CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2. 1 Overview

This chapter reviews past literature on three major topics related to the present study. The first part of this chapter deals with the language of advertising by describing the definition of advertising and its function. The importance of recruitment advertising is then discussed before previous works on advertising language are reviewed. Subsequently, the chapter proceeds to the central theoretical framework of this study, genre analysis. This part focuses on Swales' concept of genre analysis and how the genre analysis has been applied in various professional writings. The last part of this chapter pays attention to the role of national cultures on business by reviewing Hofstede's (1984) and Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) global research on culture in the workplace and comparing Thailand and the United Kingdom on different cultural dimensions. Finally, it explores the relationship between language and culture, especially how genre analysis has been employed as a research tool in cross-cultural studies. The chapter ends with major gaps in related fields, leading to the conception of this study.

2.2 Language of Advertising

Before we can examine the language of advertising, it is important to understand how advertising is defined and what purposes it serves. This section thus begins with the definition of advertising, followed by the functions of advertising in order to point out the main communicative purposes. The subsequent part pays particular attention to recruitment advertising and explains why it is selected to be the focus of this study. Finally, previous works on the language of advertising are reviewed to determine what remains to be explored.

2.2.1 Definition of Advertising

Advertising has its root in a Latin verb 'advertere', meaning 'to turn towards'. In its simplest sense, advertising refers to 'drawing attention' or 'notifying somebody of something'. While it is true that advertisers always try their best to catch the audience's attention, it is not always the case that everything we pay attention to can be categorized as an advertisement. Advertising is in fact a notoriously difficult term to define. Well-established dictionaries give definitions of the verb 'to advertise' as "to call public attention especially by emphasizing desirable qualities so as to arouse a desire to buy or patronize" (*Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary*) or "to tell the public about a product or service in order to persuade them to buy it" (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*). In trying to define advertising, Hermerén (1999) gathered definitions of the term from several sources and proposes the following characteristics in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: The characteristics of advertising

Source	Information	Persuasion	Sponsorship	Paid	Media
COD	X	X			X
LDBE	X	X			X
PDE	X	X		X	
KING	X	X		X	
K&A		X	X	X	

(Hermerén, 1999: 4)

The labels in the left-hand column represent the following sources: *The Concise Oxford Dictionary* (COD), *Longman Dictionary of Business English* (LDBE), *The Penguin Dictionary of Economics* (PDE), King (1989) (KING) and Kotler and Armstrong (1990) (K&A). The labels arranged horizontally refer to five characteristics which include 1) information on products and services; 2) persuasion to make someone believe in, or act upon something; 3) sponsorship; 4) the payment of the message; and 5) the mass media through which the message is conveyed.

Considering the above five characteristics, it can be seen that not all five elements are present in the sources. Each of them displays three characteristics, but

not the same three in all cases. This indicates that we cannot overlook any of these characteristics because each source focuses on different perspectives of advertising.

From these overlapping definitions, the characteristics of advertising can be reorganized into three main features. First, advertising conveys information about the products or services being advertised. The information can be presented in various forms and fashions such as words, sounds and pictures. The second feature of advertising concerns the persuasive element in the advertisement. It is undeniable that advertisements are created with a clear purpose to persuade the audience. While the level of persuasion may vary in different types of advertisements, this characteristic can be found in all advertisements. Finally, sponsorship, paid and media are grouped together in a category, because they are mutually inclusive. It seems that sponsorship and paid are overlapping, as sponsorship normally involves a financial support. Moreover, paid sponsorship makes advertising distinct from other forms of media messages such as news reportage and press releases. To elaborate, advertising has to be paid for by a sponsor to reach the public through different channels like TV, radio, billboards, etc. Therefore, advertising can be considered as a one-way public communication placed in different types of media and paid for by a sponsor. In trying to convey a message to the audience, the sponsor/advertiser aims to persuade his audience to adopt a certain view or act in a certain way.

2.2.2 Functions of Advertising

An examination of any type of advertisement reveals that a crucial feature that distinguishes advertising from other types of text is its function. Advertisements are always intended to persuade readers/viewers/listeners. Advertising thus entails an inextricable relationship between language and persuasion. In this respect, McGuire (1978) traces an act of persuasion through the following stages.

1. Presentation of the message
2. Attention of the audience
3. Understanding of the message
4. Acceptance of the message
5. Retaining of the message

6. Action

Applying McGuire's framework to advertising, it can be observed that persuasion is viewed as a process in which an advertiser sends a message to an audience with the aim of making the audience believe that the message is true. And if the advertiser wishes the audience to perform an action, the ultimate goal is to have the audience act upon that message.

For an advertisement to be successful in its persuasion process, it must achieve four functions, in sequence: attention value, readability, memorability and selling power (Leech, 1966). First, it must draw the public's attention. Compared to other forms of communication, advertising is always at the disadvantage edge of getting public attention. Generally, people have a hostile attitude towards advertisements (Leech, 1966). To provoke the consumer's attention and curiosity, it is common to find unconventional language use such as spelling solecism, syntactic and semantic anomalies, neologism and contextual unorthodoxy. Once the attention has been caught, the advertiser must try to find ways to keep up the interest. At this stage, Leech suggests that language must be easy to grasp and assimilate. Thus advertising language tends to be of a personal and colloquial style with a mix of basic vocabulary (Leech, 1966). The third function of memorability deals with how to make a lasting impression on the message. Techniques commonly used include verbatim recall, repetition and mnemonic devices. Once the message is retained, this may lead to the last step of the consumer buying the product. At this point, Leech argues that there is no clear connection between language and selling power. One cannot really assert that an increased sale of a product results solely from advertising. Success depends on many other factors outside advertising.

For a better understanding of how the four functions of advertising work, Figure 2.1 exemplifies how a print advertisement manifests attention value, readability, memorability and selling power to its readers.

Figure 2.1: An advertisement with the four functions of advertising

(Aitchison, 1999: 17)

As shown in Figure 2.1, the attention value function can be found in the picture of a breast on the left side and the headline on the right. This is not an ordinary picture of a woman's breast, but it is actually made up of words. Together with the headline in a big typeface 'CAN YOU FIND THE LUMP IN THIS BREAST?', the picture acts as an attention-getting device which lures the readers to spend more time with the advertisement to try to find out the key message. The second function of readability can be seen from the language use in the headline and the copy of the advertisement. The language is simple and easy to understand. Apart from the simplicity of language in the headline, the body copy begins with 'It's in here. And it's no smaller than a tumor that's found in the real breast. The difference is, while searching for it in this ad could almost be considered fun and games, discovering the real thing could be a matter of life and death' (line 1-4). Although this advertisement does not employ common techniques like verbatim recall and mnemonic devices, it makes a lasting impression by associating the central theme with the picture and words in its layout and design. Once the readers understand the advertisement, the message is likely to be retained. However, the final function of selling power cannot be easily gauged. Like Leech (1966) explains, the use of language does not entirely influence the sales of a product or

service in the advertisement. It is only one of the many factors which may be beyond the advertising scope.

Although the four functions of advertising – attention value, readability, memorability and selling power – nicely show the persuasion process of advertising, a few points are to be queried. First, all the four functions are often fused together in most advertisements (Vertergaard & Schorder, 1985). In fact, there is no clear-cut distinction among them, especially as far as language is concerned. Let us consider the third function of memorability. It may be true that an advertisement would be more memorable if it is repeated often. However, the question remains whether it is possible to determine that one piece of language is more memorable than others. In fact, the ease of memorability greatly depends on the first impression that we have on the message. The better the first impression, the more memorable the message. In this respect, memorability is closely tied to attention value. Second, while it is important the audience understands the advertising, the language does not have to be plain and simple. Today, it is common to find advertisements that create suspense by using complicated language. Although the audience may not fully understand the message at first glance, he is likely to continue to work on solving the suspense. Then, the message will be retained for a longer time span, thus increasing memorability. Finally, commercial persuasion may not be the only purpose of advertising. It may also inform, seek support, amuse, worry and warn (Cook, 1992: 5-6). These different functions can also be combined in one advertisement. A clear example can be seen from a government advertisement which tells people to pay tax. If they do not comply within a certain period of time, they may be fined. This obviously shows a dual function of informing and warning the public.

Whether the goal is to sell a product in commercial advertisements, to change people's opinions in political advertisements or to enforce a certain conduct in government advertisements, language plays an important part in making an advertisement effective. It is a primary vehicle for presenting messages, attracting audience attention, helping the audience retain the message and hopefully contributing to the sales of the product or service in the advertisement.

2.2.3 Recruitment Advertising

When we talk about advertising, most of us tend to think of commercial consumer advertising - a public notice designed to promote the sales of marketable goods and services (Leech, 1966:25). Yet, there are other types of advertising. It is possible to distinguish between display and classified advertising. In newspapers and magazines, display advertisements are placed prominently among editorial pages of the publications in order to attract the attention of readers. On the contrary, classified advertisements tend to be placed in a separate section and ordered according to the content. Due to its placement in publications, it can be observed that most classified advertisements have minimal persuasive elements. Very little is done to persuade the readers to pay attention to the advertisements. This very fact can be explained by the direct communication between the advertiser and its target audience. Unlike display advertising, classified advertising is close to being communication between equals (Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985). On one hand, the advertiser publicly announces his wants such as selling a car or looking for a date. On the other hand, the readers are those who have in mind what to look for and go directly to the classified pages of their interests.

Within the classified category, there are numerous types of advertisement with various contents such as personals, autos, dining, recruitments, education, travel, etc. This study places an emphasis on recruitment advertising for two reasons. First, recruitment advertisements are likely to be given first priority in the classified section of most newspapers. They often occupy more space than other types of advertisements in the classified section, thus having the more commercial value. Second, recruitment advertising gives insights into business practices of the community in which the advertisements appear. As a job market where businesses announce their needs for hiring new employees, recruitment advertising can be a source of information on qualifications required by local companies, remuneration level and work ethics. Despite the importance of recruitment advertising, linguistic studies on this advertising genre are relatively rare. Previous studies of the language of advertising (e.g. Leech, 1966; Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985; Toolan, 1998; Cook, 1992; Myers, 1994; Tanaka, 1994) have been concentrated in display advertising in print or TV commercials. Very few have examined recruitment

advertising. The subsequent part reviews previous linguistic work on advertising language and point outs possible gaps in this given genre.

2.2.4 Previous Studies on Language of Advertising

As the word 'advertising' mostly refers to commercial consumer advertising, it is common to find previous studies of the language of advertising primarily dealing with this type of advertising. While these works take different approaches in examining advertisement language, two broad categories can be observed depending upon the linguistic level being explored. With an attempt to describe unique characteristics of the advertising language, the first group of scholars (e.g. Leech, 1966; Toolan, 1988; Myers, 1994) was primarily concerned with analyzing linguistic features in advertisements. One of the most influential works adopting this approach is by Leech (1966). Although it was written four decades ago, Leech's work continues to provide an overview of the defining linguistic devices of this language variety. Working on British print advertisements, Leech explored various salient linguistic features such as the use of clauses, verbal, nominal and adjectival groups. Influenced by the study of literary stylistics, he also argued that advertising has its own poetic license whereby advertisement writers had to balance conformity and deviation in language use. Hence, it was common to see creative and novel exploitation of language. Like Leech (1966), Myers (1994) linguistically analyzed advertising texts from the US. He examined various linguistic levels of language, covering the exploitation of sounds and letters in rhymes and alliteration, the use of words and their associations and different sentence types and structures. While Leech (1966) and Myers (1994) were successful in unraveling the distinctive characteristics of advertisement language, they did not consider the cultural context in which advertisements appeared. Hence, their findings may not be generalizable beyond the British and US contexts upon which their data were drawn. In fact, national culture may play an influential role in determining the language use in advertisements, resulting in different linguistic patterns across cultures. Therefore, language of advertising must also be analyzed for its cultural sensibility.

Although Toolan (1988) followed Leech's approach by concentrating on the standard linguistic features of British print advertising, the main distinguishing

feature of his work lied in the fact that he also paid attention to the cultural context in which advertisements appeared. In this respect, Toolan identified readership and product as two important factors in determining linguistic similarities or differences between two advertisements. He observed that advertising language was:

> ...always underlyingly functional, but usually far from mechanical. There are as many different types of format and content as there are different types of product, and the problem for the advert-writer is always one of appropriacy and effectiveness, on the basis of how the product is viewed, how the target audience is viewed, and given the constraints of the newspaper or magazine context. (Toolan, 1998: 53)

The second group of researchers - including Geis (1982), Vestergaard and Scroder (1985) Tanaka (1994) and Cook (1992) – took a different approach to work on the socio-pragmatic aspects of advertisement language. They aimed to find out how readers and viewers understood this variety of language. In his extensive study, Geis (1982) examined US television commercials in both psycholinguistic and pragmatic aspects. It was psycholinguistic in the sense that it dealt with how consumers could be expected to interpret advertising message. He argued that television commercials demanded greater perceptual and cognitive acknowledgement from the viewers, while both the audio and visual elements of the commercials may influence how the advertisements were interpreted. This thus directly affected how the audience evaluated advertisements. In the pragmatic sense, Geis asserted that comprehension of an advertising message depended mostly on contextual meanings and inferences from the advertisements rather than direct decoding of linguistic manifestations.

Concerning social issues in advertising, Vestergaard and Schroder (1985) studied the relationship between language and ideology in advertising. They attempted to explain how language is exploited to reflect social ideologies, as advertisers address their target audience differently according to the consumer's demographic and socio-economic status. Therefore, advertisements were not to be read literally because they were poor on informative content. Instead, the language of advertising was mainly suggestive, appealing to our emotions and desires.

In order to explain how consumers came to understand advertising messages, Tanaka (1994) examined cross-cultural variation of display

advertisements from the British and Japanese press. Based upon the relevance theory proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986), Tanaka explained that the audience, in order to grasp the message in an advertisement, needed to make appropriate contextual connections. In other words, they paid attention to what was relevant to them and interpreted the advertising message accordingly. In trying to explain different messages conveyed in British and Japanese advertisements, this study can be viewed as a good case which showed how advertisements should be interpreted according to the cultural values of the society in which they appeared.

Taking a holistic approach to analyze advertising language, Cook (1992) viewed advertising as a discourse and describes it as comprising language and context. According to Cook, advertisements were made up of a wide range of elements such as participants, function, pictures, music, paralanguage and language. Cook took a bottom-up approach in exploring the language of advertising, starting from materials, moving to language use and ending with people involved in the advertising process. In fact, all these elements always interacted with and depended upon one another in order to yield the central message of the advertisements. Therefore, focusing on the verbal element alone did not suffice to understand the true meaning of advertising.

Turning to the rare studies of classified advertising, most studies focused on either the lexical or syntactic levels of language. An earlier work devoted to the linguistic study of classified advertising was by Nair (1992). With a corpus of personal advertisements in Indian, British and American journals, Nair attempted to find what she called "a linguistic nexus", a cultural place where studies of gender, genre and grammar met. Her aims were to find the primary features and generative rules of matrimonial advertisements and also to investigate whether there were gender differences from one country to another. Her linguistic analysis of patterns of noun phrases, verbs and sentence structures revealed how Indian women were perceived differently from their Western counterparts when choosing a marital partner. For instance, the passive role of Indian women was often reflected in the use of passive construction, indirect address and highly formal lexis. On the other hand, British and US advertisements showed an equal status between the male and female. The language was more casual with less formal vocabulary. The syntax also revealed a closer and a more democratic relationship between the two parties

involved in the matchmaking. This study was a good example showing the relationship between the language of classified advertising and culture. By putting the advertisements in their cultural contexts, the researcher was able to draw connections between linguistic manifestations and cultural realities of the societies in which the advertisements appear. This study is important in the sense that it is one of the first research that looked into classified advertising and also attempted to relate cross-cultural issues by examining advertisements from three countries. However, it primarily focused on the lexical and syntactic level of language. Therefore, further studies in other levels of language are much needed.

With the concept of World Englishes, Pandey (2004) studied Indian matrimonials and US personal advertisements. This research demonstrated that advertisements were cultural artifacts, as they "mirror key differences in beliefs and culture-bound interpretations of English and in cross-cultural gender-based distinctions" (Pandey, 2004: 403). Despite the use of a common language, advertisements from India and US employed different lexical choices. Indian advertisements showed a formal vocabulary use. On the contrary, in order to attract attention by appearing unique, there was a greater degree of lexical creativity in the US. In her content analysis, Pandey explained that these linguistic differences signal the unique cultures of both countries. In India, looking for a marital partner was a serious family matter that involved the parents of both sides. However, the US advertisements showed that the communication took place directly between the two parties. Although the data of this study was quite similar to that of Nair's (1992), it aimed to relate language and culture with the concept of World Englishes. It successfully manifested how the English language was nativized to suit the demands of local cultural settings.

In his extensive study of the nature of linguistic simplicity, Bruthiaux (1996) placed an emphasis on the syntactic elaboration in the discourse of classified advertising. Due to strict spatial limitations of classified advertisements, his main objective was to find significant variation in degrees of syntactic elaboration across four advertising categories, namely housing, automobile, personal and job advertisements. By examining a total of 800 advertisements equally drawn from the four categories, Bruthiaux specifically considered the frequency of a set of function words as a measure of syntactic elaboration. It was found that there are different

degrees of elaboration across advertisement categories, stemming from the systematic relationship between syntactic features and their communicative purposes. In other words, the variation in form depended on the variation in the linguistic purpose which the form is meant to serve. This research was one of the few studies that explored the relationship between syntactic forms and functions in classified advertising. Its main strength also lied in its corpus construction and methodology. The corpus represented a large pool of classified advertisements, and the advertisements were also analyzed quantitatively with statistical support. This work has greatly contributed to a much-needed study of the language of classified advertising. However, by attempting to link forms and functions of language, Bruthiaux primarily paid attention to the syntactic features found in classified advertisements and only briefly touched upon the discourse structures. An in-depth discourse analysis would further expand our understanding of this language variety.

Although previous studies on the language of advertising have shed light on the linguistic nature of advertisements, it can be generally observed that a number of issues remain to be explored. First, the focus of most research has been on display advertisements in print (e.g. Leech, 1966; Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985; Toolan, 1998; Myers, 1994; Tanaka, 1994;) and TV commercials (Geis, 1992), while classified advertising has received little attention. Moreover, within the classified advertising category, personal advertisements have been the point of interest (e.g. Nair, 1992; Pandey, 2004). Recruitment advertisements have rarely been touched upon despite its importance in the classified advertising category. Although Bruthiaux (1996) considered recruitment advertisements in his work, they were only a small part of his corpus. More studies on recruitment advertisements are thus needed to expand our understanding of this specific genre of advertising. Second, previous studies have concentrated in the grammatical and pragmatic level of language, while the organizational structures have been scarcely explored. The majority of studies have attempted to either describe linguistic devices employed in advertisements or explain how the audience understand and interpret advertisements. Studies on the internal organizational structure of advertisements would be beneficial in understanding how and why advertisements are written. Third and finally, previous studies have been the showcase of advertisements from Great Britain, the US or Australia. Only a few studies (Tanaka, 1994; Nair, 1992;

Pandey, 2004) have attempted to examine advertisements from other regions. As language and culture are interrelated (e.g. Seelye, 1995, Kramsch, 1998, Wierzbicka, 1997, 2006), it would be very likely that language of advertising mirrors the culture of the discourse community in which the advertisements appear. The question remains how culture is manifested in advertisements from different countries. To answer this question, it is necessary to explore advertisements from different parts of the world and examine cross-cultural variations in advertisement writing. For these three reasons, this study analyzes recruitment advertisements from Thai and British daily newspapers at the discoursal level by applying Swales' (1990, 2004) and Bhatia's (1993, 2004) framework of genre analysis. The next section reviews Swales' concept of genre analysis and explains how it has been applied in the study of various professional writings.

2.3 Genre Analysis

This section introduces the concept of genre by briefly reviewing three genre approaches in linguistics, namely the *new rhetoric* school, the *systemic functional linguistics* and the *English for Specific Purposes* (ESP) approach and offers an explanation why the ESP approach pioneered by Swales is chosen as the theoretical framework of this study. Then it focuses on the central notion of Swales' genre analysis and its applicability in professional writings. It ends with points to consider for future genre-based research.

2.3.1 Concept of Genre

In linguistic discipline, the theory of genre can be viewed in three broad approaches. First, the new rhetoric approach studies genre "as the motivated, functional relationship between text type and rhetorical situation" (Coe, 2000: 195 as cited in Hyland, 2003). Influenced by post-structuralism and rhetorics, this approach focuses on rhetorical contexts in which genres are employed rather than the linguistic features within the text type. The second theory is based on systemic functional linguistics pioneered by Halliday (1994). Halliday's theory emphasizes the relationship between language and its context of use. In this respect, genre

concerns how language is systematically linked with context through patterns of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features. The third school of thought in genre studies is the ESP approach, which is based on Swales' widely-accepted genre analysis theory (Swales, 1990, 2004). Swales sees genre as a class of communicative events employed by specific discourse communities who share a set of communicative purposes.

Taking all three genre theories into account, Swales' framework of the ESP approach is likely to be the most appropriate research tool for this study due to two main reasons: its method of textual analysis and application contexts. First, the main strength of Swales' genre analysis lies in the fact that it considers both the macro and micro structure of a text. It tries to link the functional aspect of a text to its formal properties. The central notion of genre analysis is to describe global rhetorical structures and linguistic properties of genres. In doing so, it first has to find out the communicative purposes of genres before exploring formal features. In this manner, both the functions and forms of the text can be arrived at by genre analysis. As for Halliday's systemic functional linguistics, the focus is more on the social aspect of language use, as it primarily emphasizes the relationship between language and its functions in social settings. Forms of language are shaped and governed by *field* (the activity going on), *tenor* (the relationships between participants) and *mode* (the channel of communication). In this respect, Halliday (1989) pays attention to the register of the language rather than genre. Similarly, new rhetoric studies view genre as a social process, because genres are used to fulfill actions in different situations. Thus, the method of analysis is more ethnographic rather than linguistic, with thick descriptions of contexts surrounding genres (Hyon, 1996).

Second, the contexts of the ESP theory are different from new rhetoric studies and systemic functional grammar. As the name suggests, ESP is geared towards EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EPC (English for Professional Communication). Thus, it targets non-native speakers of English in academic and professional settings. The systemic functional linguistics most popular in Australia (Hyon, 1996), has been centered on primary and secondary schools as well as adult migrant English education and workplace training programs. New rhetoric studies serve the needs of university students and novice professionals and help them

understand the social functions of genres. As the writing of advertisements can be viewed as a kind of professional communication, an analysis of advertisement language fits best with the genre analysis of the ESP approach.

2.3.2 Swales' Concept of Genre Analysis

Before discussing the concept of genre analysis proposed by Swales, it is important to clarify how genre is defined by Swales. This definition will help better grasp the fundamental notion and approach of genre analysis.

2.3.2.1 Definition of Genre

In *Genre Analysis: English in academic and research settings* (Swales, 1990:45-57), Swales proposes a working definition of genre which consists of five characteristics.

1. *A genre is a class of communicative events.* In a communicative event, language plays a vital and indispensable role, be it written or spoken. Moreover, communicative events can range from very common to extremely rare such as news broadcast versus the King's official speech. Finally, a communicative event deals with not only the discourse and its participants, but also the role and context of that discourse.

2. *The principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communication events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes.* This characteristic is based on the assumption that a genre is a means to achieve a communicative goal. In fact, it is the communicative purpose that governs the genre structure as well as its lexico-grammatical choices. It also serves as a defining feature which distinguishes one genre from another.

3. *Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality.* Swales associates this aspect of genre with Rosch's (1975) prototype theory which explains that the most typical category members are prototypes. This implies that certain features would be regarded as typical members of a genre rather than other genres.

4. *The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form.* Once a shared set of communicative purposes is recognized, there is a rationale behind a genre. This rationale thus provides a framework for content, positioning and form within that genre.

5. *A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight.* The fact that the society has given a communicative event a name indicates that it is well established and accepted, as in the case of academic writing, news reportage, advertising, etc. In fact, we all have some general ideas about what constitutes these three genres and the differences among them.

Although Swales himself admits that the concept of genre still remains fuzzy, it can be seen that the central notion in the genre studies is a shared set of communicative purposes. These purposes determine the conventions and constraints of a communicative event carried out by members of a discourse community. In summary, Swales defines genre as follows:

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style....The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation. (Swales, 1990: 59)

2.3.2.2 Fundamental Concept of Genre Analysis

According to Swales (1990), the general aim of genre analysis is to identify moves and steps of a genre by categorizing units of discourse in the text according to their communicative functions. A move can thus be identified as a segment of texts that performs a specific communicative purpose. Generally, a text consists of a series of moves. With its own communicative function, each move contributes to the overall purpose of a genre. Moves that occur frequently and cannot be discarded are considered conventional moves, whereas those which can be omitted are described as optional. Each move contains a number of steps or strategies (Bhatia,

1993). Those steps are realized to achieve the purpose of the move to which they belong.

2.3.2.3 Swales' Analytical Framework of Move/Step Analysis

Based on the analysis of introductions of research articles written in English from a wide range of disciplines (e.g. physics, medicine, and social sciences), Swales (1990) proposes his CARS model – Create a Research Space model, which is presented in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2: Swales' CARS model for article introductions

Move 1 Establishing a territory
Step 1   Claiming centrality and/or
Step 2   Making topic generalization (s) and/or
Step 3   Reviewing items of previous research

Move 2 Establishing a niche
Step 1A   Counter-claiming or
Step 1B   Indicating a gap or
Step 1C   Question-raising or
Step 1D   Continuing a tradition

Move 3 Occupying the niche
Step 1A   Outlining purposes or
Step 1B   Announcing present research
Step 2   Announcing principal findings
Step 3   Indicating RA structure

(Swales, 1990:141)

In order to visualize how all the moves and steps appear in an introduction of a research article, a sample of move-step analysis of the CARS model is presented in Figure 2.3.
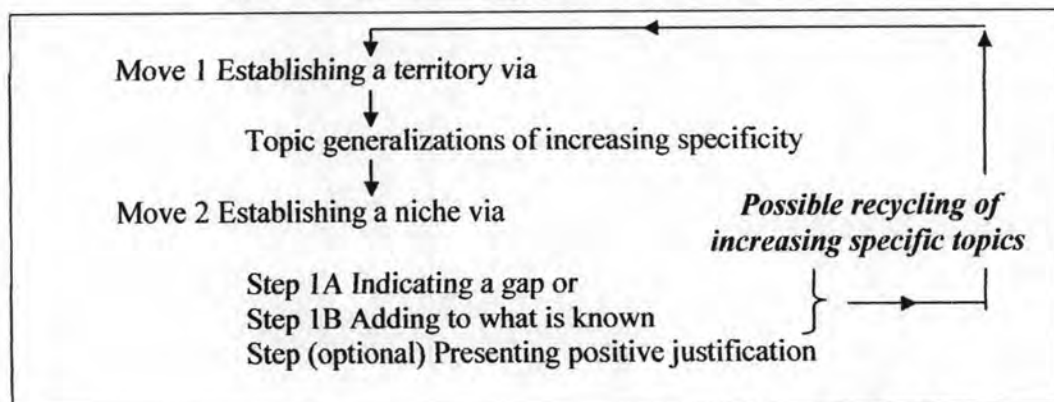
Figure 2.3: A sample of move-step analysis

Move 1 Establishing a territory

S1: Claiming centrality
The increasing interest in high-angle-of attack aerodynamics has heightened the need for computational tools suitable to predict the flowfield and the aerodynamic coefficients in this regime. Of particular interest and complexity are the symmetric and asymmetric separated vortex flows which develop about slender bodies as angle of attack is increased.

S2: Making topic generalizations
The viscous influence on the separation lines and the unknown three-dimensional shape of the vortex wake are some of the main flow features that must be modeled in the construction of a computational method to properly treat this problem.

S3: Reviewing items of previous research
Among the many potential flow methods developed in attempting to solve body vortex flows are early two dimensional (2D) multivortex methods, 2D time-stepping vortex models that include boundary –layer considerations, and a quasi-3D potential flow method that uses source and vortex elements. Linear, unseparated potential flow models as well as purely viscous models, are not mentioned here. A survey of the various methods may also be found in Ref. 10. The potential flow methods are of special interest because of their ability to treat 3D body shapes and their separated vortex flows using a simple and relatively inexpensive model.

Move 2: Establishing a niche

S1B: Indicating a gap
However, the previously mentioned methods suffer from some limitations mainly concerning the treatment of the vortex wake formation and its interaction with the body. The first group of methods cannot treat 3D flows and is limited to very slender bodies. The second group of computational methods is time consuming and therefore expensive, and its separation prediction is not sufficiently accurate. Both the methods in this group and the method in Ref. 9 suffer from the dependency on too may semi-empirical inputs and assumptions concerning the vortex wake and its separation. The steady, 3D nonlinear vortex-lattice method, upon which the present method is based, eliminates many of these limitations by introducing a more consistent model, but it can treat only symmetrical flow cases.

Move 3: Occupying the niche

S1B: Announcing present research
The present work extends the use of the last model to asymmetric, body-vortex flow cases, thus increasing the range of flow problems that can be investigated. In addition, an effort is made to improve the numerical procedure to accelerate the convergence of the iterative solution and to get a better rollup of the vortex lines representing the wake.

(D.Almosino, 1985. High Angel-of-Attack Calculations of the Subsonic Vortex Flow in Slender Bodies *AIAA Journal* 23 (8): 1150-6)

(Swales, 1990: 143)

In spite of many criticisms of the CARS model in the past two decades, Swales' (1990) can be considered one of the most popular descriptions of text structure to date (Anthony, 1999). However, to accurately reflect the actual organizational pattern of introductions in research articles from various disciplines, Swales modified the CARS model in 2004. In the revised model, Swales reconsiders the status of moves in two respects. First, he pointed out the cyclical nature of moves. For example, the review of literature is no longer restricted in Move 1, but can appear in all moves. Move 1 and Move 2 also have the potential of cycling, depending upon the discipline in which the introductions are written (Swales, 2004: 230). Second, the frequency of moves and steps are highlighted to distinguish obligatory moves from optional ones. As a result, within Move 3, the number of steps has been increased to seven, with one obligatory, three optional and three PISF (probable in some fields, unlikely in others). A revised model of CARS is presented in Figure 2.4.

Figure 2.4: A revised CARS model for Moves 1 and 2

Move 1 Establishing a territory via

Topic generalizations of increasing specificity

Move 2 Establishing a niche via

Step 1A Indicating a gap or
Step 1B Adding to what is known
Step (optional) Presenting positive justification

Possible recycling of increasing specific topics

(Swales, 2004: 230)

To apply Swales' framework of genre analysis to this study, it is important to understand both the CARS original model (1990) and its revised version (2004). The original model serves as the fundamental framework which shows how genre analysis can be applied to describe the organizational pattern of a text. On the other hand, the revised version focuses on two important characteristics of genre analysis – the cyclicity and the frequency of moves and steps. As previous studies (Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Kanoksilapatham, 2003, 2005) show that the move structures may vary across disciplines, both the cyclicity and frequency of moves

and steps are likely to reveal not only the purpose of the text but also the discipline in which the text is routinely used. Therefore, this study adopts both the CARS original model (1990) and its revised version (2004).

2.3.3 Genre-Based Studies in Professional Genre

Although Swales focuses primarily on the introduction section of academic research articles, his framework of discourse analysis has been extensively applied to describe organizational patterns in various professional genres. Previous genre-based studies in professional settings such as newspaper law reports (Badger, 2003), legal discourse (Bhatia et al., 2004), promotional genre including sales promotion letters and job application letters (Bhatia, 1993; Henry & Roseberry, 2001), business letters of negotiation (Dos Santos, 2002) and tax computation letters (Flowerdew & Wan, 2006).

Among the above genre-based studies in various professional writings, Bhatia's (1993) and Henry and Roseberry's works are the closest to advertising genre. Bhatia (1993) studied two different communicative events from the business field, namely sales promotion letters and job application letters. He claimed that they belonged to the same genre because they had the same communicative purposes. The main function of both types of letter was to persuade the readers, so they had to catch the attention of the readers. To be effective, these letters had to be short and yet contain enough information about the product or candidate. Sales promotion letters offer an appraisal of the product or service while application letters offered relevant skills and abilities of the candidate. Finally, while sales promotion letters were seen as the first attempt to initiate a relationship between the seller and potential customers, candidates also hoped to start a business relationship with potential employees through job application letters. Since these two types of letters aimed to achieve similar communicative functions, Bhatia concluded that they had the same move structures as shown in Figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Bhatia's move analysis of promotional genre

Move 1	**Establishing credentials**
Move 2	**Introducing the offer or candidature**
Step 1	Offering the product/service or candidature
Step 2	Essential detailing of the offer or candidature
Step 3	Indicating value of the offer or candidature
Move 3	**Offering incentives**
Move 4	**Enclosing documents**
Move 5	**Soliciting response**
Move 6	**Using pressure tactics**
Move 7	**Ending politely**

(Bhatia, 1993: 46-49)

Examples of move analysis in sales promotion letters and job application letters are presented in Figures 2.6 and 2.7 respectively.

Figure 2.6: Bhatia's move analysis in a sales promotion letter

Move 1 Establishing credentials	We are expertly aware that international financial managers need to be able to ask the right questions and work in the market place with confidence.
Move 2 Introducing the offer	
S1: Offering product/service	Corporate Treasury Services, Standard Bank, now provides a "week-long" Treasury Training Programme designed to develop awareness and confidence in managers.
S2: Essential detailing of the offer	We explain the mechanics of foreign exchange and money markets. We discuss risks from an overall standard point and practical hedging techniques to manage foreign exchange risks. We also discuss treasury engagement information systems, taxation and the latest treasury techniques.
S3: Indicating value of the offer	The programme is both rigorous and flexible. It can be tailored to fit the needs of the whole corporation or just a few levels within the company.
Move 3 Offering incentives	We are pleased to inform you that if your company sponsors or more staff for the course, we will offer you a discount of US$100 per person.
Move 4 Enclosing documents	For your convenience, I enclose a reservation form which should be completed and returned directly to me.
Move 5 Soliciting response	If you have any questions or would like to discuss the programmer in more detail, please do not hesitate to contact me.
Move 6 Using pressure tactics	As the number of participants at each training programmer is limited, we would urge you to finalize as soon as possible
Move 7 Ending politely	Thank you very much for your kind consideration.

(Bhatia, 1993: 48)

Figure 2.7: Bhatia's move analysis in a job application letter

Move 2 Introducing the offer	
S1: Offering product/service	I wish to make application for a lectureship in the Department of English at this University.
Move 1 Establishing credentials	I have a Ph.D. in English from the University of Guelph in Ontario, Canada, where I studied under such distinguished scholars as Professors K.R. Sission and P. Hogg. I also have an M.A. in English from Napoli University.
S2: Essential detailing of the offer	I have taught English in a number of American and Canadian educational institutions including Purdue and Oklahoma universities. .....Currently I am on the staff of Riyadh University in Saudi Arabia.
S3: Indicating value of the offer	I have written about ten research articles in the last seven years, all of which have been published in scholarly journals. I have also written two books...
Move 3 Offering incentives	My specialty is Shakespeare and Renaissance drama in general, but I am also qualified to teach a wide variety of courses...
Move 4 Enclosing documents	I hope this letter of application will clarify some of the information on the enclosed C.V., which outlines my qualifications, experience and research interests.
Move 5 Soliciting response	I am required to give notice to Riyadh in early April and therefore look forward to hearing from you soon.
Move 6 Using pressure tactics	Since I do not have a telephone, I will be happy to call you should a telephone discussion become appropriate.
Move 7 Ending politely	Thank you very much.

(Bhatia, 1993: 62)

Although Bhatia's research on promotional genre has been widely cited, it is not without its flaws. As a tool for genre analysis, Bhatia proposed seven steps which include 1) placing the given genre-text in a situational context; 2) surveying existing literature; 3) refining the situational/ contextual analysis; 4) selecting corpus; 5) studying the institutional context; 6) linguistic analysis and 7) specialist information in genre analysis. However, his methodology on promotional genre did not follow his own framework. It was not clear whether his corpus truly represented

sales letters and job application letters. Bhatia explained his analysis with only one example from each type of letter and claims that these letters were typical in their specific genre. If this study was carried out with a sizable and representative corpus, it would have been more valid.

Touching briefly on advertising discourse, Bhatia (2004) claimed that advertisements were some of primary members of promotional genres. Despite being the most traditional form of promotional activity, it was one of the most dynamic generic forms in terms of innovative uses of lexico-grammatical and discoursal forms and rhetorical strategies. However, these innovations tended not to go beyond the typical boundaries of promotional discourse. While this may be somewhat true, advertisements indeed had many subcategories. Hermeren (1999) elaborated on different types of advertising based on various criteria. Form and medium of the advertisement could be an obvious criterion as we can easily identify print advertising, TV commercials, radio or internet advertising. Other types of advertising may be grouped according to whether or not the purpose was to make a profit as a result of the advertising. Of these, advertisements could be seen as commercial or non-commercial. Commercial advertising included consumer advertising, trade advertising and corporate advertising. On the other hand, government and charity advertising was considered non-commercial. Yet another distinction could be made between display and classified advertising. Display advertisements tended to be placed dominantly among editorial pages of newspapers or magazines whereas classified advertisements are placed on separate pages and ordered according to subject. In his study, Bhatia (2004) explored mostly corporate advertising and simply concluded that all advertisements fall into the promotional genre. Based upon their own distinctive characteristics, different types of advertisements may not always serve the same set of communicative purposes. In other words, each type of advertisement may follow its own generic conventions and rhetorical strategies. As for recruitment advertisements, their function is to announce job openings and look for candidates to fill vacancies. Therefore, recruitment advertising should be considered as its own genre rather than being grouped in the one-fit-all promotional genre.

Drawing upon Bhatia's (1993) genre analysis, Henry and Roseberry (2001) analyzed 40 letters of application written by native speakers from the U.S., Canada,

Britain, Australia and New Zealand. These letters were selected from several sources, namely, universities, a horticultural company and a legal firm. The positions applied for included a range of academic positions, secretarial and administrative personnel and senior management posts. Henry and Roseberry (2001) came up with different results from Bhatia's framework. Figure 2.8 illustrates eleven moves of letters of application and their definitions, whereas Figure 2.9 is a sample of how these moves are demarcated in a letter of application.

Figure 2.8: Henry & Roseberry's move analysis of letters of application

Move	Definition (No. of letters in which the move was present in a corpus of 40)
Opening (O)	The writer identifies the target and invites the target to read the letter. (40)
Referring to a Job Ad (AD)	The writer refers to the advertisement in which the position was named and described. (19)
Offering Candidature (CA)	The writer states an interest in applying for the position. (40)
Stating Reasons for Applying (RA)	The writer gives reasons for wanting the position. (11)
Stating Availability (A)	The writer indicates when he or she would be able to take up the position. (2)
Promoting the Candidature (P)	The writer presents selected information demonstrating qualifications and abilities relevant to desired position. (40)
Stipulating Terms & Conditions of Employment (TC)	The writer indicates expectations regarding salary, working hours, and other relevant contractual matters. (4)
Naming Referees (R)	The writer names referees who will support the candidature. (2)
Enclosing documents (EN)	The writer lists documents enclosed with the letter. (34)
Polite Ending (PE)	The writer ends the letter in a conventional manner. (40)
Signing off (SO)	The writer signs his or her name in a respectful manner, thus claiming ownership of the letter. (40)

(Henry & Roseberry, 2001: 159)

Figure 2.9: Henry & Roseberry's move analysis of a letter of application

Opening (O)	Dear Sir
Offering Candidature (CA)	I wish to apply for the position of Business Development Manager
Referring to a Job Ad (AD)	as advertised in the Economist.
Promoting the Candidature (P)	I have over twelve years worked in business development, management, sales and marketing both domestic and international. I have been very successful in taking two small companies into international markets, and oversaw Bollinger Incorporated's international growth in the European Union. In addition to developing exports to over 15 different countries, I was instrumental in maintaining and developing major domestic accounts. As one of the three Vice-Presidents of Bollinger, I was acting general manager in charge of the day-to-day running of the company as well as long-term strategic planning. I have excellent verbal and written commincation skills and enjoy public speaking.
Stating Reasons for Applying (RA)	Currently, I am a partner in a small company which is going well and does not require my full attention. Therefore, I have been exploring the possibility of taking up a position which will utilize and challenge my considerable talents, abilities and drive. The position in London is exactly what I have been searching for.
Enclosing Documents (EN)	I have enclosed a copy of my resume for your perusal.
Polite Ending (PE)	I look forward to the opportunity to speaking with you in person. Best regards,

(Henry & Roseberry, 2001: 157)

Out of the above eleven moves, Henry and Roseberry noted that three could be considered as conventional moves in all types of business letters, namely Opening (O), Polite Ending (PE) and Signing Off (SO). Two moves, namely Offering Candidature (CA) and Enclosing Documents (EN), were the same as Bhatia's (1993) analysis. Four moves were new as they were not present in Bhatia's framework: Referring to a Job Advertisement (AD), Stating Reasons for Applying (RA), Stipulating Terms & Conditions of Employment (TC) and Naming Referees (R). In the Promoting the Candidature (P) move, Henry and Roseberry suggested

that it encompassed Bhatia's moves of Establishing Credentials and Offering Incentives. The other difference from Bhatia's analysis was the removal of Using Pressure Tactics move, as they found no examples of this move in their corpus.

Apart from the eleven moves of letters of applications identified by Henry and Roseberry (2001), this study remained to be substantiated with regard to three issues. First, the move demarcation in this study provoked certain criticism. Two moves, namely, Opening (O) and Signing off (SO) can be perceived as parts of letter writing conventions. It is common that formal business letters begin with a salutation and end with a signature. Thus, they should not be identified as two separate moves. Second, cross-cultural factors should have been given more attention since the corpus was drawn from English native speakers of different countries. In other words, is there a universal conventionalized pattern of writing application letters in English? Or are there any cross-cultural contexts which may influence the style and structure of application letter writing? Third and finally, the interdisciplinary nature of the corpus was completely ignored in the analysis. As shown in previous studies (Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Ozturk, 2007), the move structure may vary across disciplines and sub-disciplines. As the corpus consisted of applications for a wide range of positions applied for, the differences in these positions may play a major part in the move structure of these letters.

A point to note about Swales' framework of genre analysis is that the purpose is not to prescribe but describe the structure of a text according to its communicative function (Swales, 1990). If one compares Bhatia's (1993) and Henry and Roseberry's (2001) analyses, it is clear that there are no major differences although the number of moves may vary. As genre analysis depends on the semantic component of the text, the difference in the number of moves shows that analysts may differ in the way they identify boundary markers of moves and thus assign different naming. In other words, how analysts demarcate the units of discourse may not always follow similar criteria. For instance, the AD and RA move identified by Henry and Roseberry (2001) could be considered to be a step belonging to O and CA moves respectively. Moreover, some genres may not have obvious linguistic markers of move boundaries, resulting in diverse identifications. Therefore, there remain a few points to consider when applying genre analysis.

2.3.4 Genre Analysis: Points to Consider

While genre analysis has provided valuable insights on the analysis of organizational structures of texts in diverse fields, several weaknesses incurred in previous studies should be taken into consideration in order to make genre analysis a better research framework for future studies. First, a major drawback of genre analysis is the subjective nature of move demarcation (Crookes, 1986; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Kanoksilapatham, 2003, 2005; Paltridge, 1994). As the identification of moves is almost entirely dependent upon the semantic component of the text, there have been no explicit rules for genre analysts to follow. As a result, the analysis is likely to be subject to the analyst's own judgments. To make move identification less subjective, it is necessary to empirically and systematically validate the textual status by having the text analyzed not only by the analyst but also by experts in the discourse community (Crookes, 1986; Bhatia, 1993). Experts should be competent members of the discourse community in which the genre is used. They must also possess an extensive knowledge of how language is exploited by the professionals to accomplish their generic goals. Therefore, in any genre-based studies, it is imperative that an inter-coder reliability procedure be carried out to ensure that a group of trained coders and the analyst can agree upon the move and step identification of the text.

Second, genre analysis can be viewed as a semantic-driven approach with a consideration on organization. In trying to describe an organizational pattern of a text, genre analysts focus on the semantic components of the text and information flow within the text. In other words, two questions are of central importance; what information is included in the text and how does it flow from the beginning to the end? Apart from considering the semantic components in a text, genre analysis also reveals the characteristics of the moves in several aspects such as their sequence, frequency, length and cyclicity.

Third, the next question is what these characteristics of moves tell us. To answer this question, it is important to consider the focal point of genre analysis; every text has its own communicative purposes and these purposes shape the schematic structure of the discourse and influence the choice of content and style (Swales, 1990:58). With this concept in mind, it can be implied that moves and

their characteristics reflect the purposes of the writers as well as the discipline in which the genre is used. It is thus common to assume that texts of different disciplines will exhibit different organizational structures. However, the discipline may not be the sole factor that determines the move pattern of a text. The socio-cultural context in which the writers operate is also likely to play a major role in the content and style of a text (e.g. Taylor & Chen, 1991; Bhatia, 1993; Duzsak, 1994, Ahmad, 1997). Therefore, a text from the same discipline but different socio-cultural contexts may not necessarily follow the same organizational pattern. The variation in the number of moves, their sequence, length, frequency and cyclicity may in fact stem from the socio-cultural constraints in which the text is used.

For the above reasons, the researcher proposes that genre analysis can be a useful research tool to study cross-cultural variation reflected in the organizational patterns of English recruitment advertisements in Thai and British newspapers. The subsequent section deals with the role of culture in three different aspects; 1) national cultures in business, 2) culture and language and 3) culture and genre analysis.

2.4 Role of Culture

Since this study investigates Thai and British cultures in professional communication, it would be worth examining the role of national cultures in business settings. In today's business community, it may be true that more and more businesses are being conducted internationally, but these international transactions are not carried out in one world culture. In fact, national cultures still play an important role in the cross-cultural professional communication. Each of us still carries our own national culture even when interacting with people from other cultures. The subsequent section looks into different dimensions of national cultures in the professional setting.

2.4.1 National Cultures in Business

In 1954, two American sociologists, Inkeles and Levinson, suggested that common problems worldwide include 1) relation to authority; 2) conception of self

– in particular, the relationship between individual and society – and the individual's concept of masculinity and femininity and 3) ways of dealing with conflicts, including the control of aggression and the expression of feelings. (Inkeles & Levinson, 1954 as cited in Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005: 22).

Drawing upon Inkeles and Levinson's theory, Hofstede (1984) conducted a cultural survey in order to investigate different values in the workplace around the world. The survey actually grew from his interests in how and why people in the international business worked and interacted with one another differently. With an aim to reveal human common problems and explain differing solutions from country to country, Hofstede's analysis dealt with four dimensions of cultures, which were named as 1) power distance; 2) individualism versus collectivism; 3) masculinity versus femininity; 4) uncertainty avoidance. Hofstede arrived at his findings by analyzing a large database of employee value scores collected from a large multinational corporation: IBM. The employees of IBM represented perfectly matched samples for identifying national value systems, as they belonged to the same work group but differed in nationality. Approximately 116,000 questionnaires in 20 languages were sent out in 50 countries and three-multi-country regions. Later in late 1980, Geert Hofstede and Michael Harris Bond from the Chinese University of Hong Kong conducted a Chinese Value Survey in 23 countries. As a result, another dimension was added, and Hofstede labeled it long-term versus short-term orientation. To show the practical implications of his survey, Hofstede validated his results against about 40 other cross-cultural studies from a wide variety of disciplines including sociology, market research and medicine. Hofstede's dimensions of culture first appeared in his first book called *Culture's Consequences* in 1984. Then it was updated and became popular in his 1991 work under the name of *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the mind.* Since 1991, Hofstede realized that the world of politics and business have been changing rapidly. He has been updating his works by publishing a rewritten version of *Culture's Consequences* in 2001. His latest work, a revised version of *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the mind* came out in 2005.

2.4.1.1 Dimensions of National Cultures

According to Hofstede's (1984, 1991, 2001) and Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) cultural survey, there are five dimensions of national cultures, which include 1) power distance; 2) collectivism versus individualism; 3) masculinity versus femininity; 4) uncertainty avoidance; and 5) long-term versus short-term orientation.

1) Power distance

Power distance can be defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). This cultural dimension focuses on the nature of human relationships in terms of the degree of equality between people in the society. It informs us about the dependent relationships as it is reflected in the way people value and accept authority. In a large power distance society, everyone has his/her own place based upon hierarchy. As a result, inequality between the highs and lows or the haves and have-nots is tolerated because the gap between them is considered natural. As these societies are more likely to follow a caste system, every contact or behavior has a certain degree of social distance between individuals. On the contrary, in small power distance cultures, the degree of dependence between individuals is quite limited. People value independence and equality. Authority is not naturally accepted, instead it is always questioned. Everyone has his/her own rights to do things according to his/her will. Upward mobility is encouraged and can be achieved through one's own performance.

Hofstede added that in the workplace, hierarchy in organizations reflects the existential inequality among employees. In large power distance situations, superiors and subordinates consider each other unequal. Centralization of power in a few hands of upper management people is normal. Subordinates are expected to depend on their bosses and do what they are told. Since the superiors are associated with authority, subordinates are unlikely to approach or contradict their bosses directly. Superior-subordinates relations are frequently loaded with emotions. The ideal boss is a benevolent autocrat or good father who is supposed to care for and protect his own staff. As a result, privileges and status symbols are highly regarded

in large power distance societies. Nevertheless, the situation is completely reverse in small power distance countries. Superiors and subordinates are considered existentially equal members of the organization. The hierarchical system indicates different roles and job responsibilities. Decentralization is prevalent whereby the hierarchical system is more flat with less supervisory personnel. Relationships between subordinates and superiors are more pragmatic. Subordinates in the low power distance workplace expect to be consulted as team members. They can express their opinions and question their supervisors without being seen too rude or offensive. Most of the time, they are praised for their creativity and individualism. Superiors should be resourceful democrats who are accessible to their subordinates for consultation. Privileges and status symbols are frowned upon as all employees should be treated equally (Hofstede 1984).

2) Individualism versus collectivism

Individualism can be defined as the degree to which people in a country have learned to act as individuals rather than as members of cohesive groups (Hofstede, 2004). This cultural dimension focuses on the relationship between the individual and the group. In individualistic cultures, one's identity is paramount. This reflects in the "I" mentality where people take care of themselves and look after their own needs. The interests of the individual prevail over those of the group. Decisions are made according to individual beliefs. Family structure is more of a nuclear family which consists of two parents and children. As the children grow up, their relationships with the parents and other siblings become loose. However, in the collectivist society, people live as a big group where a closely-knit type of relationship is given a priority. It is the "We" mentality that bond people together. In-group goals and values are nurtured over those of individuals. In-group members can range from extended family to neighbors, colleagues, classmates and so on. Members of collectivist cultures are born as part of the group which determines one's identity. One owes lifelong loyalty to one's in-group. The in-group members interact and somehow influence one another in every stage of life. Breaking one's ties is not acceptable in the collectivist cultures (Hofstede 1984, 1991, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), communication styles also vary in individualistic and collectivist cultures. Direct and explicit communication is

preferred in an individualistic society. As everyone has to protect his/her own interests, things must be stated clearly such as in contracts or by written confirmation. In the collectivist culture, the concept of "face" is very important. The use of words for communication is vague. People avoid direct communication and confrontation. Since it is a high-context culture, it is assumed that the group already shares the same information from social networking. It is therefore impolite to be straightforward and ask about other people's information or express one's opinions (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

In the workplace, recruitment and working mentality differ significantly in individualistic and collectivist societies. Recruiting staff in individualistic societies is based on the individual's abilities and the company's requirements. Employees are seen as economic men who perform their best to become successful and recognized. People work more independently and can move around easily, based on remuneration and incentives. Promotion is decided on skills and performance. In contrast, the hiring process in a collectivist culture does not entirely depend on the individual per se but also the group he/she belongs to. It is often the case that relatives and friends are preferred over outsiders. In return, the employee will pursue the interests of the in-group and is likely to protect the reputation of the organization. Everyone in the organization share the responsibilities to realize the group's needs and goals. Success is a result of everyone's efforts. Promotion decisions take into consideration an employee's in-group membership and overall group harmony (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

3) Masculinity versus femininity

Masculinity is defined as the degree to which masculine values like assertiveness, and competition prevail over feminine values like the quality of life and caring for others (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). This cultural dimension focuses on the degree the society reinforces the traditional masculine work, role model of male achievement, control and power. This is reflected through the level of assertiveness and modesty in the society. In masculine societies, gender role is clearly distinct. Men dominate the society while women take a submissive role. Men tend to be tough, ambitious and focus on success, while women are supposed to take care of relationships and domestic matters. Winning is of the utmost importance, as status is displayed through one's achievement. On the contrary,

gender roles tend to overlap in feminine cultures. The discrimination between men and women in a feminine society is much lower. Men in feminine societies often share women's traditional roles and responsibilities. Women are treated more equally to men in all aspects of the society. Both men and women are taught not be aggressive, but to be modest and care for others (Hofstede 1984, 1991, 2001).

In the workplace, the concept of management in masculine and feminine cultures is completely different. Historically, management is an Anglo-Saxon concept developed in masculine British and American cultures. A good management should be decisive and aggressive, in which the fittest is the survival of the competition. The masculine side of management does not freely accept women in professional jobs. In contrast, management in the feminine workplace concerns people and consensus. Conflicts are resolved through negotiation and compromise. Men and women have equal opportunities to hold management positions (Hofstede 1991; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

4) Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance can be defined as the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). This dimension focuses on the level of tolerance for uncertainty within the society. The culture of strong uncertainty avoidance shows a low tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty. There is a need for set rules and formality. Hofstede further explains that life is organized around details and specific plans. Deviation of ideas or disagreement is not tolerated. People in these societies tend to consider conflict and competition as threatening. On the contrary, in the cultures of weak uncertainty avoidance, people are less concerned about rules. They believe more in generalists and common sense. Conflict and differentiation are not threatening, as they are more comfortable with ambiguous situations and unfamiliar risks.

In the workplace, one of the components of uncertainty avoidance is the period which employees like to stay with their organizations (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). In strong uncertainty avoidance cultures, people prefer a long-time career with large organizations. Employees accept and comply with strict rules of the company although sometimes those rules may not lead to efficiency. Strong uncertainty avoidance cultures also have a strong belief in precision and expertise as to avoid ambiguity. On the contrary, countries with weak

uncertainty avoidance show opposite preferences. It is common for people to move around and change their workplace. Rules in organizations are not favored and they should be established only in case of necessity (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

5) Long-term orientation versus short-term orientation

The dimension of long-term orientation was later developed upon the Confucius philosophy to further explain the Asian value and work ethics. This cultural dimension focuses on the degree of long-term devotion to forward thinking values. In long-term orientation societies, perseverance and thrift are most important. People in this culture are slow to change to new things. In short-term orientation cultures, it is the matter of "now" not the future. Emphasis is placed upon personal steadiness and stability as they are important to protect one's face. People are quick to change for the newer and better. People plan things within short-range schedules and demand results in a near foreseeable future (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

In the workplace, the environment and ethics in the long-term and short-term oriented cultures are structured differently. In the long-term oriented societies, family enterprises are normal, as family and work are not separated but interrelated (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). Persistence helps one to have desirable qualities such as strength, patience and diligence to pursue one's business goals. Emphasis is placed upon long-term planning; thus, learning and self-discipline are highly valued. As most of long-term oriented cultures also score high in the collectivism dimension, it is common to see business done in horizontal cooperation. Having one's personal network of acquaintances is essential for success. On the contrary, short-term oriented cultures, managers and staff are psychologically in two sides. As personal stability and steadiness are valued, each employee often works just to achieve his/her own targets. The focus is on the bottom line because this year's profits and goals must be reached. Business deals are carried out on a case-by-case basis whereby people connections do not count. Work is associated with freedom, rights, achievements and thinking for oneself (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

While Hofstede's cultural survey (1984) has gained much acceptance in the past twenty years, two issues need to be raised in the interpretation of the five dimensions of national cultures. First, although all cultural dimensions have two polar opposites, it is important to note that not all countries can be clearly

categorized on one end or the other. Some countries do not have clear-cut characteristics of either extreme. Thus, these cultural dimensions should be viewed as a continuum and guidelines, not mere descriptions of particular countries. In reality, people may vary on an individual basis and do not follow the norms of their own culture. Second, in the business settings, these five dimensions of national culture may not be the only factors determining the management style of companies around the world. Corporate culture or organizational practices may have to be taken into account in the interpretation of Hofstede's survey results. Derived from worldwide employees of IBM, a large multinational company, the survey results may overlook the role of corporate culture of the organization. In other words, the behavior and work ethics of IBM employees may be influenced by the corporate culture rather than their national cultures. Therefore, in international business settings such as multinational organizations, one should consider both the corporate and national cultures.

2.4.1.2 Hofstede's Cultural Dimensions on Thailand and the United Kingdom

This part discusses Hofstede's five cultural dimensions of Thailand and the United Kingdom. Figure 2.10 compares the index scores of the two countries across five dimensions.

Figure 2.10: Comparison of Cultural Dimensions
between Thailand and the United Kingdom
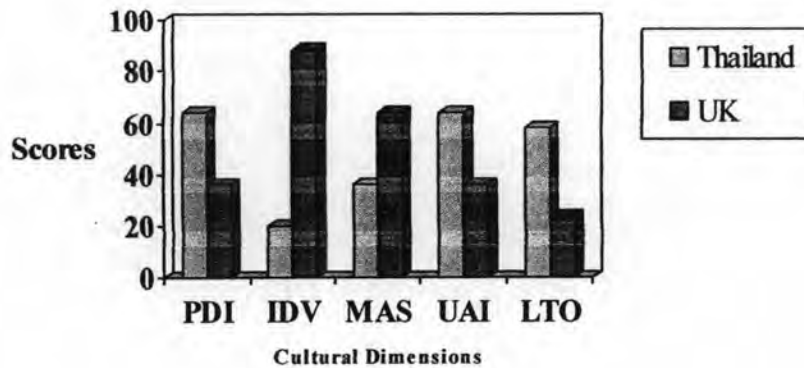
PDI = Power distance
IDV = Individualism
MAS = Masculinity
UAI = Uncertainty Avoidance
LTO = Long-term Orientation

(http://www.geert-hofstede.com, 2006)

As shown in Figure 2.10, Thailand and Britain are on the opposite ends of
the continuum in all dimensions. This implies that that the Thai and British hold
different social values in life. The most striking dimension is individualism.
Thailand scores 20 whereas Britain scores 89. In fact, Britain ranks third in the
survey after the United States and Australia. On the other hand, Thailand is in the
same ranking with Bangladesh, China, Singapore, Vietnam and West Africa. The
low score for Thailand indicates that the Thai society is a collectivist one, in which
everyone belongs to a group such as extended family, alumni and work associations.
Every Thai has a life-long commitment to these social networks and relationships.
Everyone takes responsibility for fellow members of their group, and breaking off
from one's ties is sometimes considered a betrayal. In fact, Thais work hard to
build and maintain relationships. A lot of time is invested on making sure that one's
associates are happy. To keep the relationships intact and cordial, Thais tend to
avoid conflict or confrontation. In difficult situations, compromise is always seen
as an ideal solution (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 1995). In contrast, the conception of
self in Britain stands at the opposite pole. The high score in individualism indicates
that the "I" mentality is stressed in Britain, as people care for themselves and their

nuclear family. Relationships are formed on a voluntary basis and not predetermined by birth. Everyone values one's own identity and freely expresses one's own thoughts (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Two dimensions that share the same level of scores in both countries are power distance and uncertainty avoidance. In the dimension of power distance, Thailand scores 64 while Britain 35. The high score of Thailand is indicative of a high level of inequality of power and wealth within the society. This condition is deep rooted in the tradition of Thai society, in which age, social status, wealth, professional rank, merit and birth determine one's power and behavior towards others. Thais are taught to realize and accept his/her own place in the society. Influenced by Buddhism, most people feel that their current status and life are destined by their karma. This concept further strengthens the social differences in the hierarchical society and helps ease the conflict that may arise in such a stratified society (Podhisita, 1998). In Britain, the concept of one's relationship with others is drastically different. Being an individualist country, it is not surprising for Britain to score low in the power distance dimension. Each individual should be treated equally, and opportunities should be available for everyone to grow and move upwards in the society (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

Similar to power distance, Thailand shows a higher score in the dimension of uncertainty avoidance than Britain does. Thailand scores 64 while Britain 35. The difference indicates that Thailand is a strong uncertainty avoidance society. To control and minimize risks, rules and regulations are common although people may not always comply with them. Bureaucracy and red tape are prevalent in the workplace especially in government-related organizations. Thai people tend to depend on the authorities and seem to feel that this is how things should be done. Combined with a high degree of power distance, Thais are less optimistic about their possibilities to influence decisions made by authorities. However, on the British side, the lower score in the uncertainty avoidance index reveals that the British are comfortable in ambiguous situations and with unfamiliar risks. Rules and regulations are adopted for the benefit of the society rather than to keep its people under control. The public tends to be liberally-minded and more readily to accept diversity and change (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

With regard to the dimension of masculinity versus femininity, Thailand is a more feminine country with the score of 34. Britain is on the masculine side with the score of 66. It can be interpreted that Thais value modesty, as they are taught not to show off or act aggressively. Although the society has certain expectations about gender roles, men do not always dominate and control women. Women do not have to play a submissive role, and they can express their opinions. On the contrary, the British society places an emphasis on assertiveness and competition. It is common to boost one's egos by showing off that one is powerful and successful (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

As far as the future is concerned, Thais are more long-term oriented than the British. In this dimension, Thailand scores 56, but Britain scores 25. Influenced by Buddhism with the belief in reincarnation, Thai people look into the future. One of the main teachings of Lord Buddha is to do good deeds so that they will yield good results in the future. Thus, the Thais tend to focus on the long-term outcomes. Unlike the Thais, British people concentrate on the present and focus on short-term planning with foreseeable results. They tend to lead life by enjoying and pleasing themselves. (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005)

While Thailand and Britain differ in all five dimensions, power distance and individualism seem to play an important role in the social structure of the two nations for two reasons. First, as seen from Figure 2.10, these two dimensions are negatively correlated. In a collectivist society, Thailand places a great emphasis on the hierarchy between individuals. As Thais belong to groups, power figures are highly respected. This value thus further strengthens the interdependence between group members. In contrast, Britain is a small power distance but a highly individualistic culture. Since people are relatively independent from in-groups, they are usually less dependent on powerful others.

Second, both power distance and individualism versus collectivism have a great influence on other dimensions. The fact that Thailand is a more feminine society than Britain may stem from its large power distance and collectivist characteristics. To maintain relationships with other group members, Thais pay attention to the concept of respect and gratitude. Thus, Thais are supposed to be modest and try not to offend others. Aggression is to be avoided as it may lead to confrontation and affect relationships with others. Nevertheless, assertion and

boasts are acceptable for the British, as they can be viewed as individualistic expressions of oneself. It can also be observed that Thais are less likely to make changes in plans as they have to take into consideration the interests of the in-groups. The British are, on the contrary, more comfortable with changes and ambiguity as they are less bound to the group and more independent. With regard to attitudes towards the future, the Thai society is more long-termed oriented. People not only look after their own immediate interests, but also plan for the future of their in-groups. In Britain, the goals are planned with short-term results, as it is most important to protect one's own interests (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005).

In sum, it can be speculated that the national culture, especially in the dimensions of power distance and individualism versus collectivism, is likely to be a major factor which determines the work ethics, values and management style of the Thai and British workforce. As Thailand and Britain seem to be on polar opposites, it would be interesting to see how the culture of each country influences the language used by its people. The next section will thus look into the relationship between culture and language.

2.4.2 Culture and Language

With the inextricable relationship between language and culture, language should be considered as a pattern of communicative behavior in the holistic context of culture (e.g. Goodenough, 1964; Seelye & Seelye-James, 1995; Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997, 1998; Kramsch, 1988;). To know a language does not only mean to acquire the grammatical knowledge, because culture does play an important role in how one uses language. In fact, there have been numerous studies on the relationship between language and culture. This section will only cover some dimensions of culture that are relevant to this study.

Power distance is an important cultural dimension that influences the use of many languages in the world, especially the use of address terms. In most modern European languages, there is a distinction between a polite and familiar 'you' such as 'vous' and 'tu' in French, 'sie' and 'du' in German and 'lei' and 'tu' in Italian. This distinction has been investigated in terms of the concepts of power and solidarity (Brown & Gilman, 1960; Lyons, 1981). In a non-reciprocal usage, the

polite form is used to acknowledge the different status and power between speakers. On the other hand, a familiar form signals reciprocity and solidarity. In English, Brown and Ford (1964, as cited in Tingsabadh & Prasithrathsint, 1987) study terms of address in spoken American English and find three main types of address terms, including first name, title + last name, and title/last name + first name. The choice of these address terms depend on the relationship between the speaker and the hearer. As for Thais, the address terms are much more extensive, because Thais' interactions are controlled within the context of a strong hierarchical system (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 1995). The Thai address terms reflect a number of social factors such as rank, age differences, occupation, level of intimacy and social status. To show respect, it is common for Thais to address their interlocutors with rank + name, pronominal + rank, occupation/title and pronominal + occupation/title (Tingsabadh & Prasithrathsint, 1987).

Like power distance, collectivism is reflected through the use of address terms. In the spoken discourse of many Asian languages (Hindi in Mehrota, 1977; Korean in Hwang, 1975; as cited in Tingsabadh & Prasithrathsint, 1987; Thai in Tingsabadh & Prasithrathsint, 1987), people use kinship terms to address people outside their own family. For instance, Thais use kin term or kin term + name to address acquaintances and neighbors. This indicates that Thais live in a collectivist culture in which one can easily feel close and friendly to others (Chutisilp, 1984).

The concept of directness and indirectness in discourse style of different languages is also largely influenced by culture. In spoken communication, Wierzbicka (1991, 1997) studies discourse styles in Japanese and Polish. It is found that the Japanese are less direct than the Polish when they express their feelings or wants. As collectivism is dominant in Japan, the Japanese are not supposed to express one's wants, thoughts and feelings in order to preserve the group's harmony. Thus, the Japanese culture is characterized by its suppression or distrust of verbalism, as one of its cultural cores is *enryo* translated as restraint or 'reserve'. It is common for the Japanese to be vague and avoid stating their preferences, even in response to direct questions. On the other hand, the Polish culture is more inclined towards individualism and values uninhibited expression of both good and bad feelings towards the addressee. Polish communicative norms involve free expression of opinions and even frankness by saying exactly what one thinks. It is

totally acceptable to express disagreement, exasperation, and impatience in Polish conversations.

The degree of directness and indirectness can also be studied from the pattern of topic introduction in discourse. According to Scollon and Scollon (2001), Asians and westerners have different approaches when they introduce a topic in conversation. Two major discourse patterns are deductive and inductive. In the deductive pattern, participants can introduce the topic when discourse begins. This direct approach appears to be a Western preference. On the other hand, participants using inductive pattern only introduce their topic after the facework. In other words, the introduction of the topic may be delayed until the participants get the chance to feel the mood and position of the other participants. Primarily used in Asian discourse system, the inductive pattern is closely related to the concept of power distance in most Asian cultures. The crucial issue is not who introduces the topic first but who is in a higher position. The person in a higher position has the right to manage the turns and decide who gets to introduce the topic.

As for Thais, it is important that the discourse does not sound so direct, especially when one gives negative comments or orders. To show politeness and consideration, Thais often use an indirect approach. In conversation, Thais have a way of directing conversation from possible conflicts or controversy. In fact, a large portion of crucial messages are conveyed indirectly through non-verbal communication. For instance, negative feelings such as disagreement, apology, discomfort or even anger may be communicated silently through different uses of body language (Holmes & Tangtongtavy, 1995).

With regard to written discourse, Kaplan (1966), reinforcing the Whorfian hypothesis, claimed that language imposed a world view on its users, because logic and rhetoric were culture-specific. In fact, each culture had its own rhetorical conventions which are reflected in both spoken and written language. Kaplan's (1966) pioneering study analyzed paragraph structures of ESL student essays and identifies five organizational patterns of five cultural groups. It is suggested that the Anglo-European followed a linear order in their writing whereas Semitic students structured their writing with a series of parallel coordinate clauses. In contrast, the essays written in oriental languages were indirect and mostly in circular patterns. In Romance languages, digressiveness was often found and tolerated in essay writing.

Finally, the Russian showed a higher degree of digressiveness, as extraneous materials could be added in the middle of the writing. Therefore, it is undeniable that writing was a social act. Writers formulated and organized their ideas and thought patterns according to the socio-cultural and socio-rhetorical parameters to which they belonged. While Kaplan's study has greatly contributed to our understanding of cross-cultural writing norms, it is important to note that culture may not be the sole factor which determines the written discourse across languages. Other factors have to be taken into consideration. Sometimes the educational background of the writer and the discipline or genre in which the writer operates may play a more significant role than culture.

Similarly, Clyne (1981) studied cultural differences in the organization of linguistic and sociological texts written by English and German speakers. He claimed that the English essay writing norms were not the same as the German's. Expectations of discourse which could be deduced for English but not for German include 1) clear statement of the purpose of writing, 2) relevance as the primary virtue, 3) continual flow of paragraphs and 4) avoidance of repetition. Clyne argued that these differences stemmed from intellectual styles and attitudes towards knowledge and content of the two cultures. In the German tradition, knowledge was highly valued. The quality of a text depended on its knowledge, theory and stimulus to thoughts. Thus, it was common for texts to be indirect and difficult to read, and it was assumed that there was cooperation between the author and the reader. In contrast, the English style promoted dialogue and debate. It was the sole responsibility of the author to make the text understandable. Therefore, English writers had to make their texts clear and easy to follow.

It is evident that language is a cultural phenomenon, because it mirrors the experience, thoughts, values and beliefs of the people who use it. To offer another means of studying the relationship between language and culture, the next section focuses on the application of genre analysis in the study of discourse structures across different cultures.

2.4.3 Culture and Genre Analysis

Genre-based studies which look into cultural differences in the global organizational structure of texts remain relatively small. Adopting Swales' move analysis, most studies (Taylor & Chen, 1991; Duzsak, 1994; Ahmad, 1997) are in the academic discipline. Taylor & Chen (1991) studied 31 papers in hard science, 10 of which were in Chinese by Chinese writers, another 10 in English by Chinese writers and the remaining 11 in English by native English-speaking writers. Although the underlying rhetorical structure was common to all language groups, some variation could be found in the review of literature. Chinese scholars writing in both Chinese and English tended to either write a short and unelaborated summary of literature or omit this move/step. Taylor and Chen viewed this difference as related to culture. As disputation was absent in the Chinese tradition, Chinese scholars found it improper to expose and criticize the work of others, especially when they had to discuss others' shortcomings. As part of the research methodology, the researchers admitted that it was impossible to attain absolute precision and complete validity. To make the findings more valid, the move structures of the texts in English were analyzed independently. However, the results of the study would have been more convincing if they were validated by experts in the related fields, rather than co-researchers.

Another cross-cultural research on move analysis is that of Ahmad's (1997) which examined linguistic and rhetorical characteristics of 20 scientific and technical research articles written in Malay. This study revealed similar findings to that of Taylor and Chen (1991). The most significant difference between Malay and English research articles was found in two moves – Reviewing items of previous research and Establishing a niche. The reason behind this difference was similar to that of the Chinese research writing. Malay scholars might not feel comfortable evaluating or criticizing the works of their colleagues. This explains why they only described or summarized previous studies or even discard these moves/steps. In addition, Malay scholars were vague in the Occupying a niche move. They seldom clearly stated their research purpose and the structure of the article. There seemed to be a greater tolerance for ambiguity between the writer and reader.

Duzsak (1994) explored cross-cultural variation in academic discourse of 40 English and Polish articles from the field of language studies. A major difference between English and Polish writers lied in the degree of directness. Relying on 'avoidance strategy', Polish writers seemed to be indirect, as they tended to understate their intentions. It was left to the readers to figure out their intentions. In contrast, academic writing in English emphasized a clear statement of the writer's objectives early in the writing. More interestingly, Polish writers were more likely to adopt a defensive position as if to shun the responsibility for any misreading of their findings. The English writers were different in their approach, as they seemed to be more assertive and direct in making their points.

In the professional realm, a prominent study that dealt with cross-cultural issues is by Bhatia (1993) who worked on a data of some 200 letters of job and scholarship applications from South Asia. It was found that the function of the job application in South Asia differed from that of the Western model. In western culture, these letters were for applicants to provide self-appraisal whereby they highlighted their qualifications and experiences relevant to the job specifications. On the contrary, letters from South Asian countries did not take advantage of the opportunity to offer self-appraisal to convince the reader. Instead, many used strategies such as "adversary-glorification", "target glorification" and even "self degradation" in two moves – Introducing candidature and Establishing credentials. These strategies were considered too emotional by the Western readers, because they were more familiar with self-appraisal strategy (Connor, 1996). A major weakness of this study concerns its selection of the corpus. Bhatia did not clearly demonstrate the selection process of his sample letters. Thus, the validity of the corpus is open to doubt.

A more recent research on application letters is an investigation of the genre components and pragmatic strategies of letters of application written by Jordanian Arabic-English bilinguals (Mohammed, 2006). With a focus on cross-cultural pragmatics, the study aimed to trace how far these non-native speakers were able to utilize the genre components and politeness strategies of the target language. The results revealed that some generic components were not appropriately used due to the writers' ignorance of socio-cultural differences. It can be said that this study has

made an attempt to look into not only the structural analysis of the text but also cultural variation that may play a major role in text construction.

As seen from the above studies, few studies have explored the importance of socio-cultural contexts in professional genres. In this respect, Bhatia (1993) asserts that there has been a lack of research in this area due to two main reasons. First, in academic writing, the norm tends to be towards the well-established and more standardized genres. Most researchers, regardless of their educational and cultural background, conform to the standards of the English-speaking world. Second, in the case of many professional genres especially in the business field, local culture seems to play a significant role in their linguistic realizations. Writers often transfer their cultural and pragmatic strategies to suit the local constraints. Therefore, the interaction between genre analysis and cross-cultural variation in professional discourse remains to be explored.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter discusses three major concepts pertaining to this study – language of advertising, genre analysis and the role of culture. Working on the linguistic features of consumer advertisements, Leech (1966) study has been the pioneering and one of the most influential works in this particular genre. Later studies (Gei, 1982; Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985; Cook, 1992; Tanaka; 1994) shifted their focus from syntactic features of advertising language to examine the pragmatic aspects. Very few studies have touched upon recruitment advertising (Nair, 1992; Bruthiaux, 1996). Yet, these studies were limited at either lexical or syntactic levels of recruitment advertising language. In other words, none of the previous studies has concentrated on the discoursal level of recruitment advertising.

Swales' (1990, 2004) and Bhatia's (1993, 2004) concept of genre analysis has been adopted as the central theoretical framework in this study. Swales (1990) developed genre analysis with the general aim to categorize various discoursal units within the text according to their communicative purposes. Generally, a text consists of a series of moves. Moves may contain multiple elements, referred to as 'steps' by Swales (1990) or 'strategies' by Bhatia (1993). Later, Swales' theory of genre analysis has been extensively applied in professional writings (e.g.

promotional genre by Bhatia, 1993, 2004; letters of application by Henry & Roseberry, 2001; business letters of negotiation by Dos Santos, 2002; law reports by Badger, 2003; tax computation letters by Flowerdew & Wan, 2006).

With regard to the role of culture in recruitment advertising language, this study first examines national cultures in business as proposed by Hofstede's (1984, 1991, 2001) and Hofstede and Hofstede's (2005) cultural survey. This chapter compares Thailand and the United Kingdom in five cultural dimensions, namely power distance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term versus short-term orientation. Finally, it reviews past literature which applied genre analysis in cross-cultural studies (Taylor & Chen, 1991; Bhatia, 1993; Duzsak, 1994; Ahmad, 1997)

With three major concepts of language of advertising, genre analysis and the role of culture, this study applies genre analysis as developed by Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (1993, 2004) to analyze the organizational structures of English recruitment advertisements in Thai and British national daily newspapers for the following reasons.

First, previous studies on advertising language (e.g. Leech, 1966; Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985; Toolan, 1988; Cook; 1992; Geis, 1992; Myers, 1994; Tanaka, 1994) have focused on display advertisements in press or TV commercials. The number of studies on classified advertising has been relatively small (e.g. Nair, 1992; Bruthiaux, 1996; Pandey, 2004). More importantly, within the classified category, recruitment advertising has received very little attention. Recruitment advertising is included as a part of Bruthiaux's (1996) study. In other words, linguistic studies with a particular focus on recruitment advertising are almost non-existent. This study aims to examine recruitment advertising because it is one of the most prominent advertising categories of the classified section. In most major daily national newspapers, it occupies the most space in the classified section, which indicates that it also has the most commercial value compared to other types of classified advertising. To the general public, it acts as a job marketplace where businesses announce their needs of hiring new employees and job seekers look into the advertisements to find employment opportunities. Recruitment advertising can also give insights about the business practices of the

community in which the advertisements appear. Therefore, it is well worth studying this particular advertising genre.

Second, previous studies on advertising language (e.g. Leech, 1966; Vestergaard & Schroder, 1985; Toolan, 1988; Geis, 1992; Nair, 1992; Myers, 1994; Tanaka, 1994; Bruthiaux, 1996; Pandey, 2004) primarily dealt with the lexical, syntactic and pragmatic level of language, but not the organizational level. These studies can be categorized into two groups according to their purposes. The first group aimed to describe linguistic devices in advertisements, while the other worked on the pragmatic side by explaining how and why the audience understood advertising messages. None of these studies have looked into the discoursal level of advertising language in terms of the organizational pattern of advertisements. As a result, this study attempts to fill this gap by describing organizational structures of recruitment advertisements.

Third, to describe the organizational pattern of recruitment advertisements, this study adopts Swales' (1990, 2004) and Bhatia's (1993, 2004) framework of genre analysis so that moves and steps employed in the advertisements can be demarcated. However, the analysis is carried out with two precautions. As move identification depends on the semantic component of the text, it can be subject to the researcher's own judgments. Thus, the reliability of move identification remains questionable. To provide empirical validation and make the study less subjective, this study includes an inter-coder reliability procedure. Given the recognition that experts in the business might have a better knowledge about nature and language use in recruitment advertisements, this study involves a well-respected professional in the media and advertising business to assess the reliability of move assignment. Moreover, this study pays particular attention to the selection of newspapers and advertisements to ensure that the Thai and British corpora are comparable. The selected newspapers represent high quality and prestigious daily newspapers of the two countries. The advertisements are also of comparable nature in terms of length and type of advertisers.

Fourth and finally, genre analysis deals with the semantic component of the text with a consideration on organization. In this respect, genre analysis can be a beneficial research tool to study cultural elements in the text. With move/step identification, the differences in the characteristics of moves/steps such as their

such as their sequence, length and cyclicity may signal the socio-cultural background of the discourse community in which the text is routinely used. As national culture plays a major role in business management and communication (Hofstede, 1984; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005), more cross-cultural genre-based studies in professional writing are needed.

In sum, this study analyzes English recruitment advertisements in Thai and British newspapers. Based on advertisements taken from the most prestigious national newspapers of the two countries, genre analysis first unravels the organizational patterns of Thai and British recruitment advertisements. Then the move structures of the two countries are compared to demystify cultural influences that are likely to determine the advertisement writing style of the two countries.