only the occasional declarative of interrogative.
9 DISCUSSION

9.1 Interaction profiles

One of the central aims of this study is to construct a model of corporate interaction profiles in light of the investigated companies, reflecting different sets of strategies used for interaction. This chapter presents the dimensions that form the basis of the profiling work and the interaction profiles are then laid out with examples. This is followed by a general discussion of the profiles and a comparison between the different data sets.

The three main methods of text analysis form the three basic dimensions. Dimension one includes all the references made to the main participants in text and hyperlinks. The continuum runs from detached references through noun phrases and third person pronouns, over names to second and first person references. Dimension two has to do with the roles the participants are assigned in clauses. Here, the scale goes from passive roles, over static roles to dynamic roles. Finally, the third dimension is concerned with speech functions such as statements, commands and questions. Based on the results of this study, this dimension can be illustrated as a circle with the statements at the core and the commands and questions as optional layers around the core. Together, these three dimensions form the basis of a company’s individual textual interaction profile. Added to these is the hypertextual dimension of rhetorical link functions, expressed as a scale from corporate perspective to audience perspective, with an informational perspective in the middle. The dimensions are illustrated after each subsection.

9.1.1 Dimension 1

With the we-you proportions as a starting point, most companies can be said to display a we-focus on their About Us page. This we-focus can be further divided into subgroups. Other types of focus include a balanced focus and a you-focus.

The most extreme we-focus is characterised by total absence of a you-audience. This category is represented by the American pages of Lilly, Marsh, TransPerfect and Wyeth. These four pages all include the audiences through noun phrases instead, and all but Lilly also rely heavily on the company name as self-reference. The we-focus can also be accompanied by an increased focus on NP references to the audience, even if you is also present. This group is represented by CA, CBRE, Ogilvy, Pfizer and Procter&Gamble. Microsoft and Hudson use both you and noun phrases in equal proportions to refer to the audiences, whereas Hudson displays only you-references to the audience.
A balanced *we-you* focus is represented by the American pages of 3M, PitneyBowes, Unisys and Xerox. Of these four pages all but PitneyBowes also rely strongly on company name reference.

Three American About Us pages represent a *you*-focus: EDS, IBM and Symantec. Of these, Symantec’s page features no *we*-references at all. The company is still strongly represented through name on all pages.

On the Swedish About Us pages, the *we*-focus is even stronger. Five pages (CBRE, Marsh, Pitney Bowes, Unisys and Wyeth) feature a *we*-focus while lacking a *you*-audience. CA, CSC, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Procter&Gamble include a *you*-audience but prefer a noun phrase audience. 3M, IBM, Ogilvy, Pfizer and TransPerfect refer to the audience by *you* and noun phrases in equal proportions. A *you*-focus is present in two pages, Microsoft and Symantec. Lilly represents an equal *we-you* focus, but due to the much higher reference frequencies of company name and noun phrase references Lilly is rather similar to Xerox, which displays a corporate name focus and zero references to *we* and *you*.

The Careers pages display a much more *you*-centered and balanced focus than the About Us pages. Only four American pages display a dominant *we*-focus: CSC, Hudson, Unisys and Wyeth. However, these pages also include the audiences in the second person. A total of seven companies have a balanced *we-you* focus on their pages: CA, Marsh, Pfizer, PitneyBowes, Symantec, TransPerfect and Xerox. Most of these also focus strongly on the company name as a reference, and some also refer often to the audience by noun phrase. A total of eight pages represent a *you*-focus: 3M, CBRE, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, Ogilvy, and Procter&Gamble.

The Swedish Careers pages, by contrast, display a stronger corporate orientation, as eight companies display a clear *we*-focus: CSC, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Procter&Gamble, Pfizer, Unisys, Wyeth and Xerox. The pages with a balanced focus are also eight in total: 3M, CA, CBRE, IBM, Marsh, Ogilvy, Symantec and TransPerfect. A *you*-focus is represented by four pages: EDS, Lilly, Microsoft and PitneyBowes.
9.1.2 Dimension 2

Most companies assign the majority of roles in the About Us texts to themselves. Five companies display only corporate roles: Hill&Knowlton, Lilly, Marsh, TransPerfect and Wyeth. The company roles are either static or dynamic, and in the case of Lilly also one passive company role. Seven companies assign the majority of roles to the company, while also including the audience in a number of roles: CA, CBRE, Hudson, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Symantec and Unisys. Six companies assign the two participants an equal proportion of roles: 3M, CSC, Microsoft, Procter&Gamble, Pitney Bowes and Xerox. The first five of these are characterised by a large number of dynamic audience roles. CSC displays no dynamic roles at all for the company. Xerox forms a special case, since the spread over different roles is so wide for both participants. Finally, EDS and IBM assign more roles to the audience than to the company.

The Swedish About Us texts display a company that dominates the activities on all but one page: Microsoft is the only page where the audience is assigned more roles than the company. In seven cases, the audience has no role at all in the text (CBRE, Marsh, PitneyBowes, TransPerfect, Unisys, Wyeth and Xerox. The remaining twelve pages all assign the majority of roles to the company, while still including the audience in some roles (mostly dynamic).

Compared to the About Us data, the Careers pages display a more varied set of roles for the participants, including a small number of static and passive audience roles for roughly half of the texts. The company static roles are also less frequent in these data. On the whole the American Careers pages display a predominantly dynamic audience. Nine of the companies assign more roles to the audience than to themselves: CBRE, CSC, EDS, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Procter&Gamble and PitneyBowes. On these pages, the dynamic audience roles form the single biggest category. On IBM’s page, the dynamic audience roles are the only roles assigned. CA and TransPerfect assign the same number of roles to both participants, but the dominating category is still the dynamic audience roles. Marsh, Pfizer and Xerox assign slightly more roles to the company, whereas 3M, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson and Symantec show a clear dominance of company roles. The dominating category for these pages is the dynamic company roles. Unisys and Wyeth are the only Careers pages where other role categories rise above the dynamic. Unisys displays a predominantly static company, along a dynamic audience, whereas Wyeth displays a passive company. In total, both pages are dominated by company roles.

The audience of the Swedish Careers pages is assigned fewer dynamic roles than the audience of the American pages. The dynamic company roles form the most common category on six pages: CSC, EDS, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft and PitneyBowes. In these texts, the audiences are assigned more roles than the company. Four
companies show a rather equal distribution of roles between the two participants: 3M, Marsh, Procter&Gamble and Symantec. Finally, on nine pages the company dominates the roles, mostly in the dynamic category: CA, CBRE, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Unisys, Wyeth and Xerox. However, all but one also displays the audiences in dynamic functions. Unisys assigns only one static role to their external audience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DYNAMIC ROLES</th>
<th>STATIC ROLES</th>
<th>PASSIVE ROLES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actor, Senser, Sayer</td>
<td>Carrier, Token, Existent</td>
<td>Goal, Scope, Recipient,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Client, Phenomenon,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Receiver, Attribute, Value</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9.2: The scale of Dimension 2

9.1.3 Dimension 3

The occurrence of imperatives is tightly connected to the rate of dynamic roles for the audience. If there are no dynamic roles assigned to the audience, there are also no imperative constructions present in this About Us data, since the imperative structures nearly always involve the audience in some type of clause activity. However, dynamic roles can occur without imperatives, as in the declarative clauses on five American and six Swedish About Us pages. Still, the high proportion of dynamic audience roles can often be explained by the occurrence of audience imperatives on that page. This fact does not lessen the audience dynamism per se, but rather changes its quality. Since audience imperatives are always issued by the company, an extra instigating force is added to the dynamic audience role, returning some of the dynamism to the corporate actor.

The interrogative constructions are very few in the data. However, they contribute to the interaction value of the individual web page text by either balancing a strong corporate dynamism more in the direction of the audience, or strengthening a projected audience dynamism. In the American data, the pages of 3M, CSC and Microsoft include one question each that further strengthens the dynamic balance between of the company and the audience, and give the floor to the audience participant. Hill&Knowlton, who assigns no roles whatsoever to the audience in text, chooses to involve the audience with a question instead. In the Swedish About Us data, questions occur on the pages of CSC, EDS, IBM and Ogilvy, who are otherwise portrayed as very dynamic companies in text. Here, the questions serve to project some dynamism onto the audience as well. For Swedish Microsoft,
who ascribes most of the roles to the audience, the added question further increases
the audience dynamism.

Imperative constructions occur on 15 of the American Careers pages and 18 of
the Swedish. As in the About Us data, the imperatives are connected to the existence
of dynamic roles, but the connection is not as strong since the number of dynamic
roles is often much higher than the number of imperatives on a page. Lilly’s
American Careers page provides the most extreme example: with no imperatives at
all, the text still assigns nearly half of the roles to the audience, in declarative clauses
representing the dynamic category. The remaining four American pages with no
imperatives all show a company role dominance: 3M, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson and
Xerox. In the Swedish Careers data, the page of Hudson and Unisys lack imperatives.
Interrogative constructions occur in roughly half of the data, and serve to add
dynamism both to texts with corporate role domination and audience role
domination.

Figure 9.3: Dimension 3

9.1.4 Profile types

Based on the individual companies’ scores on the different dimensions, a few main
textual interaction profiles arise. The main profiles are compiled according to a
company versus audience perspective in the text, as evident from three feature pairs:
we and you focus, company dynamism and audience dynamism, and the proportion
and presence of imperatives and interrogatives. The three dimensions are assigned
an equal weight. The profile types are presented below and the distribution is shown
in Table 9.1.

9.1.4.1 Company focus

The basic profile for companies with a high corporate focus includes a combination
of features that tone down the role of the audiences, and features that lift the
corporate presence and choice in text. The prototypical example includes a strong
focus of the corporate we in the text, total absence of imperatives and interrogatives,
predominantly dynamic roles for the company, no or very few dynamic roles for the
audiences, and no or very few instances of direct audience address through second
person pronouns. This can be interpreted as an implicit way of communicating with the audience (Ivorra Peréz 2015), where the facts and corporate expertise overshadow the need for an explicit dialogue with the reader. Objective, factual descriptions are thus a way of underlining the company’s credibility and competence (Gatti 2011). In terms of power relations, however, the profile of company focus promotes the corporate authority, while keeping the audiences passive and at a distance (Hoang & Rojas-Lizana 2015). A further distinguishing factor in the About Us data is the repetitive use of company name, often making the name category more common than the first person plural in text. Frequent use of the name is to be expected, since the name is one of the main components of a company’s verbal identity, and hence the corporate brand (Allen & Simmons 2003). By repeating the name, a company aims to increase brand retention (Gatti 2011) and create a positive image of itself and its products (Samson 2007, 2010).

The American About Us data contains four pages with extreme company focus: Lilly, Marsh, TransPerfect and Wyeth. These four pages assign no roles whatsoever to the external audience in text and this audience is never addressed directly. All except Lilly display a dominant name reference category. In the Swedish About Us data, eight pages display a strong company focus: CA, CBRE, Marsh, PitneyBowes, TransPerfect, Unisys, Wyeth and Xerox. With the exception of CA and Pitney Bowes, these Swedish pages assign no roles at all to the external audience. Only two of these eight, CA and TransPerfect, address the audience directly. The rest refers to the audience by noun phrases instead; in the case of Wyeth, the audience noun phrases form close to one third of the references. Marsh, Wyeth and Xerox have a strong focus on the company name. In the case of Xerox, the name focus is made even stronger by the complete lack of first person references to the company. Xerox Sweden thus displays a formal, detached image of itself on the About Us page, nonetheless with certain corporate dynamism (see text example below).

When comparing the American and the Swedish data, Marsh, Transperfect and Wyeth thus utilise the same company focus on their Swedish About Us page. The fact that the company name receives so much attention in the About Us data is due to the nature of the investigated web genre. The About Us pages serve to introduce the company to the readers, persuade them of its superiority and build the brand. Repetition of the name makes it salient and easy to remember. Moreover, by repeatedly connecting the company name with first person pronouns in text, companies try to convey the image of a group of people behind the name instead of an impersonal, abstract entity. On the Swedish pages, repeated name use is even more important, since the company is addressing a local audience that may not be familiar with the company and its expertise.
In the Careers data, two American pages (Hill & Knowlton, Hudson) and one Swedish page (Hudson) belong to this category. These three examples combine all the features mentioned above, except the repeated name use and total absence of audience roles or audience address. The Careers pages serve to inform and attract potential employees, and while information is important, the main focus lies on building a relationship with the reader and elicit the response of applying for a job. Judging from this data, a heavy use of the corporate name does not serve that purpose. A highly interesting fact is that contrary to expectations, Hill & Knowlton and Hudson show a stronger company focus on their Careers pages than on their About Us pages. The Careers pages of the American Hill & Knowlton and Swedish Hudson include no imperatives or questions at all, that is no explicit ways of engaging the reader in text. However, on their About Us pages, one imperative or interrogative is used to elicit response in the reader.

The text example below is retrieved from the Swedish About Us page of Xerox, titled ‘Xerox Sverige’ (Xerox Sweden). It represents a prototypical example of a page with a company focus, as it displays constant repetition of the company name, many roles assigned to the company and total absence of an external audience. The entire text is constructed with statements, with no imperatives and questions present.

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Xerox Sverige

Xerox Sverige är ett helägt dotterbolag till Xerox Corporation, världens sjätte största IT-företag med världstäckande verksamhet. Xerox grundades av svenskättlingen Chester Carlsson, som är uppfinnaren av den sk torkkopieringsprocessen (xerografimetoden). Xerox affärsidé är att vara ledande på den globala marknaden för dokumenthantering och erbjuda lösningar som bygger broar mellan den digitala och pappersbaserade världen. Xerox lösningar skall ge ökad affärsproduktivitet genom förbättrad förmedling av kunskap. Xerox erbjuder allt ifrån personlig utrustning, till omfattande dokumenthanteringstjänster som t ex byggandet av hela nätverk för produktion och distribution av dokument.

Xerox är ett kunskapsföretag som satsar mycket stora belopp på forskning och utveckling, f n ca 8 % av företagets omsättning. Xerox ligger bakom många av de innovationer som idag anses som standard - kopiatorn, laserskrivaren, Eterhernet, bitmap, det grafiska användargränssnittet (GUI) mm. I USA finns ett flertal forskningscentra varav det mest kända är Palo Alto Research Center (PARC) i Silicon Valley utanför San Francisco. I Europa finns filialen EuroPARC i Grenoble (Frankrike). Det finns även forskningscentra i England, Kanada och Japan.

Xerox har en mycket långtgående miljö-strategi. Alla nya produkter är tillverkade med utgångspunkt att återvinnas till 100 procent. "Baklängesfabriken" är ett begrepp som myntats med Xerox unika återvinningsprocess av produkter som
förebild. Det bästa exemplet för detta är Xerox tillverkningsanläggning i Venray, Holland där återtagna produkter monteras isär och material och komponenter återvinns/återanvänds för tillverkning av nya produkter.

2004 omsatte Xerox Sverige AB ca 750 miljoner kronor (Xerox Corp. $ 15.7 miljarder) och sysselsatte drygt 260 anställda (Xerox Corp. drygt 56,300 anställda).

' Xerox Sverige

Xerox is a wholly owned subsidiary of Xerox Corporation, the world’s sixth largest IT company with operations around the world. Xerox was founded by Swedish descendant Chester Carlsson, inventor of the so-called dry copying process (xerography method). Xerox’ business idea is to lead the global market for document management and offer solutions that build bridges between the digital and the paper-based world. Xerox’ solutions should provide increased business productivity through better dissemination of knowledge. Xerox offers everything from personal equipment to extensive document management services, such as construction of networks for production and distribution of documents.

Xerox is a knowledge company that invests large sums in research and development, currently around 8% of company turnover. Xerox is responsible for many innovations that are regarded as standards today – the copying machine, the laser printer, Ethernet, bitmap, the graphic user interface (GUI) etc. In USA there are many research centres, of which the most famous is Palo Alto Research Center (PARC) in Silicon Valley outside San Francisco. The European branch EuroPARC is situated in Grenoble, France. Research centres also exist in England, Canada and Japan.

Xerox has a far-reaching environmental strategy. All new products are produced on the basis of 100% recyclability. “The reverse factory” is a concept which was coined with Xerox’ unique product recycling process as a model. The best example of this is Xerox’ production facilities in Venray, The Netherlands where withdrawn products are taken and the material and components are reused/recycled in the manufacturing of new products.

In 2004 Xerox Sverige AB’s turnover was appr. 750 million Swedish crowns (Xerox Corp. $ 15.7 billion) and employed just over 260 (Xerox Corp. just over 56 300 employees).’

The name, Xerox, is repeated 14 times throughout the text. The name is connected to noun phrases, mostly different forms of företag (‘company’), but also used in the genitive (Xerox affärsidé ‘Xerox’ business idea’) and to identify different corporate levels and divisions (Xerox Sverige, Xerox Corporation). The corporate participant is assigned thirteen roles in the text, six of which are static (e.g. Xerox är ett kunskapsföretag, ‘Xerox is a knowledge company’), four dynamic roles (e.g. Xerox
erbjuder... ‘offers’) and two passive roles (e.g. Xerox grundades... ‘was founded’). The internal audience of employees (anställda) is assigned one role of Scope (sysselsatte drygt 260 anställda, ’employed more than 260 employees’). The text includes neither references nor direct address forms for the external audience.

9.1.4.2 Audience focus
Companies with predominant audience focus combine two or several features that lift the presence of the external audience in text, while simultaneously toning down the role of the company. Pages with an audience focus are thus characterised by an explicit engagement with the audiences (Ivorra Peréz 2014), downplaying corporate authority and giving the audience a voice in discourse (Hoang & Rojas-Lizana 2015). In its most extreme case, the text combines a strong you focus with predominantly dynamic roles for the audience, imperatives that outnumber the declaratives and a presence of both imperatives and interrogatives. In the About Us data, a further extreme feature is the complete absence of company first person pronouns (Symantec). The most extreme case in the Careers data features total absence of company roles in text (American IBM).

In the About Us data, four American pages (3M, EDS, IBM, Symantec) and two Swedish pages (Microsoft, Symantec) belong to this group. Symantec thus display a similar strategy in both language versions. Symantec’s own strategy also involves a total absence of first person references to the company; instead, it refers to itself only by name or noun phrases. The American EDS and 3M About Us pages also show a high number of company name references, which is typical of company information pages (see 9.1.4.1. above).

Ten American Careers pages (CA, CBRE, EDS, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, Ogilvy, Pitney Bowes, Procter&Gamble, TransPerfect) and five Swedish Careers pages (EDS, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, PitneyBowes) belong to this group. Many of these pages combine a you focus, a dynamic audience role and a prominent presence of imperatives or interrogatives. The Careers page of five companies thus follow the same strategy in both language versions; of these, EDS and IBM also display the same strategy on their American About Us page, whereas Microsoft follows the same strategy also on its Swedish About Us page.

The following text example comes from the American Lilly Careers page, which represents an audience focus. The external audience is impersonated in the page heading, highlighted throughout the text with repeated direct references and assigned many dynamic process roles.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What can I expect from a career at Lilly?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No matter where you are in your career, you ask questions. As a new college</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
education can help you make an impact in your first job. As an experienced professional, you want to know how your contributions will positively impact the patient and how you can make a difference by providing the answers that matter. If you’re in sales, you might ask where you can go to do more, get more, and be more.

At Lilly, we have the answers.

We’ll provide the insight to build a fulfilling career with a company that impacts lives every day by delivering solutions to some of the world’s toughest health care issues. Our commitment to meeting the needs of our patients is at the forefront of everything we do and a shared goal among our team members.

We’ve laid the foundation for continued success with a rich pipeline of best-in-class, first-in-class pharmaceutical products, and a collaborative culture that supports people in reaching their greatest potential. You’ll work alongside and learn from a team of top professionals whose diverse perspectives and experiences enable us to provide our patients with the medicines they need to lead longer, healthier lives.

We invite you to explore our opportunities to discover what a career at Lilly has to offer you.

We’re sure you’ll find the answers that matter.

There is a strong focus on second person pronouns in the text, addressing the audience directly. The addressed audiences are identified as college graduates and experienced professionals. In the heading, the audience is also impersonated through a first person singular pronoun in an interrogative. There is another external audience which is identified as patients, but these are not addressed. The you audiences are given a high number of dynamic roles (16), and only a few static and passive roles. While the external audience is indeed very prominent in this page, the company is also present, mostly in the form of first person plural. The company name is used sparingly, to identify the workplace (at Lilly). The corporate participant is assigned seven dynamic roles (e.g. we’ll provide...), two static roles (e.g. we have the answers) and one passive role (enable us). The company is thus present throughout the text, but the spotlight is on the prospective employee. The starting point is the expectations of the audiences, further underlined by the question and the first person pronoun. The middle part of the text describes the company and its activities, and then moves on to placing the audience within these activities. Finally, the audience is directly invited to explore what the company has to offer.

Audience focus is most common in Careers pages, which reflects the nature of that page type: to attract the interest of potential employees. Addressing the desired audience directly while simultaneously toning down the presence of the company serves to persuade prospective job seekers of the company’s interest in them. Giving
the audience plenty of roles in the text might help the readers picture how they would fit into this workplace and what opportunities they have. A you-focus adds a personal feel and can be empowering for the audience. The example above thus illustrates a strong you-attitude (Rodman 2001), stressing the reader’s perspective, as well as straightforward reader benefits (Ewald & Wann 2003). This text also reflects a strong empathy with the audience, as expressed in direct address and questions (Poppi 2013, Isaksson & Jorgensen 2010).

9.1.4.3 Mixed extremes
Pages with a mixed focus combine different strong features in a contradictory way in comparison to the previous two categories. A strong we focus may be combined with predominantly dynamic roles for the audience, or a you focus occurs together with many dynamic company roles. Rather often a we focus or predominantly dynamic company occur together with imperatives and/or interrogatives.

These mixed extremes characterise eight American About Us pages (CA, CBRE, CSC, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Unisys) and eight Swedish About Us Pages (3M, CSC, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Procter&Gamble). The American CSC page is the only one of these that combines a static company in first person with a dynamic audience in second person. The remaining mixed extremes include company focus on first person and/or dynamism and the presence of imperatives or interrogatives. Five About Us pages display similar strategies on their American and Swedish About Us pages.

In the Careers data mixed extremes characterise four American pages (3M, CSC, Unisys, Wyeth) and eight Swedish pages (CA, Hill&Knowlton, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Procter & Gamble, Unisys, Wyeth, Xerox). American 3M combines a you focus with predominantly dynamic company roles, whereas CSC combines a we focus with predominantly dynamic audience roles. American Unisys and Wyeth combine a strong we focus with the presence of imperatives or interrogatives; moreover, the Wyeth text assigns mostly passive roles to the company. All the Swedish Careers pages in this category combine a we focus and/or company dynamism with the presence of imperatives and interrogatives. Unisys and Wyeth display similar strategies in both language versions of their Careers page.

Hill & Knowlton’s American About Us page is here chosen to illustrate the mixed extremes category. The text is characterised by a company focus throughout, expressed in pronominal references and assigned roles. The external audience, however, is strongly present and addressed in a few pronouns and imperatives.

Your Success and Our Brand
There has been a huge increase in complexity, contradiction and uncertainty in all our lives and these magnify arguments in society. Brands, companies,
governments and organizations face a new tougher set of challenges and the need for powerful, compelling communications has never been greater.

But effective communication is harder to achieve because of the increasing fragility of reputation, media fragmentation, audience proliferation and information overload. Now, more than ever, achieving measurable results – real brand and commercial results – demands that communicators meet a higher standard.

So how does Hill & Knowlton do superior quality work, even on the toughest tasks?

We start at an advantage: we have the desire to do so. We are unafraid of taking these tasks on, however difficult. We have a proven track record of doing so and delivering real brand and business outcomes.

We are also able to do so. As a firm we are deliberately structured to meet even the most complex demands by connecting practice skills, sector expertise and geographic reach.

We put in place whatever is needed to help get the end result – your success.

Get in touch
Global contact:
Chief Marketing Officer/Director, Worldwide Netcoms Practice
Tony Burgess-Webb
44 20 7 413 3000
Send an email
Save Outlook contact
Regional contacts:
Asia Pacific
Canada
Europe, Middle East, Africa
United States
Local contacts

The page heading of Hill & Knowlton’s American About Us page brings together the audience and the company by using personal pronouns, but the following text does not immediately explain the participants behind the pronouns in the heading. However, there is an inclusive pronoun our (in all our lives), which makes it possible to interpret the pronouns on a more general level, ‘all of us in this society’. Thus, even if the audiences are not addressed directly in this passage, the inclusive first person pronoun creates a we-community (Fairclough 2010) for both the company and its audiences. The text talks of society in general before moving on to the company, introduced by name in a WH-question and then referred to by first person plural. The question here has a text-organising function, but simultaneously aims to
keep the reader interested. The corporate participant is assigned a mix of dynamic (we start at an advantage) and static roles (e.g. we are unafraid), whereas the audience does not take part in any processes in this part of the text. The personal audience pronoun, in boldface, is repeated in the last sentence (your success), making it stand out in a similar way as the heading. After the main text, the audience is addressed in three imperatives in connection with the contact details. All imperatives represent dynamic roles. This text is thus built around the company and how it can achieve results in today’s complex society, whereas the audience is effectively flashed in two well-placed pronouns in the page heading and the last sentence of the body text, as well as three dynamic imperatives urging the audience to take action based on the contact details given.

This page type can have as its base either a company focus or an audience focus. The most common constellation is a consistent company we focus, combined with the presence of imperatives and/or interrogatives that address the audience directly. For an About Us page, the mixed extremes focus means a strong outreach to the audiences on an otherwise company-oriented page. For Careers pages, the we-focus goes against expectations of an audience-centered text.

9.1.4.4 Balanced focus
The fourth category of texts displays a balance between different features, without extremes. This means that there is a balance between the you and the we focus, between the audience and the company dynamism. Imperatives and/or interrogatives are present, but do not outnumber the declaratives. In the About Us data, this group includes four American pages (Microsoft, PitneyBowes, Procter & Gamble, Xerox) and two Swedish pages (IBM, Lilly). In the Careers data, this group includes four American pages (Marsh, Pfizer, Symantec, Xerox) and six Swedish Careers pages (3M, CBRE, CSC, Marsh, Symantec, TransPerfect). Marsh and Symantec thus display similar strategies in both language versions of their Careers page.

The Careers page text from Marsh Sweden below represents a balanced focus. Characteristics include evenly distributed personal pronoun references both to the company and the external audience, as well as roles assigned to both participants in equal proportions.

Karriär
Vi strävar efter att skapa en arbetsmiljö som stimulerar medarbetarnas utveckling – den personliga och den professionella. Vi erbjuder spännande karriärmöjligheter för både dig som har lång erfarenhet och för dig som är nyutexaminerad.
I samarbete med utbildningen "Kvalificerad yrkesutbildning i försäkring" erbjuder vi en praktikutbildning som omfattar tre terminer. Under utbildningen får
du lära dig Client Support rollen från grunden och prova på att arbeta inom våra olika segment i Marsh. Vi har drivit praktikutbildningen under flera år och har fått ett gott betyg av våra tidigare praktikanter, varav flera idag är anställda inom Marsh.

Om du har kommit lite längre i din karriär kan vi erbjuda andra utvecklingsmöjligheter. Som Client Support får du möjlighet att använda din service- och administrativa begåvning men även att lära dig om försäkringsprodukter och riskhantering. Så småningom kan du även få möjlighet att arbeta mer självständigt med en eller flera kunder.

Med god erfarenhet inom försäkring eller annan relevant bransch och gärna med en akademisk examen kan ditt nästa steg vara att arbeta som Client Advisor eller Client Executive (mäklarroller) inom något av våra segment. Mäklarrollen innebär en utmaning för dig som vill använda riskhantering och försäkringskompetens i kombination med en säljande och analytisk förmåga. Vi strävar efter att erbjuda våra kunder den bästa kompetensen i branschen.

Vi kan med stolthet säga att vi är en del av världens främsta koncern inom denna bransch. Detta innebär att du som medarbetare har spännande möjligheter att bygga din karriär även utanför Sveriges gränser.

Lediga tjänster
Vi strävar efter att rekrytera, utveckla och värna om de medarbetare som har den kompetens och egenskaper som gör att vi kan nå våra verksamhetsmål.

Vid rekrytering lägger vi vikt på vårt behov av kompetens, idag och i framtiden.

År du intresserad av att arbeta hos oss? Skicka gärna in ditt CV till vår HR-avdelning.

Marsh AB
Att: Anna Witt
Klara Norra Kyrkogata 29
111 22 Stockholm
E-post

‘Careers’

We strive to create a working environment that stimulated the co-workers’ development – both the personal and the professional. We offer exciting careers opportunities for you who have a long experience and for you who recently graduated.

In cooperation with the training ‘Qualified vocational training in insurance’ we offer a training covering three terms. During the training period you will learn the Client Support role from the basics and try working within our different segments at Marsh. We have run the training for several years and have received good feedback from previous trainees, many of which today are employed by Marsh.

If you’ve come a bit further in your career, we can offer you other development opportunities. As Client Support you get the opportunity to use your service and
administrative talent, but also learn about insurance products and risk management. Gradually you might also get the opportunity to work more independently with one or several clients.

With a good experience from insurances or another relevant industry, and preferably an academic degree, your next step might be to work as a Client Advisor or Client Executive (broker roles) in one of our segments. The broker role provides a challenge for you who want to use risk management and insurance competence in combination with a selling and analytical ability. We strive to offer our clients the best competence in the industry.

With pride we can say that we form part of the world’s number one corporation in this industry. This means that you, as a co-worker, have exciting possibilities of building your careers outside the Swedish borders, too.

Open positions

We strive to recruit, develop and take care of co-workers who have the competence and qualities that enable us to reach the goals of our operations.

When recruiting we stress our need for competence, today and in the future.

Are you interested in working with us? Please send your CV to our HR division.

Marsh AB
Att: Anna Witt
Klara Norra Kyrkogata 29
111 22 Stockholm
E-mail

The references to the company include 18 instances of first person plural and a few instances of the company name or another noun phrase. This we-focus is countered with 15 direct references to the audiences via second person. The internal audience of medarbetare (‘co-workers’) is also mentioned. The company is assigned a total of 14 roles in the text, 12 of which are dynamic (e.g. vi erbjuder spännande karriärmöjligheter ‘we offer exciting career opportunities’). The external audience is assigned 17 roles, 10 of which are dynamic (e.g. skicka gärna in ditt CV ‘please send us your CV’). Both main participants are thus portrayed as equally dynamic on this page. Added to these there is the internal audience of the employees, which are assigned a total of four roles. The text ends with an interrogative and an imperative, both addressing the audience.

Pages with a balanced focus include both main participants regardless of page genre, creating a dynamic textual space for both the page producers and consumers. The dynamism is evenly distributed and the participants are both present in the form of personal pronouns, producing an involved, close form of interaction in text.
Table 9.1: Web page distribution across profile types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Company focus</th>
<th>Audience focus</th>
<th>Mixed extremes</th>
<th>Balanced focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Am. ABOUT US</td>
<td>Lilly, Marsh, TransPerfect, Wyeth</td>
<td>3M, EDS, IBM, Symantec</td>
<td>CA, EDS, IBM, Symantec</td>
<td>Microsoft, PitneyBowes, Procter&amp;Gamble, Xerox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sw. ABOUT US</td>
<td>CA, CBRE, Marsh, PitneyBowes, TransPerfect, Unisys, Wyeth, Xerox</td>
<td>Microsoft, Symantec</td>
<td>3M, CSC, EDS, Hill&amp;Knowlton, Hudson, Ogilvy, Pfizer, Unisys</td>
<td>IBM, Lilly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Am. CAREERS</th>
<th>Sw. CAREERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>About Us total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Us</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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9.2 Hyperlinks as interactive devices

In this thesis, the hyperlinks are approached from two different perspectives. Firstly, the pages are assigned link profile types based on the same dimensions as for the traditional text. This means that the link labels are treated as text and described in terms of the linguistic signs of interaction they demonstrate. Secondly, the hyperlinks are categorised according to what primary function they have on a page. The functional categories represent the role that the link plays on a page and how this role affects the dynamism and agency of the two main page participants, the company and the audience.

9.2.1 Dimensions

Applying the same dimensions as above in 9.1, similar profiles arise. However, since two of the dimensions apply only to hyperlinks in the form of clauses, many links fall outside this categorisation. Nevertheless, the displayed features still serve to describe the pages. In the American About Us data eight pages have an audience focus (CA, EDS, Lilly, Microsoft, Procter&Gamble, Symantec, Wyeth and Xerox). Pfizer and Unisys display a company focus, whereas CSC and Hudson belong in the mixed extremes category. 3M, CBRE, Hill&Knowlton, IBM, Marsh, Ogilvy, PitneyBowes and TransPerfect represent a balanced focus. In the Swedish About Us data, CA, Symantec and Wyeth represent the audience focus, whereas IBM, Unisys and Xerox keep a company focus. CSC, Ogilvy, PitneyBowes and Transperfect have mixed extremes. 3M, CBRE, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Lilly, Marsh, Microsoft, Pfizer, Procter&Gamble represent a balanced focus.

Based on the hyperlink label features, the most common profiles in the American About Us data are the audience focus and the balanced focus with eight pages each. In the Swedish data, half of the pages display a balanced focus. Compared to the textual About Us profiles, the outcome is rather different, as more than half of the pages seem to shift focus between their traditional text and the non-linear hypertext. Whereas American EDS, Symantec, CSC, Hudson and Pitney Bowes display similar profiles for text and hypertext, the rest of the pages change their interaction profiles slightly or dramatically. CBRE, Hill & Knowlton and Ogilvy move between the categories of mixed extremes and balanced focus. However, four companies shift towards a balanced focus from either company focus (Marsh and TransPerfect) or from an audience focus (3M and IBM). Some companies move in the opposite direction, so that a balanced interaction tilts towards either company focus (Pfizer, Unisys) or audience focus (CA, Microsoft, Procter & Gamble, Xerox). Finally, American Lilly and Wyeth move from a textual company focus to a hypertextual audience focus.
The Swedish About Us data displays similar shifts of focus between text and hypertext. Unisys, Xerox, Symantec, CSC, Ogilvy and Lilly display the same profiles for text and hypertext, whereas 3M, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Pfizer and Procter&Gamble all move slightly between the categories of balanced focus and mixed extremes. CBRE, Marsh, PitneyBowes, TransPerfect move from a company focus to either mixed extremes or balanced focus. Microsoft shifts from an audience focus to a balanced focus. IBM moves in the other direction, from a balanced focus to a company focus. Finally, CA and Wyeth shifts from a company focus in text to an audience focus in hypertext.

When comparing language versions, most companies thus behave differently on their American and their Swedish About Us pages. A few companies display exactly the same strategies on their American and Swedish pages: Wyeth is company oriented in text but audience oriented in hypertext, whereas Symantec keeps its audience orientation throughout. Marsh and TransPerfect have a company focus in text and a balanced focus in hyperlinks, whereas finally CSC has a mixed extremes profile throughout.

In the American Careers data, only Ogilvy show a company focus in its links. Six pages (CA, CSC, IBM, Pfizer, Lilly, Microsoft) represent an audience focus. Lilly and Microsoft, however, contain no other signs of linguistic link interaction than imperative structures. 3M, CBRE, Hill&Knowlton, Hudson, Procter&Gamble, Symantec, TransPerfect represent mixed extremes, whereas EDS, Marsh, PitneyBowes, Unisys, Wyeth, Xerox represent a balanced focus. In the Swedish Careers data, Ogilvy has a company focus in its links, whereas IBM, Lilly, Xerox and CA display an audience focus. More than half of the pages (3M, CBRE, CSC, Hudson, Marsh, PitneyBowes, Procter&Gamble, Symantec, TransPerfect, Unisys, Wyeth) have links that land them in the mixed extremes category. Finally, EDS, Hill&Knowlton, Microsoft and Pfizer display a balanced interaction focus in their hyperlinks.

The American Careers pages of CA, IBM, Lilly, Microsoft, 3M, Marsh and Xerox all display the same interaction profile for both text and hypertext. The rest of the pages shift focus between text and hypertext. Symantec, Unisys and Wyeth shift between the mixed extremes and the balanced focus categories, whereas Hill & Knowlton and Hudson go from a company focused text to mixed extremes in their hyperlinks. CBRE, EDS, Pitney Bowes, Procter&Gamble, TransPerfect all move from an audience-centered text to mixed extremes or a balanced focus in their hyperlinks. CSC and Pfizer shift in the opposite direction, from a balanced interaction in text to audience focus in links. Ogilvy shifts from audience focus in text to company focus in hyperlinks.
The Swedish Careers data display five companies (IBM, Lilly, Procter&Gamble, Unisys and Wyeth) with similar profiles in both text and hyperlinks. The remaining pages all change their focus. Eight pages move only within mixed extremes and balanced focus. EDS, Microsoft and Pitney Bowes shift from audience focus in text to a balanced interaction in hyperlinks, whereas CA and Xerox go in the opposite direction. Hudson moves from company focus to mixed extremes, and Ogilvy moves in exactly the opposite direction.

When contrasting language versions, most Careers pages change their focus. Only IBM and Lilly hold on to their audience focus throughout, and the American and Swedish pages of Hudson, EDS and Symantec show similar strategies of change when moving from text to hyperlinks.

9.2.2 Functions

From a functional perspective, all hyperlinks rest on the assumption that the users will click them. The possibility is there, but the activity or lack of it is shaped by the user. At the same time, the offered alternatives are always determined by the issuing authority, i.e. the company, and the user has no way of easily accessing corporate information for which there is no link. Whereas some hyperlinks serve mainly to provide information (enhancing, exemplifying), others reinforce corporate credibility (authorising) or provide a third party perspective on the company (commenting). The referencing/citing type gives the floor to external actors, whereas the mode-changing links invite the user to switch between different kinds of activity. Finally, the self-selecting links are a means for the user to shape their own website experience.

The link functions can be separated from each other in terms of whether they predominantly display a corporate, informative or audience-oriented approach. The scale of different approaches is visualised in Figure 9.4 below. From a user perspective, the self-selecting links give the greatest freedom within the pre-defined context of hyperlinks (farthest right on the scale). This type of link allows the user to choose what to see on a page in accordance with pre-set preferences such as for instance language, location, line of products or type of consumer. The self-selecting link type is the most audience-oriented link function and a page with a high proportion of self-selecting links thus gives the consumer a greater choice of content. The mode-changing links offer the user a dynamic experience in terms of switching between different modes and activities. Even if the content cannot be customised via these links, they give the audience the opportunity to participate in different activities and they are therefore more audience-oriented than the merely informative link types (enhancing and exemplifying). The commenting and referencing/citing types are the closest to an external perspective, thus offering the users information.
that possibly comes from outside the corporate website, both physically and control-wise. These two types are categorised as informative links. The authorising link type, finally, with its legal and other legitimising content lies close to the company (to the left on the scale).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corporate approach</th>
<th>Informative approach</th>
<th>Audience approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>authorising</td>
<td>enhancing</td>
<td>self-selecting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exemplifying</td>
<td>commenting</td>
<td>mode-changing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referencing/citing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 9.4: Distribution of link functions according to participant orientation

The general pattern for the About Us pages includes authorising, commenting, enhancing and self-selecting links, whereas the rest of the link types are optional. This means that most of the investigated About Us pages rely on company-centred, informative approach, while also providing the audience with some choice. In the American data, most pages also provide at least one mode-changing link, whereas they are notably fewer in the Swedish data. The Careers data include the same main functions as a rule, with the addition of the mode-changing link. As a rule, the authorising and enhancing links are always present on the pages in both sets of data, whereas the other very common types include some exceptions.

Fifteen of the American About Us pages focus on the authorising links, sometimes in combination with the informative enhancing link. One page is dominated by the enhancing link function (Xerox), whereas three companies (Symantec, Transperfect and Unisys) show a balance between the three categories of authorising, enhancing and self-selecting. The page of Marsh displays the highest frequency for the self-selecting links, whereas that of Ogilvy lacks self-selecting links completely. In the Swedish About Us data, 15 companies focus on the authorising and the enhancing link types, in some cases with an addition of exemplifying links. There is a slight shift towards higher frequencies among informative links when compared to the American data. Four company pages display a balance between authorising, enhancing and self-selecting links (CA, CBRE, Marsh, Symantec), whereas Lilly and Ogilvy lack the self-selecting links completely.

In the American Careers data, 17 pages focus on the informative link functions (enhancing and exemplifying), sometimes together with the authorising link function. Compared to the About Us data, the Careers data show a higher preference for the informative link functions. The self-selecting links are often equally frequent as the authorising and/or the informative links. Seven pages with a dominance of informative links (3M, CBRE, CSC, IBM, Pfizer, TransPerfect and Xerox) also show
a balance between the authorising and self-selecting links. Symantec displays a balance between authorising, enhancing and self-selecting links, whereas Microsoft shows a clear dominance for the self-selecting links. Ogilvy offers no self-selecting links at all. None of the American Careers pages show a dominance in the authorising link category, instead this function is often balanced against either the informative links, or the mode-changing links.

The Swedish Careers data is also characterised by the informative links (enhancing and exemplifying), but the cases with a balanced distribution between company focus, information focus and audience focus are more common (3M, CBRE, Hudson, Marsh, Microsoft, Symantec). CSC and Pfizer show a balance between authorising and self-selecting links, while still displaying a informative link dominance. Lilly and Ogilvy offer no self-selective links at all. None of the Swedish Careers pages show a self-selecting link dominance.

Compared to the textual and hypertextual profiles, the link functions project a different picture of the interaction on corporate web pages. Whereas the About Us data exhibit a variation of textual profiles, both the American and the Swedish About Us pages are dominated by links that authenticate the company and its legal status, that is authorising links. In fact, three fourths of the About Us pages explicit a company-focused link profile, which pulls the majority of About Us pages closer to an overall company focus, irrespective of the textual and hypertextual profiles of those pages. A few pages show a balance between the corporate, the audience and the informative approaches, with authorising, enhancing and self-selecting links in equal proportions. Only one About Us page, that of American Marsh, displays an audience-oriented approach. When the results of the textual dimensions in text and hyperlinks and the hyperlink functions are compared, there are two Swedish About Us pages which keep a company profile throughout: Unisys and Microsoft. All other About Us pages show diverging patterns for the textual and hypertextual profiles.

The links on the Careers pages, again, move away from the corporate approach but instead exhibit functions that are mainly informative, through enhancing and exemplifying links. There is thus no shift towards the audience visible through the links functions. A balanced distribution of authorising, enhancing and self-selecting links is also common in the Careers data. One page, that of American Xerox, keeps a balanced profile in all dimensions of text and hypertext. One single page, American Microsoft Careers, displays an audience focus in its link functions. This focus is present in all investigated aspects of text and hypertext.
9.3 Participant interaction on web pages

After the above presentation of the dimensions and profiles a discussion of how interaction is accomplished is in order. Figure 1.1, reproduced below for convenience, displays three different levels of interaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>‘THE COMPANY’</th>
<th>‘THE AUDIENCES’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The company, as projected in text</td>
<td>The audiences, as projected in text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real authors of website discourse</td>
<td>Website users</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1.1: Three dimensions of participants and interaction (cf. also section 1.2.2)

The first level, the real authors and users, lie beyond the scope of this study. The concern of this project is with the second level, that of projected participants and projected interaction. Through the three dimensions, different types of projection in discourse have been studied, leading up to the profiles. The three dimensions and their features reflect the projected company and audience in text from three different perspectives: the lexical representations, the transitivity roles and the speech roles. Dimensions 1-3 thus exist on level two, whereas the combination of the dimensions into profiles leads to the abstract third level.

The profile *company focus* conveys an interaction that stays very close to the corporate party, with little or no invitations towards the external audience. The corporate rhetoric retains full control of both the content and the dialogue and silences the audiences. The main goal is to inform, in a detached and formal way. This profile is most common among the About Us pages, more specifically the Swedish ones. On Careers pages it is extremely rare. This distinction reflects the general functions of the About Us and Careers pages, but also the intended audience of the two web page genres. Whereas About Us targets a wide and diverse audience, consisting of several groups of stakeholders, Careers has one main audience in focus. In addressing a wide audience, many companies prefer to keep a very professional tone, without personalising the message, as in official financial statements and reports. This adds to corporate credibility. Moreover, the aim of the About Us page is not to elicit a response in the real readers, at least not explicitly. The Careers sites,
on the other hand, calls for a more direct and personal address, in order to elicit either a verbal or a physical response from prospective job candidates.

**Audience focus** moves the interaction away from the company, towards the external audience. Here, the interaction is audience-driven in the sense that it stresses the dynamism of the reader, both in the projected roles and in the speech roles. On the abstract level, the interaction happens close to the audiences, and is dependent on the audience responses in order to be successful. Even if the company still retains real control over the content and actions, the projected interaction gives the audience a lot of control. Audience focus is most common in the Careers data, most notably the American pages, which reflects the function of that genre. Here, the companies seem to aim for credibility through creating a relationship with the audience, while simultaneously trying to elicit both verbal and physical responses from good candidates. This profile type lies the closest to advertising, with its direct address, imperatives and interrogatives and synthetic personalisation of both the company and the audience.

The **mixed extremes** profile is contradictory in comparison to the previous two categories. Extremes from both foci are combined, which may create an uneven rhetoric, as if the company could not decide which way to lean. However, on the whole this strategy creates a balanced interaction, with extreme features that complement each other. This profile is common in both the About Us and the Careers data, with an exception for American Careers. The feature distribution in the About Us data often point to a text with company focus on dimensions 1 and 2, whereas dimension 3 (speech roles) is different. This reflects a text with a predominant company focus, which is interrupted by the occasional imperative or interrogative. In the Swedish Careers data, the contradictions within text are more overt, with dimensions 1 and 2 displaying different foci. Again, the genre functions provide clues: The About Us pages follow a corporate focus style, which is then, in controlled places, interrupted by speech roles that invite the audience to take part in a dialogue. The Careers pages allow larger variation in focus, as an interaction flowing from one extreme to the other is more personalised and aims at constructing relationships.

Finally, a **balanced focus** gives the two participants equal presence from the start. The focus is carefully weighted on all dimensions, creating a consistent rhetoric. The interaction takes place midway between the participants without swaying in either direction. This profile is as common as the company focus profile, and occurs in both data sets, but is found slightly more often in the Careers data. This kind of interaction seems to be the ideal, as it gives an equal amount of space to both projected participants without extreme synthetic personalisation. The control is still
with the company, but the discourse lifts the audience into an equal position on the investigated dimensions.

Apart from the features included in the dimensions and profiles, a few other traits deserve to be mentioned. The company brand, or name reference, has already been discussed above, as it proved to be a salient feature especially on About Us pages, irrespective of the page profile. The name is salient also on some Careers pages, most notably in the American data. In a few cases the name salience seems to reflect a corporate strategy that overrides the page genre, as for example both American pages for Pfizer and Wyeth display a strong, repetitive name presence. In general, the name salience is a lot weaker in the Careers data than in the About Us data, a result which reflects the functions of informing, presenting, promoting and adding credibility to the corporate image on the About Us page. There are also a few pages that mention the company name only once or twice in both page genres; these texts rely on personal pronouns and noun phrases instead for referring to the participants.

The companies investigated in this study prefer to refer to themselves by first person plural both on the About Us pages and the Careers pages. The fact that this is the most common type of reference both on the American and the Swedish pages suggests a common stylistic feature in this type of discourse. By referring to themselves as we, the companies are stressing the fact that they consist of a group of people. Both data sets show a higher frequency of possessive determiners in the American text, whereas the Swedish texts rely more on the subjective form. The possessive determiners can be seen as supporting the marked brand repetition pattern which is also found in the American data, although in a more subtle fashion. Through the determiner, the brand features affect many noun phrases which otherwise would be more autonomous. The brand itself can also be used as a determiner. The determiners thus have a filtering function (Caiazzo 2013) and serve to alter the accompanying nouns in ways that underline the positive qualities of the company.

Noun phrases are, of course, also used to refer to both the company and the audience. In the About Us data, it is more common to use abstract noun phrases for both the company and the audience, whereas in the Careers data, the human noun phrases are more common. This can be interpreted as a reflection of the page functions: many About Us pages favour a professional, distanced style on the abstract corporate level, without too many mentions of the human actors behind the abstractions. The human content of the company is instead reflected in the use of first person plural. However, the Careers pages build a more personalised experience and therefore need to identify the human component behind the noun phrases to a higher extent.
Finally, the role of the internal audience in the two corpora differs. The internal audience refers to the current employees of the company, and they are also one of the target audiences of both the About Us pages and the Careers pages. Their presence in the discourse is therefore to be expected. Yet, many About Us pages assign no roles at all to the internal audience, even if they form part of the company as its employees. This tendency is especially strong in the American About Us data. Only a few of the About Us pages provide login links to exclusive employee contents. In the Careers data, the employees mostly play some role in the texts, including dynamic roles.

Applying the textual dimensions to the hyperlink data proved to exclude many links that take the form of single words or clause fragments, as these cannot be analysed in terms of speech function and roles. However, the reference dimension is applicable. The textual profiles of the hyperlinks are very diverse and for the most part they diverge from the profiles compiled on the basis of traditional text only. Even if the divergence happens in many different directions, in general, the hyperlink dimensions complement and balance the interaction level expressed by the text. In a few cases however, the hyperlink dimensions serve to strengthen the textual profiles.

The hyperlink functions, too, often diverge from the textual profiles. Here, however, the pattern is more unifying, so that the About Us links lean towards the corporate approach whereas the Careers links focus on the informative approach. A balanced approach is also present in some About Us pages, and nearly half of the Careers pages. Since all hyperlinks can be categorised in terms of the rhetorical link functions scheme, the functions provide a more extensive picture of the interaction focus than the dimensions (which exclude around 60% of the About Us links and about 70% of the Careers links). Based on the link functions of the investigated data, the About Us pages favour a company focus, whereas the Careers pages provide mainly informative links, but also display a greater interactional balance than the About Us pages between the corporate, informative and audience approaches.

9.4 Aims and research questions revisited

This thesis set out to investigate and account for similarities and differences in the interaction strategies on American and Swedish websites of the same company. The aims were to (i) examine how companies construct themselves and their audiences on their websites, (ii) compare how the constructed roles and resulting interaction change between two different language versions of the same website, (iii) investigate how the roles and interaction differ between pages addressing a general audience and pages addressing a specific audience, and (iii) construct textual interaction profiles based on the findings. The survey conducted among representatives of the
companies investigated in this study revealed that many companies produce the Swedish pages locally, according to company guidelines. The result can therefore be either texts that are produced completely independently, texts that are translated from the English pages, or a mix of the two approaches.

The importance of the medium, along with a designated section of the company that is responsible for message consistency, seem to support an idea of a single corporate culture being reflected in all corporate communication, including other markets than the American. Even if the Swedish pages are locally produced, they are greatly affected by the American otherwise international content. However, since communicative strategies exist on different textual levels, a tendency to favour the corporate culture is not necessarily transferred to all levels of the Swedish contents, resulting in variation.

According to the survey answers, the About Us and Careers pages are designed for and meant to address different audiences, so that the About section aims for a wider and more varied group of users, whereas the Careers section mainly targets people interested in employment. The first and second research question, which reflect the first and second aim, set out to investigate the similarities and differences between the American and the Swedish websites as concerns representations of and projected interaction between the two main participants:

1. How do the companies project themselves and their audiences in text and hypertext?
2. What similarities and differences in projected interaction can be traced between the American and Swedish websites?

The analyses demonstrate that the similarities are, in fact, greater than the differences between the language versions. The companies prefer to refer to themselves by first person plural and name in both language versions. The audience is referred to by noun phrases in the About Us data and by second person in the Careers data. The differences thus occur between the two genres of web pages and not between the language versions per se (which was the case in e.g. Salvi, Turnbull & Montecilli 2007 and Ivorra Perez 2014 & 2015). The trend is similar for the assigned participant roles. The companies assign the majority of roles to themselves in the About Us data, whereas the distribution between company roles and external audience roles is more even in the Careers data. The company is typically portrayed as dynamic (half of the occurrences) or static (one third) both in the About Us and in the Careers data, irrespective of language. The audience is mostly dynamic in all types of web pages; however, the static and passive roles are more common in the Careers data than in the About Us data. Finally, the speech functions are rather
similar across the page data. The most common speech function is the statement, followed by commands and a small category of questions. Commands are somewhat more common in the American data than in the Swedish data. Instead, the statements are more common in the Swedish data.

As the investigated features are combined, the interaction profiles shed light on the interaction strategies of the individual pages. The biggest profile category for the About Us pages is the mixed extremes, where extreme occurrences of features from opposite foci complement each other. The Careers pages mostly land in the category of audience focus. However, there are differences between the language versions within the Careers and About Us data sets. Swedish About Us pages with a company focus are equally common as the mixed extremes focus. In the Careers data, there are more American Careers pages with an audience focus than with a mixed extremes focus. A look at the individual company pages and their distribution across the categories reveal that the two language versions of the same corporate page often have the same interaction profile. This happens both for the About Us pages and the Careers pages. Sometimes, these two pages are complemented by a third page by the same company, with the fourth and final page in a different category. A couple of page pairs are formed instead between the companies’ About Us and Careers pages in the same language, but this is rare. Some twenty pages are completely scattered across the categories.

The results from the two separate analyses show that hyperlinks often work independently of the textual interaction. In some cases the hyperlinks serve to strengthen an interaction profile created on text, but in most cases they balance or complement the textual interaction. The results are rather diverse and do not form a clear trend; however, this is probably due to the fact that the textual dimension analysis only includes part of the link data. The link function analysis, which includes the entire hyperlink data, shows more consistent trends. Links on the About Us pages favour a corporate approach, with only few invitations to the external audience. This means that pages with an already strong company profile in text receive further corporate emphasis from the links. By contrast, About Us pages with an audience or mixed profile in text are balanced or complemented by a corporate approach in the links. In the Careers data, most pages are dominated by informative link functions, which means that pages with an audience or mixed interaction profile in text are pushed more in the informative direction by the links. Many Careers pages also display a balance between the different link functions, which adds further balance to the textual interaction profiles. The hyperlinks thus sometimes strengthen the textual interaction profiles of the pages, but more often complement or balance the textual interaction.
The third and final research question sought to uncover and describe the differences in interaction strategies between the About Us and the Careers data:

3. What differences in interaction are there between pages addressing a general and a specific audience?

As already described above, the differences between the page types indeed proved to be larger than the differences between the language versions. Whereas the corporate self-references are similar throughout the data, with a focus on first person plural and company name, the references to the external audience vary. On the About Us pages, the audience is mostly portrayed in noun phrases, whereas second person references (including imperatives) are used in the Careers data. A similar difference can be observed concerning participant roles: the corporate roles stay the same throughout the data (dynamic and static), whereas the audience roles become more varied on the Careers pages. The majority of roles are ascribed to the company on the About Us pages, whereas Careers pages show a more even distribution of roles across the company and the external audience. Finally, the distribution of speech functions is rather similar across the two page type corpora. Statements, realised by declaratives, are the most common. Commands in the form of imperatives account for roughly one tenth of the clauses, slightly more in the American data and slightly less in the Swedish data. Questions are rare in both page types, but they have a greater distribution across the pages in the Careers data, so that half of the Careers pages include at least one question.

The differences between the page types that were found in this study lend support to the claim that About Us and Careers are, indeed, different web genres within the genre system of the corporate website. While the corporate participant remains the same, the target audiences vary between the two genres, which is reflected in different communicative strategies in the page discourse. The function of corporate websites is both to inform and persuade (Harrison 2002), resulting in a language that combines traits of objective factual discourse and persuasive advertising discourse. While the About Us section serves to inform and persuade a wide, heterogeneous audience of the company’s good qualities, the Careers section addresses prospective employees and tries to attract good candidates.

This study sought to answer the research questions via an eclectic approach, combining concepts from different disciplines into a framework for analysing interaction in writing. The common denominator for the textual analysis was systemic-functional grammar (Halliday 1994, Halliday & Matthiessen 2004), with the metafunctions of language as guidelines. The experiential metafunction reflects our experience of the world around us, and the system of transitivity proved to be
fruitful for decoding the roles of the participants in web page texts. By further refining and adding to Hasan’s and Thompson’s scale of dynamism, a model for assessing the dynamism of the projected participants on corporate web pages was presented. While the scale as such serves to show dynamic, static and passive roles in discourse, the instigating force of the imperatives falls outside the scale. Whereas the imperatives directed at the audience project the audience participants as active and dynamic, the ultimate power still lies with the projected company participant, who issues the command. The mood component within the interpersonal metafunction thus reflects the company in the role of issuing commands, asking questions and offering information in statements.

The lexical participant references, which belong primarily to the experiential component of language within SFG, take on an interpersonal meaning in this thesis. Influences from rhetoric, metadiscourse and pragmatics invest the references with dialogic properties. Within rhetoric, the references to the company and their audiences signal empathy and engagement with the readers (Poppi 2013). Within metadiscourse, reader pronouns and self-mention, among other features, serve to build a relationship between the writer and the reader (Hyland 2014). As a persuasive tool, reader engagement is also a means of co-creating values with the audiences (Suau-Jiménez 2017), which can be reflected in economic value for the companies. And within pragmatics, different forms of participant reference in text can signal involvement with or detachment from the audience.

The textual metafunction in this thesis is mainly exemplified in the hyperlinks, since they have a text-organising function on corporate websites (see also Pollach 2003). Harrison’s (2002) classification scheme for the rhetorical function of links proved useful for analysis to a certain extent, but the double, or triple functions of the investigated hyperlinks created classification problems since it was often difficult to determine one single main function of a link. Harrison’s model might be useful on its own when discussing the meanings and rhetorical functions of hyperlinks, but matched the other analytic tools only partly. The division into corporate, informative and audience approaches helped to combine the hyperlink categories with the rest of the dimensions, but resulted in an uneven distribution of the link types along the continuum. Furthermore, the category of enhancing links is far too big and vague to be useful in analysis.
10 CONCLUSION

The digital media landscape of today is characterised, among other things, by hybridity and convergence of channels. Written and spoken interactions co-exist, but the corporate websites are still dominated by the written word. With the rise of social media platforms, an increasing number of companies are today communicating directly with their audiences through for instance corporate blogs or social media platforms such as Twitter and Facebook. The corporate website often accommodates several different media, but a lot of the information is still packaged in the form of verbal text and hyperlinks. Companies thus continue to project both themselves and their audiences into text and hypertext in different ways.

The present thesis set out to investigate strategies of interaction on corporate websites. The data chosen for the study allowed for a contrast between two language versions of a corporate site, as well as two genres of web pages. The focus throughout the thesis has thus been on linguistic cues of interaction on the American and Swedish About Us and Careers pages of 20 US-based companies. The starting point of this journey of investigation was a set of research questions about the interaction strategies, reflecting the aims of the thesis. The first aim was to examine how the companies portray themselves and their audience in text and hypertext, whereas the second aim set out to compare the results between the two language versions of the websites. The third aim was to investigate how roles and interaction vary between pages for a general and a specific audience, and the fourth aim was to construct textual interaction profiles based on the findings. The focus regarding type of data was twofold as interaction in both linear text and hypertext was investigated.

The theoretical framework chosen for the study relies on functional approaches to language, with special focus on the experiential and the interpersonal functions of language. Added to this approach are insights from rhetoric, pragmatics, discourse analysis and literary theory. Opting for such an eclectic perspective made it possible to include many fruitful terms and concepts that serve to account for the findings. As the data itself represents a form of business discourse with a marketing function, targeting different cultures, insights from studies within marketing, branding, corporate identity and cultural studies were also relevant for this investigation.

The theoretical approaches were combined in a three-fold analytical framework, based on Halliday’s three metafunctions of language. Both the linear and the non-linear text were analysed in terms of participant references and transitivity roles (experiential component), as well as speech functions (interpersonal component). In addition, the hyperlinks were analysed in terms of rhetorical function (textual component). The outcome of these methods was a model for corporate interaction profiles for the investigated company pages.
10.1 Summary

Interaction on web pages, as outlined in this study, can be said to take place on three different levels. The real-world level is where the real authors and website users dwell, and that level is beyond the immediate scope of this study. The second level represents the company and its audiences as they are projected in text and hypertext. By investigating this second level of representation, the abstract third level of ‘the company’ and ‘the audiences’ were established for the data analysed in the present thesis.

The study set out to explore interaction on corporate websites with four aims: i) to examine how companies construct themselves and their audiences on their websites, ii) to compare how the constructed roles and resulting interaction change between two different language versions of the same site, iii) to investigate how the roles and interaction differ between pages addressing a general audience and pages addressing a specific audience, and iii) to construct textual interaction profiles based on the findings. Connected to these aims were three research questions, based on aims i)-iii).

The first aim was accomplished by analysing the lexical representations of participants and their transitivity roles, as well as speech functions present in the data. These elements were analysed in terms of three dimensions. Within the first dimension of participant reference, the lexical representations range from the involved first person pronouns over second and third person pronouns, and names to noun phrases. In linear text, the companies prefer to refer to themselves either by first person plural or the corporate name, and this trend remains unchanged throughout the data. The audiences are referred to by mostly using noun phrases and second person pronouns, including the implicit subjects of commands (‘you’). Whereas the noun phrases are more common in the About Us data, the second person references are most common on the Careers pages. Within the second dimension, the transitivity roles range from dynamic over static to passive roles. The roles assigned to the company are dynamic in half of the cases, and static in one third. The audiences are typically portrayed as dynamic throughout; however, the external audience is more dynamic in the About Us data than in the Careers data. On the whole, the companies assign more roles to themselves than to their audiences; this result is, however, subject to variation between page types. Finally, the third dimension of speech functions has statements at its core, with a small portion of commands and questions around it. Statements form the predominant category.

The second aim was to contrast the two language versions in terms of projected interaction. The findings show that the similarities in linear text are greater than the differences between the American and the Swedish pages. The companies prefer to
refer to themselves by first person plural and name in both language versions. The audience is referred to by noun phrases in the About Us data and by second person in the Careers data. The differences thus occur between the two genres of web pages and not between the language versions per se. The trends are similar for the assigned transitivity roles, with minor differences. Both the company and the external audience are mostly assigned dynamic roles on the American and Swedish About Us and Careers pages. The external audience is assigned more varied roles in the American About Us data, whereas the small category of internal audience is portrayed in more dynamic terms on the Swedish About Us pages. In the Careers data, the internal audience is also primarily passive on the American Careers pages, and mostly active on the Swedish Careers pages. Finally, the speech functions are rather similar across the page data. The most dominant speech function is the statement, followed by commands and a small category of questions. Commands are somewhat more common in the American data than in the Swedish data. Instead, the statements are more common in the Swedish data.

All in all, there are small differences on a general level and some greater differences at the individual company level but there are no differing trends to be found when contrasting the American and the Swedish data. In terms of interaction strategies defined through the three dimensions investigated in this thesis, the interaction strategies in the two language versions of the two page types are rather similar.

In order to meet the third aim, the two page types About Us and Careers were compared in terms of projected roles and projected interaction in linear text. Whereas the corporate self-references remain similar on both pages, the audience references change. In the About Us data, the audiences are mostly referred to using noun phrases, whereas the audiences in the Careers page texts mostly occur in the form of second person pronouns and imperatives. Similar differences can be observed concerning the transitivity roles projected in text. The corporate roles are rather similar on both page types, being dynamic in half of the cases and static in one third. The companies also assign the majority of all roles to themselves in the About Us data, whereas the distribution of roles on the company and the audiences is more even in the Careers data. The audience, when present, is mostly portrayed as dynamic in both page types. The audiences are given more roles in the Careers data than in the About Us data, but, somewhat unexpectedly, the static and passive roles are more common in the Careers data. Finally, the speech functions are rather similar across both page type data.

All in all, the pages aimed at a specific audience show a somewhat higher level of interaction than those aimed at a general and diverse audience. Firstly, the fact that the audience is addressed more directly in the Careers data that in the About Us data
reflects a higher level of interaction in the Careers data. Secondly, as the company allows for greater audience participation through assigned roles in the Careers data, the pages aimed at a specific rather than a general audience do indeed project higher levels of interaction between the two main participants in text. The key difference is thus what role the audiences are allowed to play in the data, reflected in the direct references (the first dimension) and the projected roles (the second dimension).

The hyperlink data on the investigated pages were examined with focus on the same aims as with linear text. The analyses were partly overlapping since hyperlinks also occur as part of linear text. The hyperlinks were analysed, firstly, according to their rhetorical functions, with three main foci: the company, the audience and information. Secondly, the three dimensions for linear text were also applied to the hyperlink labels.

The first aim was accomplished by studying how the companies construct themselves and their audience in hyperlinks. The rhetorical analysis revealed that rhetorical functions with an informative approach dominate throughout the data, including roughly half of the hyperlinks. The corporate approach is more in focus on the About Us page, whereas the audience approach is adopted on the Careers pages. On the first dimension the companies mostly refer to themselves by name in both the About Us and Careers pages. The external audience is mostly addressed through imperatives (largest category) and, on the About Us pages, also noun phrases. On the second dimension, the roles of the company in hyperlinks are mostly passive, whereas the audience roles are primarily dynamic. On the third dimension, the imperative is the dominating category throughout the link data.

Following the second aim, no large differences concerning the roles and interaction in link data between the language versions could be established. The dimensions show no changes between language versions either. However, there is a difference in hyperlink frequency between the American and the Swedish data, in that the American audiences have access to more links than the Swedish. Ultimately, this affects the roles and possibilities for action negatively for the Swedish audiences.

Finally, with regards to the third aim, there are some differences between the links on the About Us and the Careers pages. While the informative approach dominates both page types, the corporate approach is the second largest category on the About Us pages, whereas the audience approach forms the second biggest category in the Careers data. Results on the second and third dimensions are similar across page types. However, the first dimension shows some differences as regards references to the external audience since the category of noun phrase references to the audiences is almost as high as the category of imperative reference on the About Us pages.
By combining the results on the three dimensions into a model, giving them equal weight each, four interaction profiles were established, in accordance with the fourth aim of the study. The profiles company focus and audience focus stay close to the company and audience respectively, whereas the mixed extremes and balanced focus include the presence of both the company and the audience.

The About Us pages mostly represent either a mixed extremes focus, or a company focus, whereas the Careers pages often display an audience focus or a mixed extremes focus. This distribution shows some differences between the language versions, as the company focus is more common among the Swedish About Us pages than the American About Us pages. Further, the audience focus is more common with the American Careers pages than the Swedish Careers pages.

The general feature of participant projection in this data is that the companies tend to present themselves in a consistent way throughout, whereas the references and roles for the audiences change when moving from the About Us to the Careers pages. The corporate voice and presentation thus remains the same, whereas that of the audience changes with the change of target audiences. Usually, the audience is addressed more directly and receives a greater variety of transitivity roles in the Careers data, producing a stronger projected interaction in text between the two participants. These results lead to the conclusion that the differences between the two web page genres are greater than the differences between the language versions. The distribution of speech functions does not alter the results in any way as it is rather similar across the pages in the investigated data.

On the whole, the hyperlinks in this data seem to work independently of the textual interaction. In terms of link functions, the About Us pages lean towards the corporate approach, whereas the Careers data favour an informative approach, combined with a balanced approach. On their own, the hyperlinks thus focus on the company in the About Us data and on providing information in the Careers data. When combined with the textual analyses, two possibilities arise: the hyperlinks either strengthen an already existing textual profile by displaying a similar approach, or balance the textual interaction by providing the opposite perspective.

10.2 Conclusions

Based on the statements by corporate representatives, the About Us and Careers pages are aimed at different audiences. This is also to some extent reflected in the distribution of company profiles that resulted from this study. The strongest difference is between the company focus in especially the Swedish About Us pages, and the audience focus of many of the American Careers pages. This shows that addressing a diversified audience calls for a more informative and detached discourse, focusing mainly on the company, whereas addressing a clearly defined,
perhaps even homogenous audience calls for greater involvement of the audience. This is not, however, the whole truth, since for instance the American About Us pages and the Swedish Careers pages do not follow the strong trend of the other language version. Instead, many pages of both types gravitate towards the mixed or balanced profiles, including both the company and its audiences in the discourse through different interactive cues. This shows that many companies in fact choose to project both themselves and their targets groups in the text, irrespective of the intended target groups, and irrespective of the page types, using different cues for the two different participants. Applying similar communicative strategies in both page types suggests two things. First of all, the intended audience need not always determine the strategy of communication. This applies to both the perceived heterogeneity of the target groups, and the type of information that is communicated. Secondly, the individual companies employ very different communicative strategies, which means that corporate policies and values overshadow the genre expectations of these two page types. The companies thus interact with their audiences in ways that are perhaps not expected in terms of audience design.

From a genre point of view, it is interesting to note that even if the two page types of About Us Pages and Careers pages are aimed at different audiences from a production perspective, not all investigated patterns of interaction support this claim. The strongest feature separating the About Us data from the Careers data is the clear company focus in many About Us pages, and the direct address and greater variation of roles of the audience in the Careers pages. However, many pages also seem to gravitate towards the profiles of mixed extremes or balanced focus, meaning that the participants are equally visible on many pages irrespective of the page type. Different signs of interaction are thus not a typical characteristic that can be tied to the investigated web page genres.

Even if interaction strategies alone do not serve to determine the page genre, the analyses still showed that the differences between the page types are greater than the differences between the language versions. This implies that corporate policies, in all their different manifestations seem to override a general local orientation of the pages as concerns interaction strategies. The company style thus seems to be stronger than the need to adapt to local needs in terms of interaction. Nonetheless, the results from this study show that the Swedish readers have access to narrower web content in their own language than the English-speaking audience. This need not be a problem since a large part of the Swedish audience also can make use of the English-language content. However, from a marketing perspective it is valuable to provide information in the customers’ own languages (see e.g. Sing & Pereira 2005). There are many pages and sections that are not localised and only some of them
represent local topics that are not applicable in other countries. The missing Swedish sections may be hypothesised to affect both the company image and the sales in a negative way.

The key participants in the investigated website discourse are the company, and its different audiences. The results of this study show that the general category of audiences contains two subclasses, the external and the internal audiences. Even if it is rather small in this data, the category of internal audience is important as the employees are often cited as one of the target audiences of the corporate website (c.f. section 5.1.3.3). Following this idea, it is important to include the employees in the discourse, not only as passive bystanders but as dynamic contributors to the corporate image. In a way, the individual employees also function as a bridge between the producers and the end users. The category of internal audience would therefore benefit from a greater presence on the investigated web pages.

While the real interaction takes place between the teams of individual authors of the website discourse and the real end users, the text projects the participants in discourse as two groups, the company and the audiences. By investigating how the textual participants behave and interact, the notion of interaction between the abstract ‘company’ and ‘audiences’ can be established. The interaction profiles created on the basis of the results in this study function as indicators of the interaction between these abstract entities, and are useful for describing the nature of interaction on a given web page.

The independent function of hyperlinks on the investigated pages reflects the nature of hypertext and the affordances the web page as a medium offers for shaping the discourse. The hyperlinks carry the web page and give it depth in the form of gateways to other content, while simultaneously functioning as linear text, providing information and persuading the users. Hyperlinks are a constitutive property of hypertext, while they at the same time can reflect the purpose and perspective of a web page in a different way from traditional linear text, through their rhetorical functions.

10.3 Limitations

A web page is an entity consisting of different elements, or even an image in its own right. I acknowledge the fact that text, images, animations and hyper-textual elements are often inseparable on a web page. A page can function as a collection of different modes and media that are offered to the audience, or a kind of gateway to other pages. The nature of the corporate site was rather static at the time the data was collected, with a heavy focus on textual content. This is still today the case with corporate websites, which leads me to the conclusion that text is valued higher as an informative, credible mode of communication for companies. Moreover, from a
technical point of view, websites with a lot of imagery and animation take a long time to load on slower internet connections, and might not be correctly displayed at all. Thus, since the informative and communicative value of text is still today higher than that of imagery on corporate websites, I chose to focus on the textual and hyper-textual elements. The nature of this thesis is a linguistic one, which means that the images and page design were beyond the scope of the study.

Previous versions of corporate websites can often be accessed through archiving sites online. This type of diachronic overview is beyond the scope of this study, with focus on a synchronic description of web page. I have, however, performed searches on the Internet Archive Wayback Machine in order to verify the investigated data when it was no longer available online from the company site. In a few cases, this way of verifying data was not successful since some corporate agents have blocked the archiving function. Thus, whereas the contents of a page were always complete in the analyses, the page design, exact placement of the different elements and colours were lost in some cases. While access to linear text and hypertext were sufficient for the present study, a multimodal investigation of the complete design requires archiving and saving of all features.

A more detailed analysis of the link target pages would quickly multiply the number of pages investigated with all available hyperlinks on the original pages. The main focus was instead on the function of the hyperlink gateway, and the interactive properties it provides linguistically by its label on the page. Furthermore, the hyperlink gateways were classified according to their main rhetorical function. The present model provided some useful categories, but the boundaries between the different functions were extremely fluid at times, so that one link could easily be placed in more than one category. The category of enhancing links proved to be the most problematic, due to both its size and its closeness to the exemplifying links. In a sense, all hyperlinks can be seen as fulfilling the enhancing function and providing more information. The great number of links in this category also calls for further sub-classification, for example the kind of data-driven categorisation presented in this study. Similarly, both the exemplifying and the mode-changing link functions are problematic, since these links can be placed in other functional categories depending on the perspective taken. Since these two functions are mainly concerned with how information is presented and not so much with the participant perspective, they did not prove overly fruitful for the data in this study. As both the exemplifying and the mode-changing categories operate on a different level from the other functions in the sense that they always represent at least two functions depending on the perspective, their position within the classification model can also be questioned.

The choice of final data for this study was independent of the companies’ line of business. Instead, the availability of the two page types in Swedish was a decisive
factor. The data set of 20 companies is thus unaffected by the different business areas which are excluded from the analysis.

10.4 Future research

Since this study focused on the linguistic interaction on web pages, an obvious avenue for future research includes addressing the entire web page data with text, images, videos, sounds and layout in terms of interaction. A combination of models from various disciplines and theories for different modes of communication would be ideal. Whereas Kress & van Leeuwen (1996, 2006) provided a good starting point for addressing images and text in light of the systemic-functional theory, the discipline of multimodal studies has since exploded with new approaches to different modes and media. Interaction happens on many levels and the multifaceted system of the web page supports a myriad of different communicative modes that call for further scrutiny.

If five years is a long time in corporate history, it can even comprise the life time of a website. Pages are updated continuously, sped by corporate evolution, product innovations, and the constant demand for new contents. As companies merge, sites disappear and new ones are born. It would therefore be fascinating to conduct a follow-up study of the corporate pages investigated in this thesis. A few companies will have vanished, but most importantly, the ways of interaction will have changed with the move into the social internet. Companies today are expected to be present on different social media channels and sites, and while these still serve as additional ways of marketing the company brand, products and services, they also call for a more direct interaction with the audience. Corporate blunders are quickly condemned and spread online and the communication style in general is fast-paced. Compared to the fairly static corporate site, social media platforms are a lot more dynamic and direct, which in turn may affect the corporate sites. A follow-up study could therefore be combined with an investigation of the companies’ additional online presence, in order to describe what kinds of interaction take place on different platforms and to find out whether the social internet has influenced the static web page medium.

The audience plays a key role in drafting the interaction strategies of a website. It would therefore be expedient to involve the website audience in future studies, through for example questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. Reactions from a real test audience, gathered in for instance focus groups, would provide a new dimension to the interaction strategies as a way of evaluating if the companies are successful in attracting the right target audiences and encouraging them to act and interact with the site and the company. This approach could also be
combined with interviews with corporate representatives regarding their strategy for attracting and keeping their website audiences.

Within genre studies, it might prove fruitful to investigate the interaction strategies on other website pages than the ones included in this study, in order to see whether they display different interaction profiles, and how the projected roles of the participants evolve as the texts progress. This kind of study could form part of a larger project to investigate and describe genre features of the sub-categories within the genre system of a corporate website. A genre-oriented study could also look into the business areas of companies, to see what similarities and differences arise between different lines of business.

Interaction is, much like interactivity, an elusive concept that can refer to dialogue on different levels and in different contexts. In the context of the corporate website, interactive affordances alone do not guarantee interaction between the real-world participants. Similarly, the presence of interpersonal cues alone in a text does not result in interaction between the projected participants. This thesis has shown that projected interaction on corporate web pages can be constructed in different ways and categorised into four distinct interaction profiles based on lexical representations, transitivity roles, speech roles and hyperlink functions. These interaction profiles provide us with a deeper understanding of the abstract level of 'the company' and 'the audiences', as expressed in the discourse of two types of corporate web pages.
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Svensk sammanfattning

Många företag ser webbplatsen som sitt viktigaste medium för extern företagskommunikation. Den dynamiska naturen hos detta medium gör att företagswebbplatser vanligtvis är tekniskt sett interaktiva och lockar publikern att fritt navigera bland sidorna, bestälja produkter eller lämna feedback. Interaktivitet är i sig ändå ingen garanti för interaktion mellan deltagarna i texten. Allt eftersom företagen blir allt mer globala, står de inför utmaningen att närma sig språkligt skiftande publikgrupper och anpassa både sin egen och publikernas roller i webbplatsdiskursen.

Denna studie undersöker skriftlig interaktion mellan företaget och dess publik i företagsdiskurs, på två språk och i två websidegenerer. Interaktion definieras här som en projicerad dialog mellan deltagarna, synlig i texten i form av språkliga signaler. Utifrån ett funktionellt lingvistiskt perspektiv analyseras hur företagen konstruerar sig själva och sina publiker på sin webbplats samt hur dessa projicerade roller och interaktionen förändras mellan två språkversioner av samma webbplats. Dessutom undersöks om ett byte av målpublik påverkar de projicerade rollerna; för detta ändamål jämförs sidor riktade till en allmän publik med sidor riktade till en specifik publik. Resultaten belyser textuell interaktion i ett nytt medium och förbättrar vår förståelse av affärsdiskurs som fackspråk. Fokus på olika språkversioner av samma webbplats ger nya insikter i projektionen av företagsrespektive språkspecifika kommunikationsstrategier online och har därför konsekvenser för interkulturell kommunikation från ett företagsperspektiv.

Materialet för undersökningen består av ett urval amerikanska och svenska websidor för företagspresentation (About Us) och karriär (Careers) hos 20 multinationella företag som har sitt huvudkontor i USA. Totalt analyseras 80 websidor: 20 amerikanska och 20 svenska presentationssidor som riktar sig till en allmän publik (About Us) samt 20 amerikanska och 20 svenska karriärsidor som riktar sig till en specifik publik (Careers). Analysens fokus ligger på språkliga signaler för interaktion i sidornas brödtext och hyperlänkarnas etiketter.

Den första delen av analysen omfattar hänvisningar till företaget och publikerna i text och hyperlänkar, vilket inkluderar personliga pronomen, namn och nominalfraser. I den andra delen undersöks vilka roller som tillskrivs företaget och dess publikerna med hjälp av en transitivitetsanalys av processer och deltagare. Den tredje delen av analysen undersöker distributionen av talhandlingar. Hyperlänkmaterialet undersöks också avseende retorisk funktion. Den kvantitativa ansatsen kompletteras av närläsning av textutdrag, vilket tillför ett kvalitativt perspektiv.

Interaktion på webbsidor, som den beskrivs i denna studie, kan sägas äga rum på tre olika nivåer. Den första nivån är verkligheten, där de reella skribenterna och webbplatsbesökarna befinner sig. Den andra nivån representerar företaget och dess publik så som de projiceras i text och hypertext. Genom att undersöka denna andra nivån av representation kan den abstrakta tredje nivån av ”företaget” och ”publikerna” fastställas för det analyserade materialet.

Totalt sett visar resultaten att de två språkversionerna tillämpar relativt liknande strategier för interaktion. Det finns små skillnader på en allmän nivå och vissa större skillnader mellan individuella företag men det finns inga särskiljande trender. Faktum att karriärsidorna ofta tilltalas mer direkt visar ändå på en högre nivå av interaktion på karriärsidorna än på presentationssidorna. Då företagen dessutom tillåter större publikdeltagande via tillskrivna roller i karriärmaterialet, uppvisar sidorna som riktar sig till en specifik snarare än en allmän målgrupp verkliga högre nivåer av interaktion mellan textens två huvudtagare.

Genom att kombinera resultaten från de tre olika dimensionerna skapas fyra interaktionsprofiler. Profilerna company focus (företagsfokus) och audience focus (publikfokus) håller sig nära företagets respektive publik, medan profilerna mixed extremes (blandade motsatser) och balanced focus (balanserat fokus) inkluderar både företagets och publikens närvaro. Presentationssidorna karaktäriseras oftast av blandade motsatser eller företagsfokus, medan karriärsidorna ofta fokuserar på publiken eller blandade motsatser. Denna fördelning uppfyller vissa olikheter mellan språkversionerna eftersom företagsfokus är vanligare bland de svenska än de amerikanska presentationssidorna. Dessutom är publikfokus vanligare på de amerikanska än de svenska karriärsidorna.

Ett allmänt drag hos deltagarprojektionen i detta material är att företagen tenderar presentera sig själva på ett konsekvent sätt i båda webbsidegenrer, medan hänvisningarna och rollerna för publikerna ändras då man förflyttar sig från presentationssidan till karriärsidan. Företagets röst och framtoning förblir alltså densamma, medan publikens röst och framtoning förändras vid byte av målpublik. Oftast tilltalas publiken mer direkt och tillskrivs en större variation av transitivitetsroller på karriärsidorna, vilket resulterar i en starkare projicerad
interaktion i text mellan de två deltagarna. Dessa resultat ger vid handen att skillnaderna mellan de två webbsidegenrerna är större än skillnaderna mellanspråkversionerna. Distributionen av talhandlingar är relativt lika på alla sidor i detundersökta materialet och påverkar därför inte dessa resultat.

Hyperlänkarna i detta material verkar totalt sett fungera oberoende av den textuella interaktionen. Vad gäller länkfunktioner lutar presentationssidor mot en företagsstrategi, medan karriärsidor föredrar en informativ strategi i kombination med en balanserande strategi. Separat betraktat framhäver alltså länkarna företaget på presentationssidorna och information på karriärsidor. I kombination med de textuelle analyserna uppstår två möjligheter: länkarna antingen förstärker den redan existerande textuella profilen genom ett liknande perspektiv, eller balanserar den textuelle interaktionen genom att ge det motsatta perspektivet.
Jennie Öhman

Interaction in Text and Hypertext

Participant Roles on Corporate Websites

The corporate website is an important medium for external corporate communication, characterised by dynamism and technological interactivity. These features, however, do not guarantee interaction between participants in the written content of the web pages. Using a functional linguistic perspective, this study investigates projected interaction between the company and its audiences in online corporate discourse. The data includes web pages in two languages (English and Swedish) and two web page genres (About Us, Careers) from the sites of 20 US-based companies. The analyses examine how companies construct themselves and their audiences in web page texts, and how these constructed roles affect the projected interaction between the discourse participants.