PROGRAMMA D'ESAME DETTAGLIATO – PROVA ORALE
Anno accademico 2022-2023

LINGUA E TRADUZIONE – LINGUA INGLESE
## Prof.ssa Maria Grazia Guido

Mediating Cultures
II Anno
Corso di Laurea Triennale in "Lingue, Culture e Letterature Straniere"

Libro di Testo:

© Maria Grazia Guido, *Mediating Cultures: A Cognitive Approach to English Discourse for the Social Sciences*. Milano: LED Edizioni Universitarie.

(Disponibile online al sito: https://www.amazon.it/Mediating-cultures-cognitive-approach-discourse/dp/8879162632/ref=pd_ybh_a_26?_encoding=UTF8&psc=1&refRID=SJ3HXVVP1JF87SFRVBM6).
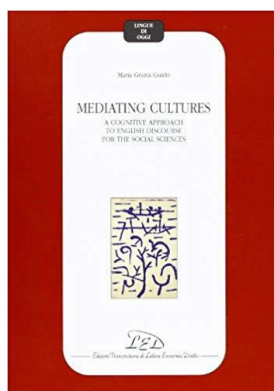
Lezioni: Parti del Libro di Testo da studiare *con compendio degli argomenti:*

Focus on Intercultural Communication through English as a Lingua Franca. Communication asymmetries. Communication failure in intra-cultural and inter-cultural specialized discourse.

Introduction: Sections 1 and 2.

Course Aim & Focus

Aim:
- to introduce functional, cognitive-semantic, and pragmatic concepts into the description of syntactic structures;
- to apply them to the use of English as a 'lingua franca' in social contexts of intercultural communication.

Focus: *Intercultural Communication*
- Interaction between people from different communities e.g., different cultures, languages, nationalities, or ethnic groups;
- Communication asymmetries in power relations, social, institutional, or professional status, age, gender, and religion informing pragmatic uses within the same community.

Communication asymmetries

Asymmetries make social interactions difficult:
- People have not developed common conceptual, 'experiential' systems (or schemata) to view and interpret communicative situations in the same way.

Communication failure occurs when interacting people:
- do not share the same native language (and so they have to resort to a 'lingua franca' to communicate)
- share the same native language, but not the same 'socio-cultural' background.

Professional aim:
- Urgent need for experts in intercultural mediation operating in today's multicultural societies.
- Use of English as a 'lingua franca' within intercultural working contexts.

Application:
- socio-cultural, institutional and community mediation (e.g., interaction with ethnic and linguistic minorities);
- professional interaction by means of social, political, economic & in general specialized genres and registers.

1

Definition of Linguistics: Language as Cognition. Noam Chomsky's Transformational-Generative Grammar: Surface and Deep Structures and Universal Grammar Principles. Variable parameters of world's languages. The Language Acquisition Device.

Module 1. Sections: 1.1; *1.2.4*.

Definition of Linguistics
Linguistics is the scientific study of human language. As such, it regards:
- *cognition* (i.e., the way in which language structures thoughts in the human mind)
and
- *communication* (i.e., the way in which language serves social interaction).
As we acquire language during childhood, we also discover:
- our identity as *individuals* (we use it to refer to ourselves and our ideas or opinions)
- our identity as *social beings* (when we communicate with other people).
Theory: Focus on Language as Cognition
Noam Chomsky's *Transformational-Generative Grammar*:
- the aim of Linguistics is *to understand language structure in order to understand the processes of the human mind*.
Languages have a double structure:
- Surface structure - different in every language, with different rules that govern pronunciation, word formation and sentence construction.
- Deep structure - the same in all languages, reflecting universal rules.
- Chomsky: Language Acquisition Device (LAD) genetically programmed in the human brain.
LAD provides:
- common grammatical principles, or Universal Grammar (UG)
- variable parameters adapting principles to the varying 'settings' of the different languages.
- Language as cognitive, abstract knowledge detached from social contexts of its occurrence.

Language as Communication; Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar: Ideational, Interpersonal and Textual Functions of Language. Language as Social Semiotics.

Module 1. Section: *1.3.4*.

Theory: Focus on Language as Communication
Michael Halliday's *Systemic-Functional Grammar*:
- the aim of Linguistics is to study language as **social semiotic**, i.e., as *a system of signs that have been developed to serve the communicative needs of people living in a social context*.
Language has evolved within a specific community to fulfil three functions:
- Ideational Function (thinking with language to interpret experience)
- Interpersonal Function (acting with language to achieve communication)
- Textual Function (linguistic organization of a message)
- Functions realized differently in different languages because coded into semantic & syntactic structures reflecting different 'social semiotic' of different communities.

Cognitive-Functional Grammar: The Experientialist perspective. De Saussure's Synchronic Linguistics and the sign/sound arbitrariness: focus on object/concept as Signified and word/sound as Signifier.

Module 1. Section: 1.4; Tasks: *1.4.2; 1.4.3*

Theory: The Experientialist Perspective
- *Cognitive-Functional Grammar*
- (Experientialist approach to Cognitive Linguistics - Lakoff and Johnson 1980; Sweetser 1990; Langacker 1991) which brings together Generative and Functional grammars.
- *Language is grounded in human cognition since it is a conceptual system emerging from everyday experience of physical and socio-cultural environments.*
Theory: Saussure's Synchronic Linguistics
- Synchronic linguistics studies the present state of a language. As such it ignores language evolution and supports the concept of *arbitrariness*.
- Ferdinand de Saussure: words are arbitrarily associated with the real things they refer to.
- *(different words in different languages indicate the same thing)*
- Saussure's theory of the **Sign**:
- the *same concept* (e.g. of a 'tree'), or ***signified***, is arbitrarily associated with *different words*, or ***signifiers***, in different languages.

Diachronic Linguistics. Focus on the non-arbitrary common roots of words. E. Sweetser's Experientialist Theory. Experiential view of speech sounds: non-arbitrary Auditory/Visual Schemata.

Module 2. Sections: 1.5 (*1.5.1*); 1.6 (*1.6.1).*

Theory: Sweetser's Diachronic Linguistics
- **Diachronic linguistics** studies the evolution of a language over time. As such it maintains that the sounds of languages originate from a **non-arbitrary 'common root'** reproducing people's initial physical experience of the world through the five senses.
- e.g.: noise of a dog in various languages derives from the same original root-sound /**b**/: "**b**ark" (English); "a**bb**aiare" (Italian); "a**b**oyer" (French); "**b**ellen" (German).
- **Eve Sweetser**: cognitive structure accounting for **non-arbitrary** meaning associations between:
- a **conceptualization** of the experience of real objects and events
- the **sound of words** associated with objects and events.

Experiential View of Speech Sounds
- **Experientialism**: **non-arbitrary association between auditory/ image-schemata.**
- **onomatopoeic words**, reproducing the sound of the thing or action they stand for, thus evoking:
- an **auditory schema** of that thing or action;
- a **visual schema** (or mental image) of that thing or event.
- **e.g.: auditory/visual schema:**
- sti**ck**, brea**k**, cra**ck** = **/k/** 'sharp noise of splitting wood'
- **cr**ack, **cr**umble, **cr**ash = **/kr/** 'something being destroyed'
- cra**sh**, sma**sh**, spla**sh**, **sh**ed = /ʃ/ 'the spreading of something liquid or reduced to smithereens'.
- Onomatopoeic words can help **interlinguistic communication** (e.g., advertisement, comic strips, etc.)

Phonemes and allophones; language variation and social identity.

Module 2. Section 1.6 *(1.6.2, 1.6.5)*

Phonemes and Allophones
- **Phonetics** studies the articulatory and acoustic properties of the sounds of a language - i.e., how such sounds are produced by speakers and perceived by hearers.
- a **phoneme** is the idealization of a single sound represented by a symbol enclosed in // (as in IPA)
- **allophones** are the various realizations of the same phoneme represented by symbols enclosed in [ ] (e.g., as **/r/** differently realized in British and American English)
- *Allophones* are various realizations of a phoneme according to:
- the ***phonetic environment*** in which the phoneme occurs (i.e., phonetic context of word or phrase) – e.g.: pot [phɒt]; spot [spɒt]
- the different ***variations*** of a language – e.g.: /r/ in British vs. American English & in Asian languages /r/ = [l]

Language Variation as Social Identity
- **Language variation**: *varieties*, *dialects*, and *accents*.
- **Varieties** are general variations occurring within the code of a language (e.g., British and American varieties of English).
- **Dialects** are regional varieties differ from the standard code with respect to morphology, lexicon, syntax, phonology.
- **Accents** are regional or social varieties only differing with respect to phonology (i.e., various American, British, Australian accents).
- **Accent variation:** *social dimension* related to status and prestige.
- In Britain, the prestige accent is the ***Standard English*** (the variety of south-east of England), also called ***Received Pronunciation*** and codified in the *International Phonetic Alphabet*.
- *Allophones* mark the ***speaker's identity***, revealing the human group a speaker belongs to.

Varieties, dialects and accents; social dimension of accent variation. Standard English and the International Phonetic Alphabet. Diatopic variations of English (native/second language and foreign variations) and Diastratic variations (depending on speakers's social status). Cockney examples. Diatopic and diastratic assessment of foreign accents: the case of Iraqi and Egyptian Englishes. Pidgin and Creole varieties of English and socio-cultural issues. **Text**: syntactic features of Nigerian Pidgin English.

Module 3. Section 1.7 (*1.7.1, 1.7.2*).

Types of Language Variation
- **Diatopic Variation**, depending on the *place* where it occurs.
- English spoken as:
(a) native language in England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland, Canada, Australia, the East/West Coasts of the United States;
(b) second language in the ex British colonies of Africa, Middle East, South-East Asia, etc. and within communities of immigrants living in English-speaking countries;
(c) foreign language or as a ***lingua franca*** in intercultural or international communication

- **Diastratic Variation**, depending of the *social status* of its speakers.
- e.g.: English spoken by: London working classes (Cockney); New-York Jews; east-coast WASPs; 'Oxbridge' intelligentsia; etc.
- *e.g. Iraqi vs. Egyptian English*
- Diastratic assessment of social status on diatopic basis: *pidgin* and *creole* varieties of English spoken by people from ex British colonies.
- **Pidgin**: simplified version of non-native language developed in colonial contexts by indigenous populations for trade or official/bureaucratic contacts. As such, it contains lexical and grammatical 'transfers' from indigenous languages.
- **Creole**: developed from a pidgin by acquiring a more complex grammar. As such, it can have native speakers.
- Refusal to conform to standard-language variety = 'language of colonizers'
- Pidgin/creole varieties as expressions of national, socio-cultural identities.
- Rejection of standard orthography: e.g.: *Nigerian Pidgin English* and *Sierra Leone Krio (creole) English* **(see NPE text)**

Acculturation caused by integrative motivations vs. Pidginization and Creolization.
Module 3. Section *1.7.6.*

Acculturation (Schumann 1978): the process by which people get adapted to a new culture by 'internalizing' its systems of thought and beliefs together with its system of communication through its language (cf. Indian and South-East Asian people dropping local-English accents for a Standard-English pronunciation)
- People who 'acculturate' to a new language have an **integrative motivation**, involving their use of language to mark them as members of the social group they want to belong to. **(Text "Trimming tongues in South Korea")**
- Conversely, if they want to mark their socio-cultural and psychological distance from the dominant social group who imposing its own language, then ***pidginization*** and ***creolization*** prevail.

Internal and External Grammar: Semantics(cognition), Syntax (structure) and Pragmatics (communication). Propositions (macro/micro-structures); Text/Sentence; Discourse/Utterance.
Module 4. Section 2.1.

Internal and External Grammar
Grammar is not simply a decontextualized set of rules, but it reflects the mental categorization of the experience of the world developed over time by a community of people.
This mental, ***internal grammar*** becomes ***external grammar*** when the same community of people needs to use it in social interaction.
Grammar Dimensions
Three fundamental dimensions of Grammar:
<u>**Semantics**</u> explores the mental, ***internal grammar*** of a language. The study of *sense relations*, organized into **mental propositions** that conceptualize ***microstructures*** (at the basis of *sentences*) and ***macrostructures*** (at the basis of *texts*). (***Cognitive*** dimension of language)
<u>**Syntax**</u> studies the way the internal grammar is actualized into language structures.The study of how **sentences** (*clauses* & *phrases*) are structured and, then, connected with each other into a **text** to express mental sense relations. (***Structural*** dimension of language)
<u>**Pragmatics**</u> investigates the social, ***external grammar*** of a language. The study of what people mean when they actualize *sentences* into **utterances** and *texts* into **discourses** in social life. (***Communicative*** dimension)

Verb Grammar: Tense (time) and Aspect (perspective). Present Tense: different perspectives on processes. Simple and Perfect Aspects. Present Simple: semantic dimension, image schema. Focus on 'regularity'. Present Perfect: semantic dimensions; image schema: focus on duration. The Duration Form: image schemata of 'Over', 'For' & 'Since'. Metaphorical use of Present Perfect: Image schema for 'current relevance of past processes'. Chomsky's Transformational Syntax: sentence, clause, phrase; Verb/Noun-Phrases. Inflectional Node as Finite Operator. Tense Agreement. Syntax: Present Simple and Present Perfect: image schemata of I-Node and Fronting movements of Auxiliaries.
Module 4. Sections: 2.2 (*2.2.1, 2.2.2*); 2.3 (*2.3.1, 2.3.2*).

Present Simple and Present Perfect
Semantic Dimensions of the Verb: TENSE
- **Verbs** indicate **processes** of the real world that can be principally:
- **mental** (to think, to imagine, etc.),
- **material** (to go, to come, to eat, etc.),
- **verbal** (to speak, to tell, etc.).
- Processes occur at a particular **time**: in the **past**, **present**, or **future**.
<u>The semantic category of time in reference to a process</u> (i.e., the way we conceive in our mind a process that takes place at a certain period of time) <u>is called **TENSE.**</u>
- **PRESENT TENSE**: a process occurring in a period of time that includes also the present time.
It principally indicates:
(a) a process that is habitual during the current period of time
(b) a process that started in the past and continues in the present

Present Simple and Present Perfect
Semantic Dimensions of the Verb: ASPECT
- **ASPECT** indicates **different perspectives** on a process.
- Cases *(a)* and *(b)* in the Present Tense: both processes occur in the **present time**:
(a) **I travel** to Lecce every week to attend an English course. *(Regular, habitual process)*
(b) I **have travelled** to Lecce during the last two years to attend an English course. *(A process that has persisted for two years and continues also in the present time)*
- Although *(a)* and *(b)* mean the same thing, the perspective on the process is different, because two different **ASPECTS** of the process are emphasized:
(a) **regularity**, and
(b) **duration**.
- The ASPECT of the PRESENT TENSE that indicates **regularity** is called **SIMPLE** ASPECT
- The ASPECT of the PRESENT TENSE that indicates **duration** is called **PERFECT** ASPECT

Two ASPECTS of PRESENT TENSE:
(a) PRESENT SIMPLE - focusing on the current time in which the process occurs.
- The perspective is that of considering a period of time - past and present times - as PRESENT.
e.g.: 'this morning', 'today', 'this week', 'this year'. But not 'yesterday', or 'last week' (they do not include the present time).
Two ASPECTS of PRESENT TENSE:
(b) PRESENT PERFECT - although the action started in the past, it lasts also in the present.
- Time-perspective on the **duration** of process as a whole, a complete ("perfect") period of time that includes past and present but, again, is perceived by the speaker as PRESENT.
(b) PRESENT PERFECT:
Duration is signalled by the following *prepositions*:
1. Over - indicating the *whole period* under consideration, including the present time:
e.g.: **Over** the last 20 years, Europe has faced important social changes.
2. For - indicating the *duration* of the period under consideration, up to the present time:
e.g.: **For** the last 20 years, Europe has faced important social changes.
3. Since - indicating the *starting point* of the period under consideration, that continues up to the present time:
e.g.: **Since** 1982, Europe has faced important social changes.
(b) PRESENT PERFECT:
Notice the different semantic sense between:
(a) I saw that horror movie.
(b) I've seen that horror movie.
(1) Then, I had dinner with my friends.
(2) I'm still quite distressed.
In *(b)* there is a **Metaphorical use of the Present Perfect** - i.e., when the process took place in the *past* and has **current relevance** in the *present*.
Duration, in this case, is not chronological, but 'metaphorically' psychological, depending on the Speaker's subjective perception of a past action as *relevant* to the present time.

CHOMSKY'S TRANSFORMATIONAL SYNTAX + HALLIDAY'S FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR
Sentence = *Periodo*
Clause (part of a sentence containing a Verb) = *Frase*
Phrase (part of a clause) = *Sintagma*
- **NP = Noun Phrase** - composed by *(a)* one Noun or Pronoun, or *(b)* a Noun Group (Specifier + Noun)
- **VP = Verb Phrase** - composed by *(a)* a Verb, or *(b)* part of a Verb form, or *(c)* a Specifier + a Verb form.
- **I-Node = Inflectional Node** (Chomsky) or **Finite Operator** (Halliday) the Verb form that carries the *inflection for Tense* in a Clause.
The I-Node establishes the **Tense Agreement** between *Subjects* and *Verbs* (*e.g.:* Singular/Plural)
e.g.:
Present Tense = [+ Tense, + present] [+ Agr]
Past Tense = [+ Tense, - present] [+Agr]

SYNTAX: PRESENT PERFECT - Inflectional Node & Movements (+ aspectual auxiliary *have* in the I-Node)
- The **Aspectual Auxiliary *have/has*** is the *I-Node* and *Finite Operator* of the Sentence.
- The **Main Verb** in the Verb Phrase is a *Non-Finite Predicator*.
- *Non-Finite* forms of the Verb: Infinitive; Present Participle/Gerund; Past Participle.

Pragmatics: Present Simple and Perfect in Discourse; Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough); Present Simple and Perfect: Pragmatics. 'Simple' connotations. 'Perfect' connotations: 'present relevance of a past process'. **Text 10**: New-Labour Politicians on "Social Exclusion": Critical Discourse Analysis.

Module 4. Section 2.4; *2.4.1, 2.4.2:* **Text 10**. Section *2.4.7 +* **Text** *"Worker 1".*

Pragmatics:
Present Simple and Perfect in Discourse
Pragmatics concerns communication - focusing on the message that speakers/writers intend to communicate to listeners/readers.
- To achieve their communicative goals (e.g.: to convince, to advise, to threaten, to inform, etc.) speakers and writers **manipulate** language to produce their intended effects on receivers. (**Critical Discourse Analysis** - Norman Fairclough)
- **Denotation** = semantic sense
- **Connotation** = pragmatic meaning implication
- **Present Simple**:
Denotation = semantic representation of *mere facts*.
Connotation = presentation of *factual truths without any subjective comment - even without any affective involvement - from the Speaker*.
Pragmatic function of the Present Simple: expressing *objective facts* with the Speaker's intervention and involvement reduced to the minimum.
- **Present Perfect**:
Denotation = *duration*
Connotation = focus on the *experience,* or, *present relevance of a past process* to express the *psychological, subjective involvement of the Speaker in what s/he says*.

Text 10: New Labour on 'Social Exclusion' (quotations from Tony Blair)
Social exclusion **is** about income but **it is** about more. **It is** about prospects and networks and life chances. **It's** a very modern problem, and one that **is** more harmful to the individual, more damaging to self-esteem, more corrosive for society as a whole, more likely to be passed down from generation to generation, than material poverty.
(From: Tony Blair's speech for The Social Exclusion Unit, 8 Dec. 1997, leaflet, London: The Cabinet Office)

Text 10: New Labour on 'Social Exclusion' (quotations from Harriet Harman)
Work **is** central to the Government's attack on social exclusion. Work **is** the only way to financial independence. But **is** also much more. Work **is** not just about earning a living. It **is** a way of life. [...] Work **helps** to fulfil our aspirations - it **is** the key to independence, self-respect and opportunities for advancement. [...] Work **brings** a sense of order that **is** missing from the lives of many unemployed young men. [...] The socially excluded and their families **are** trapped in dependency. They **inhabit** a parallel world where: income **derives** from benefits, not work; where school **is** an option not a key to opportunity; and where the dominant influence on young people **is** the culture of the street, not the values that bind families and communities together.
(From: Harriet Harman's speech at the launching of the Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion, 13 Nov. 1997, London School of Economics)

Text: "Worker 1": The English pub-goer
"All you have to do is to go into any pub or club, that's where the work is. I've seen him [the hirer] just drive off in his van around the pubs and he will come back with another twenty men to work, an hour later. No one asks any questions. It's a matter of us being cheaper. It's definitely easier than having a lot of lads taken on permanently. […] It's just the flexibility. You're just there for when the jobs come up, and he will come and get you where you're needed. You need to be on the dole to be able to do that. Otherwise you'd be sitting there for half the year with no work and no money at all."

Time sequence: Past Simple and Past Perfect: Syntax and Image Schemata of I-Node and auxiliary movements. Past Simple: Semantics (cf. Present Perfect). Past Perfect: Syntax and Semantics. Pragmatics of Past Simple and Perfect as chronological and psychological correlation. **Text 11**: "Why Unhappy Childhood = Successful, Happy Life".

Module 5. Sections: 2.5 (*2.5.1, 2.5.2*); 2.6 (*2.6.1, 2.6.2*); 2.7; *2.7.1:* **Text 11**.

Time-Sequence: *Past Simple* **and** *Past Perfect*
Past Simple: **Syntax**
   The *Past Simple* in regular verbs is formed by adding *-ed* to the *Infinitive* without 'to':
   • *e.g.:*
   • Infinitive: *to work*   Past Simple: *worked*
   • Verbs ending in *e* add *-d* only:
   • Infinitive: *to love*   Past Simple: *loved*
   • Verbs ending in *y* following a consonant, change the *y* into *i* before adding *-ed*:
   • Infinitive: *to carry*   Past Simple: *carried*
   • But *y* following a vowel does not change:
   • Infinitive: *to obey*   Past Simple: *obeyed*

Time-Sequence: *Past Simple* **and** *Past Perfect*
Past Simple: **Semantics**
>   The *Past Simple* is used:
>   • For a past action when the time is given
>   • I *worked* with him *yesterday*.
>   • When the time is asked about
>   • *When did* you *work* with him?
>   • When the action clearly took place at a definite time even if this time is not mentioned
>   • The train *was* ten minutes late.
>   • She *lived* in London *some years ago*.

Notice the difference between the use of *Past Simple* and *Present Perfect*:
>   *(a)* I *worked* with Peter this morning. *(Past Simple)*
>   *(b)* I *have worked* with Peter this morning. *(Present Perfect)*
>   *(a)* is said in the afternoon, or in the evening, of the same day: the morning is, therefore, perceived by the Speaker as *Past*.
>   *(b)* is said in the same morning: the morning has not yet passed, so it is perceived by the Speaker as *Present*.

Time-Sequence: *Past Simple* **and** *Past Perfect*
Past Perfect: **Syntax - Inflectional Node & Movements (+ aspectual auxiliary *had* in the I-Node, followed by the Past Participle of the Main Verb)**
- Aspectual auxiliary *had* = *Finite Operator* carries the *Past Tense inflection*, representing the *I-Node* of the sentence [- present].
- *Past Participle* of the *Main Verb* ('work') represents the **Non-Finite Predicator**.

>   • *Past Perfect Interrogative*:
>   • *Subject-auxiliary inversion movement*: *fronting* of the aspectual auxiliary *had* to add a special emphasis to the Interrogative form:
>   • *had I* worked?; *had you* worked?; *had he/she/it* worked?; *had we/you/they* worked?

Time-Sequence: *Past Simple* **and** *Past Perfect*
Past Perfect: **Semantics**
>   The **Past Perfect** is used for an action (or process) which began before another action in the past, and
>   • *(a)* was still continuing at that time, or
>   • *(b)* stopped at that time, or some time before it.
>   • *e.g.:*
>   • *(a)* She *had worked* as a welfare officer in the hospital for ten years; then she *retired* and *went* to live in Rome.
>   • *(b)* Jane *was* 23 years old when she *moved* to London. Her mother *had died* five years before and since then Jane *had lived* alone. Her mother *had advised* her to get a job, and Jane *intended* to follow this advice.
>   • The *Past Perfect* indicates a time in the past that is more remote than the time signalled by another verb in the *Past Simple* within the same sentence.

Pragmatics of *Past Simple* **and** *Perfect*
The time-correlation in semantics is also reflected in the pragmatics of actual discourse, where Past Simple and Past Perfect are always correlated into a time-sequence to convey the idea of *the experiential relevance of a past action to a subsequent past action*.

Text 11: 'Why Unhappy Childhood = Successful, Happy Life'
Freud elaborated the theory that what happens to you in childhood influences the rest of your life. It has become normal to blame bad behaviour on the fact that your schoolmates bullied you at school. Cause and effect. Case closed. Yet, many people use their early unhappy experiences to help them find the strength and energy to fuel their life's work.
Bridget W. is a successful TV executive who is convinced that her difficult childhood prepared her for the business world. "As a child, growing up with an alcoholic father and a depressed mother, I learned to disconnect from my feelings," she says. "That enabled me to be ruthless in business. Knowing that I had undergone such trauma, and had survived, helped me to deal with the stress on the workplace."
Psychotherapist Maggie M., who works at London therapy centre Spectrum, illustrates how the most awful early events can have positive effects on adult life. "In my childhood I had experienced alcoholism in both parents before I decided to help other alcohol-addicted people" she says. "One of the things I did to survive was to become very watchful - of nuances in people's state of mind and how I needed to behave. So, I had developed keen observation skills with my parents before I applied them to the listening to tone of voice, and the watching for tension in the body of my patients as a physiotherapist and then as a psychotherapist." Stories abound of self-made people who had suffered as children and then reinvented themselves successfully as adults.
>   (Adapted from: Wendy Bristow, "Why Unhappy Childhood = Successful, Happy Life", *Cosmopolitan*, UK)

The Continuous Aspect: additional perspective to Simple and Perfect Aspects: Present Simple Continuous. Syntax (I-Node) and Semantic implications (Image Schemata). Past Simple Continuous: Syntax and Semantics (I-Node and Image-schema activations). Present Perfect Continuous: Syntax (auxiliary structure in the I-Node – multiple auxiliaries) and semantic implications (image schema activations). Pragmatic effects. Past Perfect Continuous: Syntax and Semantics (I-Node and Image schemata).

Module 7. Sections: 3.1; *3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.1.3, 3.1.4*; 3.2; *3.2.1, 3.2.2, 3.2.3, 3.2.4*; 3.3; *3.3.1:* **Text 14**.

The Continuous Aspect

The time coordinates of *Past* and *Present* mark the Verb for **Tense**.

Verb is additionally marked for **Aspect**.

So far, exploration of only two Aspects of the verb:
- *Simple Aspect* (the period of time over which the regular process takes place is left unspecified – it may go on in the future and we don't know when it started in the past)
- *Perfect Aspect* (the process takes place within a concluded period of time and the focus is on its duration)

e.g.:

- I work *(it may go on in the future – Present Simple)*
- I worked *(we may not know when it started in the past – Past Simple)*
- I have worked *(for a period up to now – Present Perfect)*
- I had worked *(for a period before another action occurred in the past – Past Perfect)*

Another Aspect of the Verb:

Continuous Aspect (or **Progressive**). It can be associated to the *Present* and *Past Tenses*, but also to the *Simple* and *Perfect Aspects*.

It indicates that *the process represented by the verb is taking place over an open and extended period of time*.

The Continuous Aspect – *Present Simple Continuous:* Syntax

The **Present Simple Continuous** is formed with the *Present Simple* of the *aspectual auxiliary be* + the **Present Participle** *of the Main Verb* morphologically marked by the *-ing suffix*.

e.g.: work = working (work^ing)
- Exceptions:
- Verbs ending in a single *e*: the *e* is dropped before the *-ing* suffix [but for *age (invecchiare)* and *dye (tingere)*]
- *e.g.:* lov**e** - lov^ing; hat**e** - hat^ing; *exceptions:* ag**e** - ag**e**^ing; dy**e** - dy**e**^ing
- Verbs ending in *y*: *-ing* suffix added without modification
- *e.g.:* hurr**y** - hurry^ing; marr**y** - marry^ing; enjo**y** - enjoy^ing (cf. hurr**i**^ed; marr**i**^ed; enjo**y**^ed)
- Verbs of one syllable with one vowel, ending in a single consonant: this consonant is doubled before suffix *- ing* is attached
- *e.g.:* stop - sto**pp**^ing; shop - sho**pp**^ing; run - ru**nn**^ing.
- Verbs of two or more syllables, with the last syllable containing only one vowel and ending with a single consonant: this single consonant is doubled before the suffix *-ing* only if the stress falls on the last syllable
- *e.g.:* pre'fer - prefe**rr**^ing; be'gin - begi**nn**^ing, *but:* 'enter - enter^ing
- Verbs ending in *l* after a single vowel: the *l* is always doubled in British English (not in American English)
- *e.g.:* travel - trave**ll**^ing; signal - signa**ll**^ing

The Continuous Aspect – *Present Simple Continuous:* Semantics

The **Present Simple Continuous** is used to indicate an ongoing process ('continuous', 'in progress') happening in the present time. More specifically:

(a) A process (e.g., an action) happening **now**, at the moment of speaking:
- *e.g.:* She *is* read*ing*.
- Why are you wearing a coat? - I'm wearing a coat because it is cold.

(b) A process happening **about this present time** but not necessarily at the moment of speaking:
- *e.g.:* I *am* read*ing* a sociology text. (in *this* period)
- She is working at the local Family-Planning Centre.

(c) A process that is repeated frequently, which annoys the speaker. In this case, the frequency adverb *always* is added for emphasis:
- *e.g.:* She is always losing her glasses.

(d) A definite plan in the near future:
- *e.g.:* I'*m* work*ing tomorrow*.
- *Are* you do*ing* anything *tomorrow* evening? - Yes, I'*m* meet*ing* my colleagues.

Past Simple Continuous

Syntax: The Past Simple Continuous is formed by the *Past Simple* of the *aspectual auxiliary be* + the **Present Participle** of the Main Verb, marked by the *-ing suffix:*
- I/he/she/it *was* work*ing* - we/you they *were* work*ing*

Semantics: The Past Simple Continuous is used to indicate:

(a) A developing process started in the past and continued for some time, without specifying the exact time of its beginning and end as this is uncertain, or not known, or irrelevant:
- *e.g.:* The patient was recovering.

Past Simple Continuous: <u>**Semantics**</u>

(b) A past process that began before a specific point in the past and probably continued after it:
- *e.g.:* When I *arrived*, Jane *was watching* TV.
- *At eight* she *was sleeping*.

Present Perfect Continuous: <u>**Syntax**</u>
- So far: sentences containing only one auxiliary verb. But auxiliaries can combine, as in the ***Present Perfect Continuous*** composed by the *Present Perfect* of the verb ***be*** (*have been*) + the ***Present Participle*** of the Main Verb.
- Here, there are two aspectual auxiliaries (***have*** and ***be***).
- The first auxiliary (***have***) carries Tense and represents the ***Finite Operator*** of the sentence, determining its ***Inflectional Node***.
- The other auxiliary (***be***) and the Main Verb are instead ***Non-Finite*** and, as such, represent the ***Predicator***.

Present Perfect Continuous: <u>**Semantics**</u>
- The Present Perfect Continuous is used to indicate:

(a) An action which began in the past and is still continuing without interruption:
- *e.g.:* I *have been working* for an hour.

(b) An action which began in the past and is still continuing with normal, periodical interruptions that the speaker wants to ignore in order to emphasize a sense of constancy in doing it:
- *e.g.:* I *have been working* on this project for more than a year.

Present Perfect Continuous: <u>**Pragmatic Implications**</u>
- Consider the difference between:

(1) I *have studied* English for three years.

(2) I *have been studying* English for three years.
- (1): no emphasis on the action of studying English, only indication of its duration.
- (2): emphasis on such an action and its duration.

   Pragmatic effects: the speaker of sentence (2) may intend to communicate to his/her listeners a sense of frustration at not achieving the expected results, or a sense of pride at being so hardworking.

Past Perfect Continuous:

   <u>**Syntax:**</u> the Past Perfect Continuous is formed by the two aspectual auxiliaries: ***had been*** + the ***Present Participle*** of the Main Verb. The first auxiliary ***had*** carries the Tense and, thus, represents the *Finite Operator* of the sentence:
- *e.g.:* I ***had been*** work***ing*** (the same form for all the other persons)

   <u>**Semantics:**</u> the Past Perfect Continuous is used in a time-sequence with the *Past Simple* to indicate:

(a) A process that began before the moment of speaking in the past, and continued without interruption up to that moment, or stopped just before it:
- *e.g.:* At eleven p.m. she *was tired* because she *had been working* all day.

(b) A repeated process in the past that is expressed as a continuous process to add emphasis:
- *e.g.:* She *had been trying* several times to pass the exam / before she passed the exam.

Past Perfect Continuous: <u>**Pragmatic Implications**</u>
- Now consider the difference between:

(1) I *had studied* English for three years before I moved to London

(2) I *had been studying* English for three years before I moved to London
- (1): no emphasis on the action of studying English.
- (2): pragmatic emphasis on the assiduity of the Speaker in carrying out such a process.

Text 14: 'The Growing Problem of Teenage Pregnancy'

By the end of this year around 117,000 teenage girls <u>are becoming</u> pregnant and more than 8,000 of them <u>are being</u> under 16 - that is, below the age of consent. These shocking figures mean that the United Kingdom has the highest teenage birth rate in Western Europe. Teenage pregnancy <u>is becoming</u> a national scandal. But now, at last, politicians <u>are acting</u> upon this problem. A new government paper, *Health of the Nation*, <u>is determining</u> the necessary targets to reduce the growing numbers and <u>is aiming</u> to halve pregnancies to the under 16s by the end of next year.

The question now is: why, with the present global education, the many more opportunities for women, and effective contraception more widely available, <u>are</u> Britain's young women still <u>putting</u> their future existences at risk by having unplanned pregnancies?

The answer is, apart from the scarcity of good sex-education at school and special family-planning services for young people, there are many young women who <u>are feeling</u> that the present period of recession and unemployment offers little prospect of a job and the independence that mark them as an adult. Early sexual experience, therefore, <u>is presenting</u> itself as a preferable alternative to teenagers.

(Adapted from: D. Massey, "The Growing Problem of Teenage Pregnancy", *Cosmopolitan*, UK)

Mood and Modality. English and Italian notions of Future. Future expressed by: (1) Present Simple; (2) Present Continuous; (3) Present Continuous with 'to be going to'. Degrees of certainty in the Future. English and Italian notions of Future. Future expressed by: (1) Present Simple; (2) Present Continuous; (3) Present Continuous with 'to be going to'. Degrees of certainty in the Future. Modalized Present Tense expressing Future: Modal Auxiliaries 'shall' and 'will'. Syntax of the Future Simple: I-Node; Semantic implications of 'shall' and 'will'. Future Perfect: Syntax and Semantics. Future Simple Continuous and Future Perfect Continuous: Syntax and Semantics. Pragmatic dimensions of the Future in institutional discourse: Critical Discourse Analysis. **Text 19**: "Tony Blair on Education: Leadership in Government".

Module 10. Sections: 4.1; 4.2 (*4.2.1, 4.2.2, 4.2.3*), 4.3; *4.3.1, 4.3.2, 4.3.3, 4.3.4, 4.3.5*; 4.4; *4.4.1, 4.4.2:* **Text 19**.

Mood and Modality: English & Italian Notions of 'Future'
Two concepts of Verb Grammar:
- *Mood* & *Modality* (Halliday 1994)
- **Mood** = grammatical category related to the **factual** meaning of a verb.
- *in Italian:* three Moods = *Indicative*, *Subjunctive*, and *Conditional*
- *in English:* one Mood = *Indicative Mood* + **Modality** (a modification of the Indicative Mood by modifying its perspective)
- Function of English **Indicative Mood**: to 'state facts'
- e.g.: "I live in Rome"
- Function of **Modality**: to introduce **non-factual** elements = the so-called **modal verbs**, or **modal auxiliaries** (*can/could, may/might, will/would, shall/should, must*, etc.)
- e.g.: "I *can* live in Rome"
- (a) "I live in Rome"
- (b) "I *can* live in Rome"
- *In English*, both sentences are marked by the Simple Aspect
- *In Italian*, "io vivo a Roma" and "io posso vivere a Roma", are both labelled as *Presente Indicativo*: the aspectual category 'Simple' is not recognized in the Italian language.
- Function of the English *Simple Aspect*: to render the idea of *permanence of a state*, or *regularity of a process.* A function that in Italian is associated with the Indicative Mood.
- Italian notion of Indicative associated also with the **Future Tense**, which does not exist in English.
- Only two Time categories in English: *Past & Present*, signalled by the two corresponding Tenses: *Past & Present Tenses*.
- The English language *has no specific semantic categories for the Future, which is in fact syntactically rendered by the Present Tense*.
- **In English:**
- *Past Tense* excludes present and future times
- *Present Tense* is potentially inclusive of all time - **Future**, therefore, is an implicit condition of the Present Tense.

Future expressed by the Present Simple
The more certain we are about a future process, the more we use the **Present Simple**. The less certain we are, the more we use **Modality**.
- *e.g.:*
- Jack leaves *tomorrow*
- The train leaves *in ten minutes*
- *Present Simple* used when the Speaker refers to a *future event that is already scheduled*.
- *e.g.:*
- The Queen *goes* to Australia *next week*.

Future expressed by the Present Continuous
Difference between:
(a) She *leaves* on Thursday.
(b) She *is leaving* on Thursday.
(a): the action of 'leaving' is already scheduled and the Subject ('she') will not change her mind.
(b): definite arrangement in the near future but there are more probabilities that 'she' changes her mind.
- *e.g.:*
- I *am taking* an exam in October.
- Tom and Jim *are meeting* tomorrow.

Future expressed by *To Be Going To*

Present Continuous of the verb *to go* + the *to-Infinitive of the main verb*.
(a) She *is going to* leave.
(b) I*'m not going to* come to the conference.
This structure is used to express:
• The Subject's *intention* to do, or not to do, a certain future process, but without the idea of a definite arrangement expressed by the Present Continuous
(c) He is going to be a psychotherapist when he grows up.
(d) What are you going to do when you get your degree?
• The Speaker's *prediction* of a process expected to happen in the near future. This prediction is determined by the Speaker's feeling of certainty based on present evidence.
(e) It's going to rain. Look at those clouds!
(f) Look how pale that girl is! I think she is going to faint.

Modalized Present Tense Expressing Future - Modal Auxiliaries *Shall* and *Will*

- **Modal auxiliaries** (or **modals**) *will/would*, *shall/should*, *can/could*, *may/might*, *must* (and few others named *semi-modals*).
- Like the other types of auxiliaries, modals are always *Finite* since they carry Tense (i.e., they represent the Inflectional Node of the sentence).
• The modals *will*, *shall* (and also *can*, *may*, and *must*) are inflected in the **Present Tense**.
• (They take neither the *-s* for the third person singular of the Present Tense, nor *-ed* for the Past Tense)
• They signal the Present Tense, but they also mark a chronological **Future Time**
• Focus on the two modals which, more explicitly than the others, convey the notion of *futurity*: **will** and **shall**.

Future Simple with Modal Auxiliaries: Syntax
• The **Future Simple** does not exist in English, it is a **modalized form of Present Simple.** This traditional grammatical label used only to facilitate our discussion.
• *Future Simple* is formed by the modal auxiliaries **will** or **shall** + the *Infinitive without to of the Main Verb*.
• The image schema of the *Affirmative* form is the same for all the personal pronouns.
• The auxiliary modal *will* (and also *shall*) is marked as **+present** in the I-Node, which means that the Tense it signals is the Present.

Future Simple with Modal Auxiliaries: Semantics
The modal auxiliaries *will* and *shall* are not interchangeable because each of them conveys a different meaning:
- **Will** indicates *intention* and *volition*.
• *(a)* I *will* wait for you. (I *intend/want* to wait for you)
- **Shall** indicates *determination* or *obligation*.
• *(b)* I *shall* wait for you (I*'m determined/obliged* to wait for you)
• "Mary *will/shall* work" = as "Mary *vuole/deve* lavorare" (implicit meaning)

Future Perfect with Modal Auxiliaries: Syntax
- Also **Future Perfect** does not exist in English. So, the concept of a complete process projected in the future time is rendered by means of the *Present Perfect* modalized by the auxiliaries **shall** and **will**. The term *Future Perfect* is adopted to facilitate understanding.
• The *Future Perfect* is formed with the modal auxiliaries **shall/will** + the **Perfect Infinitive of the main verb**.
• The *Affirmative* form, as all the other forms, is the same for all the personal pronouns.

Future Perfect with Modal Auxiliaries: Semantics
- The Future Perfect is used for a process that at a given future time will be in the past, or will just have ended.
- Normally used with a time expression beginning with **by** - *e.g.:* 'by a month', 'by a year', 'by then', etc. (*in Italian corresponding to 'entro' : 'entro un mese, un anno, entro allora',* etc.')
• *e.g.:* By next December, David will have had his exam *(and so, he will be able to enjoy the Christmas holidays)*
• Italian translation: "entro il prossimo dicembre David avrà sostenuto l'esame" (*present projection of a complete process in the future*)

Future Simple Continuous with Modal Auxiliaries: Syntax and Semantics
Syntax: The *Future Simple Continuous* is constructed with the Future Simple of *'to be'* (*will/shall* + *be*) + the Present Participle of the main verb.
• *Affirmative:* I/you/he/she/it/we/you/they **will/shall** **be working**
Semantics: the Future Simple Continuous has two uses:
a. as an ordinary continuous form indicating a process that starts before a given point in time and probably continues after it. Only that, in this case, the time of the process is in the future.
• *(1)* Next Saturday, at this time, Ann *will be leaving*. [*In Italian:* "Sabato prossimo, a quest'ora, Anna *starà partendo*"]
• *(2)* Tomorrow, at ten, they *shall be sitting* in the classroom doing the exam.
b. as an *unintentional future process*, which will occur in the normal course of events.
• *(3)* I'll be seeing Tom tomorrow (*because we normally work in the same office*)
• *(4)* I am seeing Tom tomorrow (*because we have a deliberate appointment*)

Future Perfect Continuous **with Modal Auxiliaries:** <u>**Syntax and Semantics**</u>

Syntax: It contains auxiliaries of three different types: the modals *shall* or *will*, the Perfect auxiliary *have*, and the Continuous auxiliary *be*. Hence, the **Future Perfect Continuous** is formed with *will/shall + have been + the Present Participle of the main verb:*

Affirmative:

•   I/you/he/she/it/we/you/they *will/shall* **have been working**

Semantics: the Future Perfect Continuous can be used instead of the Future Perfect:

(a) When the process indicated by the main verb is continuous.

•   *(1)* By the end of the month Mary *will have been working* here for ten years. [*In Italian (diatopic variation):* "Alla fine del mese, Maria *sarà stata a lavorare* qui per dieci anni"]

(b) When the process is emphatically expressed as a continuous process.

•   *(2)* By the end of the month he *will have been playing* tennis for twenty years (*'constantly' of course, not 'continuously'*)

<u>**Pragmatic Dimensions of the Future**</u>

•   The modal auxiliary verbs *shall* and *will* are often used in ***institutional discourse*** to convey pragmatic meanings that are not immediately recognizable by readers or listeners and, therefore, can easily manipulate their interpretation.

•   The analysis of the writer/speaker's ***covert intentionality*** is the field of **Critical Discourse Analysis,** concerned with the analysis of language use aimed at discovering the covert ideological biases of discourse producers (Fairclough 1995).

•   Language can be used to support certain institutions and to manipulate public opinion, thus surreptitiously conveys an ideology.

<u>**Text 19:**</u> **Tony Blair on 'Education: Leadership in Government'**

I believe that there is the chance to forge a new consensus on education policy. It **will** be practical not ideological. And it **will** put behind us the political and ideological debates that have dominated the last thirty years. The foundations of the consensus are clear. Early support for children under the age of five. Primary school **shall** deliver high standards of literacy and numeracy. Pupil and school performance **shall** undergo rigorous assessment, and action based upon it. Early intervention **will** occur when things go wrong. ... The government **will** establish a General Teaching Council that **shall** set high professional standards, and **shall** promote and regulate the teaching profession. We **will** encourage a more structured pattern of professional development. We **will** offer teachers the opportunity for promotion while remaining in the classroom through the establishment of the '5 training days'. We **will** try to remove bureaucratic burdens. And we **will** develop classroom support from people from business who are prepared to give time, energy and expertise to schools. This means that the Prime Minister **shall** maintain an interest - and I **will** - to ensure strategic decisions. ... I **shall** be proud to begin work on this agenda and the sooner the better. It **shall** be a change of policy, but also a change of culture.

    (Adapted from: Tony Blair's speech given at Ruskin College, Oxford, 16 Dec. 1996)

English Verb Grammar: Active vs. Passive Voice. Logical (Actor), Grammatical (Subject) and Psychological (Theme) Subjects. Syntactic, Semantic and Pragmatic dimensions of the Active and Passive Voices. Ditransitive Verbs. Semantic conceptualizations of Transitivity. Syntactic movements in Active and Passive structures and translation equivalence into Italian. Cognitive meaning and Transitivity: Actors, Processes, and Goals. Processes of outer and inner experience. Material, Mental and Verbal Processes. Transitivity and Processes: Processes as Verb-Phrase/Verbal-Group; Participants as Actors and Goals (Noun Phrase/Nominal Group); Circumstance as Adverbial Phrases/Groups and Prepositional Phrases/Groups. Material Processes: Actor-Process-Goal (Patient/Beneficiary/Range): examples. Beneficiary in ditransitive verbs: Recipient and Client (double syntactic structure). Mental Processes: Perception, Affection and Cognition. Senser-Process-Phenomenon/Range (examples). Verbal Processes: Sayer-Process-Verbiage-Target-Receiver (examples). The Pragmatics of the Passive Voice in Specialized Registers. Passive forms in depersonalization processes: pragmatic reasons. The Pragmatics of the Passive Voice in Specialized Registers: Discourse Analysis. **Text 25**: "A study of irradiated bone".

Module 13. Sections: 5.2 (*5.2.1, 5.2.2*). 5.3 (*5.3.2 [fino a "Simpson 1993", p.206], 5.3.3*); Section 5.5 (*5.5.1, 5.5.2 [fino al primo rigo di p.223 "…'demonstrate', suggest', 'indicate'"*); 5.4 (*5.4.2 solo Verbal Processes, pp.216-217*).

Module 14. Section 5.5 (*5.5.1; 5.5.2 fino a "… 'suggest', 'indicate', etc. – p.223*).

<u>**Active Voice vs. Passive Voice**</u>

•   To understand the notions of Active and Passive Voices of the Verb it is necessary to understand the Transitivity System that organizes in the human mind the semantic meaning of the process expressed by the verb.

•   This cognitive organization of an action is exclusively 'logical', semantic, and can coincide or not with the syntactic and the pragmatic organizations of a sentence that expresses that process 'linguistically'. Halliday connects these three different organizations to the notion of Subject, defined as:

(a) Logical Subject **or Actor:** the Agent or doer of the action (*semantic dimension of language*)

(b) Grammatical Subject **or Subject:** that of which something is predicated (*syntactic dimension*)

(c) Psychological Subject **or Theme:** the concern of the message (*pragmatic dimension*)

Active Voice vs. Passive Voice

Active Voice:
(1) My aunt ***gave*** my daughter this doll.

    ↓

  Psychological Subject (Theme),
  Grammatical Subject (Subject),
  and Logical Subject (Actor).

Passive Voice:
(2) <u>This doll</u>   <u>my daughter</u> ***was given*** by <u>my aunt</u>

    ↓   ↓   ↓

  Psychological   *Grammatical*   *Logical*
  Subject (Theme) *Subject (Subject)*   *Subject (Actor)*

Semantic Conceptualization of Transitivity

- An ***Active*** sentence can be described *(1)* **syntactically** and *(2)* **semantically.**

- In the ***Active*** form of this sentence, the *Subject* and the *Actor* coincide:

    [The parents] [educate] [the child]
(1)   [*Subject*]   [*Verb*]   [*Object*]
(2)   [*Actor*]   [*Process*] [*Goal (Beneficiary)*]

- In the ***Passive*** form the *Goal*, not the *Actor*, coincides with the *Subject*:

    [The child]   [is educated] [by the parents]
(1)   [*Subject*]   [*Verb*]   [*Object*]
(2) [*Goal (Beneficiary)*] [*Process*]   [*Actor*]

Thus: the *pragmatic emphasis* changes.

Syntactic Movements in Active and Passive Structures

> ***Passive auxiliary verb*** **be** followed by the ***Past Participle*** of the *main verb*. The Object of the Active sentence moves to the Subject position in the Passive form. Conversely, the Subject of the Active sentence moves, in the Passive, to the end of the sentence in a phrase introduced by ***by***.

Cognitive Meaning & Transitivity

- In *Cognitive Semantics* (Langacker 1991), *Transitivity System* considered as a crucial component of the human capacity to:
(a) conceptualize Actors, Processes and Goals constituting situations in the real world, and
(b) render them into the syntactic forms of the language with the use of Subjects, Verbs and Objects.

- Halliday's (1994) ***Functional Grammar,*** considers the Transitivity System as an aspect of the ***Ideational Function*** of language = a cognitive function allowing the mental representation of the semantic meaning of words, sentences and whole texts.
- In a Transitivity System, ***Actors*** are the *agents* that cause ***Processes*** (*Causation*) aimed at a ***Goal***.
- This cognitive representation of an action can be expressed syntactically by both ***Active*** & ***Passive*** forms of sentences.

Transitivity and Processes

- Halliday (1994): focus on ***Processes*** that represent experience and inform the Transitivity System reflected in the structure of *clauses*.
- There are two primary Processes representing two essential aspects of experience:
(a) outer experience: processes of the *external world*
(b) inner experience: processes of the *conscious mind*
- Halliday defines the two primary Processes as:
(a) **Material Processes**, expressing the ***outer experience*** (*e.g.,* concrete actions of doing)
(b) **Mental Processes**, expressing the ***inner experience*** (*e.g*., thoughts, emotions, perceptions)

- Apart from *Material* and *Mental Processes*, Halliday classifies other process types:
  - **Relational Processes**, expressing *classifications* and *identifications*
  - **Behavioural Processes**, expressing the *outer manifestations of processes of the conscious mind or physiological processes*.
  - **Verbal Processes**, expressing the *enactment of cognitive constructions in the form of spoken or written language*.
  - **Existential Processes**, expressing the *existence or happening of every kind of phenomena*.

- The *cognitive representation of a Process* consists of three experiential components codified in a ***proposition***:
  - **Process** itself, syntactically realized by a ***Verb*** (or ***Verbal Group*** - i.e., *Verb Phrase*)
  - **Participants** in the process (e.g., **Actors** and **Goals** in Material Processes), realized by ***Nouns*** (or ***Nominal Groups*** - *Noun Phrases*)
  - **Circumstance** (of *time*, *place*, or *manner*), realized by ***Adverbial Groups*** *(Adverbs and Adverbial Phrases)* or ***Prepositional Groups*** *(Phrases that enclose prepositions).*

- A *clause* is the syntactic representation of the semantic experience of a Process codified in a proposition:

Active voice:

[The Coast Guard]	[chased]	[the immigrants' boat]	[relentlessly]	[across the waves]
[*PARTICIPANT: Actor*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*PARTICIPANT: Goal*]	[*CIRCUMSTANCE*]	[*CIRCUMSTANCE*]
[*Nominal Group*]	[*Verbal Group*]	[*Nominal Group*]	[*Adverbial Group*]	[*Prepositional Group*]

Passive voice:

[The immigrants' boat]	[was chased]	[by the Coast Guard]	[relentlessly]	[across the waves]
[*PARTICIPANT: Goal*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*PARTICIPANT: Actor*]	[*CIRCUMSTANCE*]	[*CIRCUMSTANCE*]

• The experience of a Process may be represented into a clause as either an *Active* or a *Passive* form.

Material Processes

Material Processes: processes of *doing*, representing an Agent (the Actor) that 'does' something.
Cognitive representation of a Material Process:

ACTOR + MATERIAL PROCESS + GOAL (PATIENT / BENEFICIARY / RANGE)

(a) Actor: obligatory Participant as the *Actor* is 'the one that does the action' (Logical Subject)
(b) Goal: optional Participant as the *Goal* is the Participant the process (action) is 'directed at'.

Transitive Verbs imply a Goal, *Intransitive Verbs* exclude it:

Intransitive Process
a. *Active:*

[The asylum seeker]	[escaped]
[*ACTOR*]	[*PROCESS*]

Transitive Process
b. *Active:*

[The police]	[repatriated]	[the asylum seeker]
[*ACTOR*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*GOAL*]

c. *Passive:*

[The asylum seeker]	[was repatriated]	[by the police]
[*GOAL*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*ACTOR*]

The **Goal** can sometimes be defined as:
(1) **Patient** (or *Affected*): 'the Participant that suffers or undergoes the Process'.
(2) **Beneficiary:** 'the Participant that benefits from the Process'. This is the logical *Indirect Object* with *Ditransitive Verbs* like 'give', 'offer', 'tell' etc., whereas the *Goal* represents the *Direct Object*. A *Beneficiary* can be:
(a) **Recipient:** 'the one that goods are given to'
(b) **Client:** 'the one that services are done for'

(a) [The EU Member State]	[gave]	[asylum seekers]	[the refugee status]
[*ACTOR*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*BENEFICIARY: RECIPIENT*]	[*GOAL*]

(b) [The City Council]	[built]	[Muslim immigrants]	[a mosque]
[*ACTOR*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*BENEFICIARY: CLIENT*]	[*GOAL*]

(c) Range - This Participant may substitute the *Goal* in a sentence. It defines the domain over which the process takes place.
e.g.:

[Those Pakistani boys]	[were playing]	[cricket]
[*ACTOR*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*RANGE*]

Mental Processes

Mental Processes are processes of *sensing*. They can be cognitively represented as:

SENSER + MENTAL PROCESS (of PERCEPTION / AFFECTION / COGNITION) + PHENOMENON

- *Mental Processes are always Transitive*. They are classified as Processes of:
  • *Perception* (seeing, hearing, witnessing, etc.)
  • *Affection* (liking, fearing, hoping, etc.)
  • *Cognition* (thinking, knowing, understanding, believing, assuming, etc.)

(a) Senser: 'the conscious being that is feeling, thinking, or seeing'
(b) Phenomenon: 'that which is sensed - felt, thought of, or seen'. This Participant is sometimes defined as **Range** when it represents 'that which helps understand the Senser/Phenomenon structure'.

[This woman]	[witnessed]	[the crime]	
[*SENSER*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*PHENOMENON*]	(*Active clause*)

[The crime]	[was witnessed]	[by this woman]	
[*PHENOMENON*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*SENSER*]	(*Passive clause*)

[The woman]	[was frightened]	[by the crime scene]	
[*SENSER*]	[*PROCESS*]	[*PHENOMENON: **RANGE***]	(*Passive clause*)

Verbal Processes
Verbal Processes = processes of 'speaking', 'telling', 'praising', 'reproaching' and have this schema representation:

SAYER + VERBAL PROCESS + VERBIAGE + RECEIVER

(a) Sayer - 'the Participant who says something'
(b) Receiver - 'the Participant to whom the saying is directed'
(c) Verbiage - 'what is said'
(d) Target - 'the entity that is targeted in the process of saying' (with verbs like: 'praise', 'insult', 'abuse', 'blame', 'flatter', 'criticize', 'slander', etc.)

(1) The judge   asked   the woman   some questions
    [*SAYER*] [*PROCESS*] [*RECEIVER*]   [*VERBIAGE*]

(2) The woman   boasted about   her son   to the judge
    [*SAYER*]   [*PROCESS*]   [*TARGET*]   [*RECEIVER*]

Pragmatics of Passive Voice in Specialized Registers
- The use of the Passive Voice of the Verb is a typical characteristic of scientific registers.
- In English, the Passive Voice is the principal way of expressing *depersonalization*. In other languages, this is achieved by means of impersonal forms:
e.g.:
- *It is said* that bone imaging is the only practical option in the assessment of torture procedures described by patients.
- (*In Italian: Si dice* che la osteodiagnostica per immagini è la sola alternativa effettiva per la valutazione di procedure di tortura descritte dai pazienti.)

Effects of the Passive Voice in Specialized Registers
- Specialized writers principally use the Passive Voice in scientific texts because:
(a) They intend to depersonalize their discourse to lay emphasis more on *the scientific results* of an experimental process rather than on the Agent (the Actor) of such a process (i.e., the scientist). For this reason, the Agent (or Actor) of Passive clauses is often omitted.
(b) They believe that the emphasis on the Agent is superfluous because, in a specialized text, often *the writers themselves represent the Agent (the Actors) of the experimental process described in their text*. The writers themselves normally are the same researchers who accomplished the experiment reported in the text. In such cases, the specification of Agency (i.e., the Actor of the scientific-experimental processes) is often omitted because writers consider it unnecessary or redundant.

Definition of Modal Verbs. The Syntax of Modals: Inflectional-Node structures and movements. Deontic Modality: semantic sense and implications in the perspective of the Interpersonal Function.
Deontic Modality: 'Can/Could': Ability or Potential; 'Can/May': Permission (formal/informal pragmatic choices: 'Can/Could/May/Might'). 'Might': Request as Recommendation. 'Should/Ought to': Advice and Recommendation; 'Shall': Request for Advice; 'Shall': Prediction and Promise; 'Will': Intention and Promise; 'Will/Would': Willingness as persistent, intentional behaviour causing disapproval. 'Must': Obligation (speaker's authority); 'Have to': Obligation (external authority); 'Need'. Examples from the field of intercultural Business transactions. Should': Moral Obligation; 'Ought to': Social Obligation.
Epistemic Modality: semantic sense. 'Can/Could/ May/Might': Possibility (Ideational Function); 'Can/Could': Evidentiality; 'Will/Would': Belief and Conjecture; 'Should/ Ought to': Probability and Expectation; 'Must/Can't': Deduction (Inference) and logical conclusions.
Modality: semantic meanings of modal verbs determining pragmatic contexts. **Text 33**: "Big Business Blunders".
Module 16. Section 6.7 (*6.7.3 fino a p.275, punto 1. escluso, p. 275*); Section 6.8; Section 6.9 (*6.9.3*); *Module 15.* Section: 6.6 (*6.6.2:* **Text 33**).

Definition of Modal Verbs
- Modal verbs as ***auxiliary verbs*** used to regulate (modulate and modalize) requests for permission, injunctions of obligation, expression of willingness, or predictions of possibility - which, if expressed straightforwardly, may result, in English conventional communicative code, too abrupt.
- The English modal verbs under examination are: *Can/Could*, *May/Might*, *Must/Have to*, *Need/Dare*, *Shall/Should/Ought to*, *Will/ Would*.

The Syntax of Modal Verbs
- In Italian, modal verbs follow the normal inflection typical of lexical verbs (e.g., *io posso, tu puoi, egli/ella può, noi possiamo, voi potete, essi possono; io devo, tu devi, egli deve, noi dobbiamo voi dovete essi devono*).
- In English, the form of modal verbs is 'defective' with respect to the other 'regular' verbs as it remains invariable for all personal pronouns (e.g., *I can, you can, he/she can, we can, you can, they can; I must, you must, he/she must, we must, you must, they must*).

The Syntax of Modal Verbs

This means that English modal verbs:

1. have not got the suffix *-s* to mark the third-person singular (i.e., there is no such form as 'he cans')

2. have got neither a *to*-Infinitive form, nor a Gerundive *ing*-form like the other verbs. (i.e., there are no such forms as 'to can' and 'canning').

Moreover:

3. the main verbs following modal verbs are always in the form of the Infinitive without 'to'

4. the only exceptions may be considered *Have to* and *Ought to* if "to" is regarded as part of the Infinitive of the main verb that follows (e.g., "[I ought/have] [to work]", rather than "[I ought to/have to] [work]" - the latter form is the conventionally accepted one).

Deontic Modality: Semantic Sense

The term **Deontic Modality** is used in philosophical semantics to define the *speaker's commitment to what s/he is saying*, which regards the expression of *ability*, *permission*, *obligation*, *recommendation*, *promise* and *willingness*, each conveyed by a particular modal verb:

Can / Could: Ability, Permission

May: Permission

Must / Have to: Obligation

Might / Should / Ought to: Advice, Recommendation

Shall: Promise, Prediction, Advice, Recommendation

Will: Willingness, Intention

Can = Ability or Potential

Can is used to indicate:

(a) The possession of an ***ability***.

   - Mary ***can*** speak Japanese fluently. (Mary ***può* [*sa*]** parlare il giapponese correttemente)

(b) The possession of the ***potential*** to perform the process indicated by the main verb.

   - Mary *can* teach him Japanese. (Mary ***può*** insegnargli il giapponese)

Could = Ability or Potential

Could is used in similar situations as above to indicate:

(a) The possession of an ***ability in the past***.

   - Mary ***could*** speak Japanese fluently [in the past]. (Mary ***poteva* [*sapeva*]** parlare il giapponese correttemente [in passato])

(b) The possession of ***potential*** to perform a process possibly ***in the future***.

   - Mary ***could*** teach him Japanese [in the future, if he wants]. (Mary ***potrebbe*** insegnargli il giapponese [in futuro, se vuole]).

Can/May = Permission

Can & May are interchangeable & both used to *give permission*. *May* is more formal.

   • John's Director told him: "You ***can/may*** talk business with Greek negotiators, but avoid talking about deadlines". (Il Direttore di John gli disse: "***Tu puoi / Lei può*** [***ti/le*** *do il permesso di*] discutere di affari con i negoziatori greci ma evita di parlare di scadenze.)

   • "***Can*** we smoke in here?" "Yes, you can" (*Less formal*)

   • "***May*** we smoke in here?" "Yes, you may" (*More formal*)

Could/Might = Permission

Could (and sometimes *Might*) can also be used 'hypothetically', in tactful requests for permission.

   • ***Could/Might*** we ask you what your opinion is?

   • I wonder if I ***could/might*** borrow your car to go to the airport.

   • ***Can*** you help me? (*Social/psychological proximity*)

   • ***Could*** you help me? (*Social/psychological distance*)

Could/Might = Permission

Could is also used to express either *permission in the past*, or *hypothetical permission*.

   • When I **was** a student, I ***could*** travel at half-price. (***I was allowed to***) (Quando ***ero*** studente, ***potevo*** viaggiare a metà prezzo.)

   • If I ***were/was*** a student, I ***could*** travel at half price. (***I would be allowed to***) (Se ***fossi*** studente, ***potrei*** viaggiare a metà prezzo. *Cf. the parallel informal expression in Italian:* Se ***ero*** studente, ***potevo*** viaggiare a metà prezzo.)

Might = Request as Recommendation

Might is often used as a tentative, hesitant way of making a request under the form of a recommendation.

   - You ***might*** send a gift to our Asian business partners while you are in France. [*Perhaps you should* send them a gift while you are in France.] (***Potresti*** mandare un dono ai nostri soci d'affari asiatici mentre sei in Francia. [*Forse dovresti* mandare loro un dono mentre sei in Francia]).

Should/Ought to = Advice & Recommendation

Should & *Ought to* are often used to offer advice and recommendation. In this case, *Should* is not the Past Tense of *Shall*, but it refers to a ***future time***.

   - You ***should/ought to*** accept invitations from your Indian business partners if you want the negotiation to be successful. (***Dovresti*** accettare gli inviti dei tuoi soci d'affari indiani se vuoi che il negoziato abbia successo).

Deontic Modality: Semantic Sense

Shall = Advice & Recommendation
Shall is also used in requests for advice or recommendation concerning an obligation to be fulfilled. It always refers to the *future*.
- **Shall** I bring food and drink to our Saudi Arabian partner's home? (***Devo [Dovrò]*** portare cibo e bevande a casa del nostro socio saudita?)

Shall = Prediction & Promise
Shall is used to express:
(a) A ***prediction*** regarding an action that is expected to happen in the future.
- I **shall** be in Saudi Arabia next week. (*Sarò [Devo/Dovrò essere / Mi aspetto di essere]* in Arabia Saudita la prossima settimana).
(b) A ***promise*** to fulfil an obligation.
- I **shall** help you.

Will = Intention & Promise
Will is used to indicate:
(a) The ***intention*** to do an action in the future.
I **will** be in Saudi Arabia next week. (*Sarò [Ho intenzione di essere]* in Arabia Saudita la prossima settimana).
(b) A ***wilful, deliberate commitment*** of the speaker to fulfil an obligation.
- I **will** help you.

Will/Would = Willingness
Will: frequently used to refer to a characteristic, persistent & intentional behaviour that, ***in general***, is constantly & wilfully repeated (in the past, present, and future). The implication is that the speaker disapproves of such a behaviour.
When Greeks negotiate business, they **will** deal with it regardless of the time it takes. (Quando i greci negoziano gli affari [in generale], *li trattano [vogliono trattarli]* senza badare al tempo che ci impiegano).
Would: used to refer ***specifically*** to similar situation, but only in the ***past time***.
When my Greek partners negotiated business, they **would** deal with it regardless of the time it took. (Quando i miei soci greci negoziarono l'affare, *lo trattarono [vollero trattarlo]* senza badare al tempo che ci avrebbero impiegato).

Must = Obligation
Must (and *Mustn't*) expresses an ***instruction from the authority of the speaker*** regarding:
(a) Something that is considered as ***obligatory***.
- You **must** accept gifts from Arabs if you want your negotiations to be successful. (*Devi* accettare [*è obbligatorio* che tu accetti] doni dagli Arabi se vuoi che i negoziati abbiano successo).
(b) Something that is considered as ***necessary***.
- You **mustn't** refuse gifts or invitations from Arabs as rejection is considered an affront. (*Non devi* rifiutare [*è necessario* che tu non rifiuti] doni o inviti da Arabi poichè un rifiuto è considerato un affronto).
(c) Something that is felt as an ***inevitable inner compulsion*** (*It.: costrizione interiore*).
- You **mustn't** accept very expensive gifts from Arabs if you feel embarrassed. (*Non devi* accettare [*non devi sentirti costretto* ad accettare] doni molto costosi da Arabi se ciò ti imbarazza).

Have to = Obligation
Have to implies the idea of an ***instruction from an external authority***, different from the speaker.
- We **have to** meet tomorrow at eight o'clock in the morning (*as it was decided by our Head [external authority]*) = (*Dobbiamo* incontrarci domani mattina alle otto in punto *(poichè è stato deciso dal nostro Direttore [autorità esterna])*).
Compare with:
- We **must** meet tomorrow at eight o'clock in the morning (*as I consider it urgent, important, obligatory [authority of the speaker]*) = (*Dobbiamo* incontrarci domani mattina alle otto in punto *(poichè lo considero urgente, importante, obbligatorio [autorità di chi parla])*).

Must/Have to/Need = Obligation
Note the difference between:
(a) You **must** be back by 2 o'clock. (*Command - stronger value*)
(b) You **have to** be back by 2 o'clock. (*Obligation - less strong value*)
(c) You **mustn't** be late. (*Prohibition*)
(d) You **needn't** be back early. (*Absence of Obligation*)
Needn't expresses the *authority of the speaker*
Don't need to is synonymous with *don't have to* and indicates an *external authority*.

Should/Ought to = Obligation that may not be fulfilled
e.g.: I *ought to/should* phone my parents tonight (*but I probably won't have time*)
Ought to is <u>less formal</u> than *Should*: *(1) Ought to* expresses ***social obligation*** *(2) Should* expresses ***moral obligation***.
Compare between:
(a) You **ought to** phone your parents tonight (*it's socially expected*)
(b) You **should** phone your parents tonight (*it's morally expected - stronger value*)
(c) You **must** phone your parents tonight (*it's an obligation - less strong value*)

Epistemic Modality: Semantic Sense

The term **Epistemic Modality** is used in Philosophical Semantics to define the speaker's understanding, or knowledge of/belief in what s/he is saying. The speaker does not present what s/he is saying as an "actual, objective fact", but s/he is only giving his/her own "interpretation of that fact", expressing it as a logical conclusion, a possibility, a probability, or an expectation, each conveyed by a particular modal verb:

Must: Logical Conclusion, Deduction
Can't/Couldn't: Logical Conclusion, Deduction
Will/Would: Belief, Conjecture
May/Might: Possibility
Can/Could: Possibility
Should/Ought to: Probability, Expectation

Can/Could - May/Might = Possibility

Can/Could and *May/Might* indicate *possible facts*, and are semantically interchangeable. The only difference in their use is pragmatic, as each of them signals a *different degree of formality*. *Can* is less formal than *Could*. *Could* is less formal than *May*. *May* is less formal than *Might*.

- Cultural differences in business procedures *can/could/ may/might* be found between business people from different nationalities. (*In Italian:* Differenze culturali nelle procedure transazionali si *possono/ potrebbero* riscontrare tra uomini d'affari di differenti nazionalità.)

Can/Could - May/Might = Possibility

May often indicates a *possibility*, *not a fact*.

- Agreement on international economic laws between business people from different nationalities *may* be reached tomorrow, at the Globalization Meeting. (Un accordo sulle leggi economiche internazionali fra uomini d'affari di differenti nazionalità *può/potrebbe* essere raggiunto domani, all'incontro sulla Globalizzazione.)

Differences between *Can* and *May* in the *Negative form:*

(a) They **can't** reach an agreement tomorrow. ("*It is not possible* that they will reach agreement." ["**Non possono** raggiungere un accordo domani." (**Non è possibile che** raggiungano un accordo)]).

(b) They **may not** reach an agreement tomorrow. ("*It is possible* that they *will not* reach agreement." ["**Possono non** raggiungere un accordo domani." (**E' possibile che non** raggiungano un accordo)]).

Can/Could = Sensation

Can and *Could* represent the only grammaticalized forms of *Evidentiality* signalling the speaker's evidence for the truth of his/her statement derived from his/her own *sensory experience*, not from his/her *ability*.

e.g.: I **can hear** them arguing in the meeting room. [*It.:* "**Li sento** discutere (*posso/riesco a sentirli* discutere) nella sala delle riunioni."]

Will/Would = Belief & Conjecture

e.g.: You **will** be familiar with the fact that alcohol is prohibited by the Islamic laws. (*which implies:* "*I believe / I conjecture* that you are familiar with it.") ["*Tu saprai che (Credo / Immagino che [voglio credere / immaginare che] tu sappia che)* gli alcolici sono proibiti dalle leggi islamiche."].

Would, in the following case, is not referred to past time, but it is a more formal, tentative form of *Will*.

e.g.: **Would** your country be Nigeria, by any chance? ("Il Suo Paese è/*sarebbe* la Nigeria, per caso? / "*Non vorrà dirmi che* il Suo Paese è la Nigeria?")

Should/Ought to: Probability or Expectation

Should & *Ought to* express *probability* and *expectation* and are semantically interchangeable. Also in this case, *Should* does not refer to a past time, but it expresses expectation or probability *in the future*.

e.g.: The development of international laws in English **should/ought to** facilitate intercultural business transactions. ("L'elaborazione di leggi internazionali in lingua inglese **dovrebbe** facilitare le transazioni d'affari interculturali")

Should & *Ought to* are also interchangeable when they refer to expectations *in the past*, which were not realized or fulfilled.

e.g.: Since he speaks English fluently, he **should/ought to have succeeded** in business without difficulties (but he failed). ["Dal momento che parla l'inglese correntemente, **avrebbe dovuto aver successo** negli affari senza difficoltà" (ma ha fallito - *aspettative non realizzate nel passato*).

Must/Can't = Deduction (Inference) & Logical Conclusion

Must is used to assert what the speaker has deduced (inferred) or concluded to be *the most probable interpretation* of a situation or event.

e.g.: He doesn't drink alcohol. He **must** be a Muslim. ("Non beve alcolici. **Deve** essere un musulmano")

Can't is used to exclude what the speaker thinks is *the most improbable interpretation* of a situation or event.

e.g.: He drinks liquor. He **can't** be a Muslim. ("Beve alcolici. **Non può** essere un musulmano").

Deontic and Epistemic Modalities: Pragmatic meanings

Text 33: 'Big Business Blunders'

Cultural differences are the biggest problems for multinational companies. The failure of managers to comprehend fully these disparities **could** lead to many international business blunders. To avoid making blunders, a person **must** discern the difference between what **must** be done, what **must not** be done, and what **may** or **may not** be done. For example, shoes **must** be removed before entering many religious buildings in the world, but the individuals doing so **must** not act as if they belong to that particular religion. If you want to be effective in a foreign environment, you **ought to** understand the local culture. In India, for example, it **would** be considered a violation of the sacred hospitality to discuss business in the home or on social occasions. At the same time, if a businessman from India offers "come any time," he means it. In the United States this **may** simply be a polite expression, but in India it **must** be considered as a serious invitation, so you **must** arrange the time of the meeting. If no time is set, the Indian shall assume that the invitation has been refused. Even the rejection of a cup of coffee **can** cause big problems. While a very profitable opportunity was being negotiated, a Saudi Arabian businessman friendly offered a cup of coffee to a U.S. executive who innocently said that he **would not** take it. The American executive was in a hurry but this type of rejection is considered as an affront there. The Saudi felt offended and the negotiation process was less successful than it **would** have been. American managers have encountered similar problems trying to understand time values in other cultures. One U.S. company lost a big contract opportunity in Greece because its managers **would** have tried to impose on the Greek negotiators the American way of setting time-limits for the meetings. American **would** have preferred the Greeks to first agree to principles and then consider the detail. But the Greek negotiators **ought to** have considered this time-limits insulting and deceptive. In fact, they **would** have preferred, instead, to consider every detail, regardless of the time this **should** have taken. Gift-giving **can** also create problems. In Middle-East, for example, hosts **would** feel insulted if guests bring food to their homes (liquor, of course, **must** not be given because it is prohibited by the Islamic religion). In Latin America, cutlery or handkerchiefs **should not** be given because these gifts imply a cutting off of a relationship or a tearful event. In Asia, gifts **should** be given privately to avoid embarrassing the Asians, but they **must** be offered publicly in the Middle East to reduce the impression of bribery.