University of Latvia
Faculty of Modern Languages

Indra Karapetjana

LANGUAGE IN BACHELOR PAPERS AS A RESULT OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF LINGUO-FUNCTIONAL RESEARCH COMPETENCE

BAKALAURA DARBU VALODA KĀ LINGVOFUNKCIONĀLĀS KOMPETENCES ATTĪSTĪBAS REZULTĀTS

Doctoral Thesis

Scientific Adviser: prof. I.Kramiņa

Rīga
2007

Declaration of Academic Integrity

I hereby declare that this study is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged material from any source.

Date: January 25, 2007
Signed:

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I am deeply grateful to Professor Ingrīda Kramiņa, my scientific adviser, for her wise guidance of the dissertation.

Second, I would like to offer my heartfelt thanks to my esteemed colleagues and dear friends Vilma Rapa and Gunta Roziņa for their valuable advice and encouragement.

Finally, I owe much to my family for their love and support during the long process of writing the dissertation.

List of Figures and Tables

Figures

Tables

Table of Contents

Introduction

In the 21st century, English as a language of globalisation has become not only the language of international communication, but also the world's prevalent language of research. Moreover, the contribution of a non-native speaker of English to *today's Anglophone research world* is being emphasised. Therefore, one of the principal tasks of tertiary education in foreign languages is the integration of scientific discourse and academic studies.

The target audience of this research are the students of the Faculty of Modern Languages (FML) at the University of Latvia (UL), studying in the academic programme *Bachelor of Humanities in English Philology*. According to the Ministry of Education and Science of Latvia, the main task of a bachelor programme is to provide the students with the opportunity to acquire theoretical knowledge, research skills and abilities in order to form a scientific basis for their professional activities ('*Noteikumi par valsts akadēmiskās izglītības standartu'* www2). In order to fulfil graduation requirements, the students have to write a Bachelor thesis, which provides evidence to examiners of the students' suitability for the degree of Bachelor of Humanities in English Philology. The concepts *a research paper (RP)* and *a BA paper* are generally used throughout this work to refer to a Bachelor thesis (BA thesis).

Acquiring knowledge about relevant linguistic phenomena to conduct and write up research in a foreign language not only requires proficiency in the language itself, but it also means that the students need to socialize with the academic discourse community for whom they are writing. An expert writer is a person 'who has attained the local knowledge that enables her to write as a member of a discourse community' (Carter, 1990: 226).

As the institutional research context has evolved to embrace the international context, the students should be equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills that would enable them to become members of an international disciplinary community on the basis of their increased participation in student exchange programmes.

However, doing research in a foreign language is not only cognitively difficult, but also linguistically demanding since the students have to manage both the content and form in English. It is apparent that the communicative competence is an essential starting point for the students enrolled on the academic programme *Bachelor of Humanities in English Philology*; however, it does not appear to enable them to function efficiently, effectively and appropriately in research settings in the relevant contexts. An appropriate and meaningful use of language for research purposes in both written and spoken discourse requires the acquisition of the linguo-functional research competence (LFRC), which derives from the knowledge of the language system, the subject area, and the rhetorical conventions of writing RPs.

Research on linguo-functional aspects of RPs is relatively sparse; moreover, researchers concentrate mostly on master and doctoral level RP writing (e.g. Ilyinska, 2004; Swales, 2000; 2004), and there are few linguists (e.g. Hyland, 2000) who have investigated RPs in applied linguistics. It has been duly recognized (e.g. Dudley-Evans, 1999) that more research on dissertations and theses is necessary. Therefore, the analysis of the language and the rhetorical organization of the BA thesis in applied linguistics is needed with a resulting analysis of the research competence required.

Since to our knowledge, there has been no explicit, theoretically based discussion on the issue of academic writing for research purposes in English in Latvia, this research paper intends to fill this gap. Hence, the **aim** of the doctoral thesis is twofold:

1) to create a theoretical basis for the acquisition of a purposeful LFRC leading to a relevant end product – a BA thesis written in a language acceptable to the international research community;
2) to analyse and assess the students' competence level as exhibited in their independent research.

Thus, the author's research aim is focused on the end product with the purpose of revealing the correlation between the linguistic functions performed and the result achieved. In order to achieve the aim, the following **hypothesis** has been proposed:

The language in students' research papers demonstrates their linguo-functional research competence as the quintessence of communicative language competences. The relevant supportive communicative language competences comprise the theoretical background realized through research communication using preparatory linguistic functions for research followed by linguistic resultant functions leading to the relevant end product – a BA thesis.

The following **enabling objectives** ensure the achievement of the research goal and, in addition, enable the author to prove the proposed hypothesis:

1. to analyse linguistic theories on language, language competence, communicative language competence paramount to the study aimed at establishing the underlying coherent principles of the LFRC;

2. to explore linguistic theories in order to investigate the characteristic linguistic features of spoken discourse pertaining to research;
3. to investigate selected theories on the language use in context in order to provide a sound theoretical basis for the research of the written discourse and to examine the key genre theories in order to pinpoint the macro-level and micro-level linguistic entities of the Bachelor thesis;
4. to develop a model of the LFRC that would foster the completion of the academic programme *Bachelor of Humanities in English Philology*;
5. to study the institutional context and documents relevant to the research; to design and administer research tools: questionnaires and interviews in order to ensure reliability and validity of the study;
6. to analyse a corpus of RPs in order to study the language material produced by the students in the process of the research competence development.

Novelty of the research

- The study and analysis of the linguistic basics necessary for research writing.
- A theoretically grounded profound analysis of language use in research settings guided by the original model elaborated by the author.
- The integration of scientific discourse and academic studies has been revealed.

Theoretical significance

- The research has supplied a theoretically grounded profound analysis of language use in research settings, thus providing a multipurpose framework for the LFRC varied development aimed at considering students' individual research interests.
- The research contributes to the development of the theory of genre applicable for research purposes in compliance with the conventions set by the international community.

Practical significance

- The performed research has ensured a sound theoretical basis for practical academic support activities at different levels.
- A profound comparative linguistic analysis of the competence development as manifested in the students' research paper language has been performed (embracing 50 randomly selected samples of RPs, covering 2 250 000 word units).

- A system of mechanisms for eliminating occasional measurements and avoiding hasty decisions has been developed.
- Theoretically grounded and practically approbated BA paper writing conventions applicable for multiple research purposes have been designed at the FML as a tool for the students' research competence development.

Theoretical research methods

The theoretical basis for this research has been grounded in the study of the linguistic theories of the 20th and the 21st century, which provide a conceptual and theoretical context in which the topic for research is situated.

- We examined Bühler's (1934) proposed system of communicative functions, and Jakobson's (1950) (the Prague School) communication model, which extended Bühler's system, Halliday's (1973) (the London School) propounded language functions in order to understand the functions underpinning the spoken and written research English.
- We explored the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (2001), and earlier works on communicative competence by Hymes (1972); Munby (1978); Canale and Swain (1980); Savignon (1983, 2000); Bachman (1995), which allowed us to specify the general language competences and core elements underlying the LFRC.
- We drew on Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics theory, which sees the theme-rheme structure of a text as a structural principle. It can be seen as a continuation of Firth's system-structure theory and the Prague School's description of the information distribution in sentences (the Functional Sentence Perspective theory). The theory enabled us to examine the syntactic structures of sentences and texts, which are determined by the communicative functions and context in which the sentences or texts occur, and relate these findings to the English Philology students' ability to construct coherent texts for research purposes. Since our interest lies in the language use in context, we examined London School's linguistic theory, in particular, Halliday's (1973) contextual dimensions of the language. The Systemic Functional Linguistics theory views language as social semiotics, a resource people use to accomplish certain purposes by examining meaning in context. Therefore, using the tools of the Systemic Functional Linguistics, we were able to describe the linguistic

features of the Bachelor papers collected in the context of the FML, the UL. The theories above and other selected theories on context (e.g. Grice's Co-operative Principles) allowed us systematically to relate the commonalities and differences found in the corpus of texts to their institutional conventions.

- Underlying this study was the concept of discourse; therefore, the author of the doctoral thesis explored it as treated in the works by Harris (1952), van Dijk (1974), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975). Research into the lecture discourse, listening comprehension (Flowerdew, 2002; Richards, 1983) and written discourse approbational theories (Bhatia, 1993; 1998; 2004; Swales, 1981; Dudley-Evans, 1998), the Schema theory (Bartlett, 1932) provided a firm grounding in the theoretical issue paramount to the aims and objectives of this research.
- The ESP Genre theory (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1981) and the Systemic Functional Linguistics (e.g. Martin and Rothery, 1981; Christie and Rothery, 1989) genre theory helped us identify the regularities and variation of rhetorical organization and of linguistic features in textual practices of the research genre within the discipline of applied linguistics. Moreover, it allowed us to achieve a profound understanding of the nature of the LFRC.

Empirical research methods

The case study was chosen as a method of research since it is an empirical enquiry that investigates a phenomenon within its *real life* context. It focuses on a bounded subject or unit, and it is used to gain in-depth understanding replete with meaning for the subject (Burns, 2000: 460). This research views the students' language material as a support for their LFRC development, which is the subject of this research, and which the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* and other relevant courses aim to facilitate, as a case or a unit of analysis.

The objectivity of the research data was ensured by applying triangulation, which is the use of different research approaches, methods and techniques in the same study. Thus, the analysis of the consistency of the findings was generated by different data-collection techniques, which allowed us to examine the reliability of different data sources within the same method. In order to ensure the objectivity and validity of the research data, the following documents were analysed:

- 50 randomly selected Bachelor papers (2 250 000 word units) of 162 RPs;

- abstracts written in the academic years 1999/2000 and 2003/2004, in total 12 618 word units;
- randomly selected 145 students' reports;
- 485 questionnaires covering the time period from the academic year 1999/2000 to 2003/2004;
- 128 questionnaires on academic spoken discourse;
- 128 summaries based on the students' lecture notes.

The analysed documents were given code numbers, e.g. 2003-1 (the first report in the academic year 2002/2003), A1 (the first abstract in the academic year 1999/2000), and BA1 (the first BA paper) (see Appendix 1).

The results and findings of this research have been used to design new courses *English Spoken and Written Communication III* (see Appendix 2) and *English Spoken and Written Communication IV* (see Appendix 3), which are included in the academic study programme at the FML.

The theoretically derived conclusions and the language material of the doctoral thesis have been used by the author while delivering lectures and supervising students' term papers and BA papers at the FML.

The findings of the doctoral thesis have been approbated at the UL, FML, the University of Portsmouth, Great Britain within the framework of Socrates Erasmus staff exchange programme in 2004 and in the Bank of Latvia from the year 2002 to 2005. The results of this research have been reported at 15 international conferences and in 10 publications in the Republic of Latvia and abroad from 2000 to 2006.

Content of the research

The volume of the present doctoral thesis is 195 pages, and it comprises an introduction, five chapters, conclusions, bibliography of 227 entries, and relevant appendices. The doctoral thesis also contains 22 tables and 26 figures, which reflect the contents of the conducted research.

Due to the broad range of the LFRC, and the restrictions imposed on the scope of a doctoral thesis, we shall analyse some of the most essential elements of the relevant competence that the support course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* aims to raise awareness of (see Appendix 4). For example, we do not intend to discuss such preparatory linguistic functions for research as *designing the* *research tools* and *studying, interpreting and analyzing data*. Therefore, some of the issues we raise are only briefly discussed or are not mentioned at all.

The research on the macro-structure of a RP does not comprise the analysis of the chapters containing the methodology, the results of the RPs, and the conclusions. We do not study the functions of such support sections as the title page, acknowledgements, the contents page, appendices, the bibliography, and the glossary. The analysis of text-internal linguistic entities pertaining to the scientific discourse as manifested in the genre of RPs is not comprehensive too, owing to the reasons mentioned above.

Each chapter in this paper presents a set of related ideas. The linguistic material is illustrated with the examples from the corpus of BA papers or other authentic texts and with the data received from the analysis of the administered research tools.

Chapter 1 explores the communicative language competence and relevant linguistic theories in order to develop a sound theoretical basis for the LFRC. It seeks to relate the issues of competence, communicative language competence in the educational domain and the LFRC in particular. The meaning and use of the concepts *competence* and *communicative competence* in linguistics and applied linguistics are described by referring to Savington (1983, 2000), Bachman (1995), Canale and Swain (1980), Munby (1978), Hymes (1971), Chomsky (1965). The chapter describes communicative language competence within the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment*; it highlights the major characteristic features of the linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences and pays due attention to language functions since they are of particular interest to this research. It also deals with the selected theories on context (e.g. Sperber and Wilson, 1986; Searle, 1969; Austin, 1962). We discuss the relations between the context of situation and the linguistic text by using the variables of *mode, field* and *tenor* (Halliday, 1991), which constitute a register. When analysing the pragmatic competence, we refer to Grice's four *maxims of conversation*, Bühler's and Jakobson's communication models of language, Halliday's (1991) and Brown and Yule's (1989) major functions of a language.

Chapter 2 defines the meaning of the concept *discourse* and highlights interdiscoursal relations between spoken and written modes rather than analyses the dichotomy between them. The chapter explores the spoken discourse by elaborating on the macro-structure of the lecture and such relevant micro-features as the lecturing style and discourse markers, which perform important text-building and interpersonal functions. The description of a macro-structure and micro-features of a university lecture is based on the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics, which explicitly states the connection between context factors and language choices. By drawing on Schema theory (Bartlett, 1932), the chapter seeks to find out the relationship between the content schemata and the formal schemata (Carrell, 1983) in establishing coherence of the listening text. Note-taking is viewed as an indispensable part of the learning process, a correlation between oral and written discourse and a relevant preparatory linguistic function performed in the research process. Research into the lecture discourse and listening comprehension theory (e.g. Flowerdew, 1994; Richards, 1983) has provided understanding of the processes and competences involved in comprehending lectures. In order to see whether the theoretical implications are relevant in the context of the FML, this chapter briefly reports on the data received from the administered questionnaire about the lecture discourse and observed analysis of the summaries based on the students' lecture notes.

Chapter 3 addresses the theoretical considerations that underlie written discourse. It defines the notion of the Bachelor thesis and establishes the communicative purpose of writing the RP. It also details the concepts of discipline and disciplinary discourse community. The chapter provides an overview of the scientific register. The discussion of the chapter is based on the Functional Sentence Perspective theory, which sees the theme-rheme structure of a text as its structural principle. The chapter explores Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics theory, which can be seen as a continuation of Firth's system-structure theory and the Prague School's description of the information distribution in sentences. We examine the concept of *text*, define the three regulative principles (i.e. efficiency, effectiveness, appropriateness) controlling textual communication (de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981) and investigate the internal structuring of a text achieved by cohesion and coherence. The chapter studies such characteristic themes as linking adverbials, which are relevant cohesion devices for explicitly signalling the relationships between the units of discourse. When analyzing their major semantic categories, we draw on a corpus- based research by Biber, Conrad, Leech (2003), which has provided a sound basis for the analysis of linguistic features in this paper. Further, we study stance adverbials used to comment on the propositions expressed in the text. By looking at the taxonomy and functions of metadiscourse in written mode, we initiate the discussion in the paper of the usage of personal pronouns and hedges in the scientific register. At the end of the chapter, we comment on the data received from the questionnaire, which was administered to 84 first-year students, on their perception of the linguistic elements pertaining to the scientific style of writing. Chapter 3 also investigates the genre-based studies of texts arising from the Systemic Functional Linguistics, and English for Specific Purposes genre theories in order to identify the regularities of rhetorical organization and of linguistic features within the research genre in the relevant contexts. In order to show how the organization of language is related to its use, we have broadened and applied Martin's (the Australian Genre School) model *Functional Diversification of Language and Social Context* (1997) to RPs, and propounded our model *Schematic Representation of Language for Research Purposes.* The chapter explores and comments on the results of the comparative analysis, which examined the BA paper writing conventions at Daugavpils University; the Faculty of History and Philosophy and the Faculty of Social Sciences (UL); the Faculty of Philology, the University of Vilnius as compared with the models worked out by recognized genre theoreticians. The chapter also presents a comprehensive discussion on the sub-genres of the abstract and the introduction, which are seen to be critical to disciplinary knowledge making. It outlines the issues implicit in the theory and practice of the literature review in the thesis as a factor contributing to the common theory building and examines referencing as a means of helping to define the specific context of the researched problem. The discussion in the chapter is based on recent theories in applied linguistics advocated by Thompson and Tribble 2001, Hyland 2000, Swales 2000, which helped us reveal the types of citations (direct, block quotations, paraphrases, generalizations, integral and non-integral citations) and categories of reporting verbs. A taxonomy of factive, non-factive and counter-factive reporting verbs, based on the earlier work by several linguists (Williams, 2004; Hyland, 2000; Fowler and Aaron, 1989) is proposed. Finally, the author proposes a framework of the LFRC, which entails inter-related preparatory linguistic functions for research and resultant linguistic functions leading to the end product - a Bachelor thesis. The competence is facilitated throughout the academic studies in the institutional context by means of relevant courses, term papers, and individual tutorials with academic advisors. Students often undertake support activities, i.e. they publish their research and submit conference abstracts in order to participate in international student conferences.

Chapter 4 explains the methodology used for this study: the research perspective and methods, the type and techniques and aims to fulfil the objectives of this research by reporting on the results of the survey of the institutional context. The first sub-chapter reports on the analysis of the interviews with five academic advisors. The interviewees commented on the communicative purpose and the rhetorical organization of the Bachelor thesis at the macro-level, the rhetorical organization of the constituent parts of the BA thesis, and the components of the LFRC needed for conducting and writing up research compared with the acquisition of the competence by the students upon graduation. The chapter provides a brief summary of the focus group's discussions on the macro-structure and micro-features of the thesis. It also deals with gathering and analyzing the data statistically and qualitatively by reporting on the results of the questionnaires administered to 485 students enrolled on the support course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* in the academic years 1998/1999 to 2003/2004 and by comparing them with the results obtained from the analysis of the students' spoken and written reports in relation to the acquisition of the LFRC.

The pragmatic goal of **Chapter 5** is to offer a comprehensive examination of the subject of this research by dealing with the macro-discoursal patterns and linguistic entities of the corpus of BA papers, comprising 2 250 000 word units. The chapter also presents a diachronic study of the rhetorical structuring of the abstracts (1999/2000 and 2003/2004), comprising 12 518 words, and the analysis of their lexico-grammatical patterns, i.e. the usage of linking adverbials, personal pronouns, the tense and aspect forms. The chapter reports on the performed analysis of the rhetorical structuring of the introductions (2003/2004) comprising 41 525 words. It also explores the usage of hedging in the introductory parts of the RPs. In order to find out whether the acquisition of the LFRC had taken place with the help of support activities in the students' subsequent academic studies of the relevant programme, the chapter informs about the frequency and functional uses of integral or non-integral citation forms, direct quotations, paraphrases, generalizations, the type of reporting verbs and the variation in the choice of voice and tense used. Finally, the chapter deals with the evaluation of the constitutive principles of textual communication: informativity, cohesion and coherence. The theme-rheme structures were analysed by applying the progression patterns (i.e. the simple linear, the continuous theme, and the hypertheme progression) proposed by Daneš to three randomly selected BA papers.

Chapter 1 Linguistic Theories for Purposeful Development of Communicative and Linguo-Functional Research Competences

Chapter 1 works towards establishing a framework, both theoretical and pragmatic, for the extensive discussion of the LFRC. At the beginning of the chapter, the relevance of research in academic studies is highlighted, and the role of the course *Introduction to Academic and Professional Studies and Research* as a linguo-functional basis for the development of the relevant competence is defined.

Since *competence* and *communicative language competence* are essential concepts for this research, Chapter 1 examines their meaning by referring to Chomsky (1965), Hymes (1971, 1972) and other scholars. The LFRC builds on generally applicable skills and abilities outlined in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment* (CEF) (2001) and in earlier work on the communicative language competence by such scholars as Hymes 1972, Munby 1978; Canale and Swain 1980; Savignon 1983, 2000; Bachman 1995. Therefore, this chapter is also concerned with general communicative language competences: it highlights and explores several essential elements underlying the LFRC. Furthermore, this chapter deals with some core supporting theories of the CEF and the LFRC, i.e. Grice's Co-operative Principle (1975), Bühler's Model of Language Functions (1934) and Jakobson's Communication Model (1950), Halliday's Model of Language Functions (1991) and Brown and Yule's (1989) functions of language.

1.1 Linguo-Functional Research Competence

At the FML, the English language itself is the focus of study; however, it is also used functionally as a means of learning about various subjects in the field of linguistics and applied linguistics. Linguistics has been defined as:

> the study of language as a system of human communication. It covers different areas of investigation, e.g. phonetics, phonology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, functions of language. (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992: 215)

Applied linguistics is the study of language use in context:

1. The study of second and foreign language learning and teaching;
2. The study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems (ibid: 19).

This research has adopted Richards, Platt and Platt's definition of applied linguistics and uses the concept *applied linguistics* to refer to the study of the language use in academic context.

Halliday (1978) has divided learning of languages in three integrated dimensions. *Learning a language* involves an acquisition of the appropriate rules and conventions for using that language; *learning through the language* involves using the language as a means of learning something else; *learning about the language* entails conscious reflection and understanding.

At the FML, English is both a target and medium of learning and teaching since the students are not only learning the language, but also learning about it and through it (Karapetjana, 2005:283). These three aspects of learning a language are complementary and mutually supportive aspects in the context of the FML. Kramina (2000: 38) points out that the students 'have a double load of academic difficulties if compared with their contemporaries studying in other programmes.' They not only learn the practical skills in order to fulfil specific communicative tasks in English, but also study English as a discipline, which also comprises studying English for research purposes. Lodge (2000: 106 in Green ed.) refers to studying the target language in order to do communicative tasks as *instrumentality*. The function of studying the language as 'part of an overall intellectual discipline' the linguist refers to as *disciplinarity* (ibid.). For instrumental studies of a foreign language well-developed communication skills in the target language suffice; however, for disciplinary studies, a high level of language competence is required. Moreover, in order to meet the graduation requirements, the students must possess a relevant LFRC, which builds on and extends general communicative language competences. For understanding the LFRC, it is important to find out what research implies. Hart posits that

> research for all disciplines involves an understanding of the relationship between theory, method and research design, practical skills and particular methods, the knowledge base of the subject and methodological foundations. (2002: 5)

Hussey and Hussey (1997: 20) consider research to be 'a systematic and methodical process of enquiry and investigation which increases knowledge.' Likewise, Nunan stresses research as a process; however, the applied linguist seems to be more specific, as he gives a more detailed explanation of the process by singling out three elements of the research process:

> research is a systematic process of inquiry consisting of three elements or:
> (1) a question, problem, or hypothesis, (2) data, and (3) analysis and interpretation of data. (1992: 3)

Thus, the concept *research* in the present context can be defined as a systematic process of investigation for the purpose of finding answers to the problem or proving a hypothesis leading to a product, i.e. a Bachelor thesis. The product is the knowledge generated from the process. In order to achieve the linguistic aim (i.e. the product), students have to become competent and proficient in the language concerned.

Taking into consideration the fact that undergraduate students may lack the relevant language to conduct and write up research in the target language, it is necessary for them to develop the LFRC in order to process, create, and communicate knowledge in spoken and written discourse.

The development of the LFRC is achieved as a result of the fulfilment of the aims of the relevant courses in the target academic programme *Bachelor of Humanities in Philology (English Philology)*. The course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* aims at providing the students with the required language knowledge and skills they would need to pursue their academic studies and do research. At this level, the students are provided with the necessary information and language to enable them to comprehend lectures and take notes, write academic and research papers, etc. The students attend lectures and seminars on the culture and history of Great Britain, linguistics, literature, theoretical grammar, theoretical phonetics, history of the English language, translation, English language teaching methodology (ELT), etc. The theoretical courses find practical implementation in such courses as *Functional Communication, Academic Writing, Systemic and Functional Grammar,* etc. Thus, any new theoretical knowledge is not only added to the existing one, but applying it practically also serves to supplement and modify the overall language communicative competence tailoring it to achieve research purposes.

Regardless of the field of study, researching, writing, and learning are interconnected since most of the assignments carry a research character, i.e. the students have to seek out facts and opinions, identify and read relevant literature, hypothesise, gather data, interpret and analyse the gathered data.

An indispensable requirement for the students majoring in English Philology is the ability to write three term papers, in which the students research issues they have familiarized themselves with during relevant lectures and independent reading. They may choose to conduct research in the aspects of the English language (phonetics, grammar, lexis), British (American, Canadian) studies, ELT methodologies, linguistics, translation, interpreting, and literature.

Therefore, this research aims at specifying some of the key linguistic elements that the students have to acquire in order to accomplish the functions of the relevant competence. It also endeavors to identify principles underlying the proposed framework (see Chapter 3) leading to the end product acceptable by international research community.

1.2 Meaning and Use of Concept *Competence* in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics

In order to conduct research in a foreign language, the students have to be proficient users of the target language; therefore, it is vital to specify the general communicative language competence.

The concept *competence* seems to be one of the most controversial issues in the fields of linguistics and applied linguistics, as it has been used widely and divergently in many different contexts; moreover, different writers interpret it differently since the concept is used for different purposes. Chomsky (1965: 4) used it to describe the knowledge of the language:

> We thus make a fundamental distinction between *competence* (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the language), and *performance,* the actual use of the language in concrete situations.

The linguist distinguishes between *competence*, the knowledge that an ideal speaker/listener of a homogeneous speech community has of the language as a system, and *performance,* which is the application of this knowledge of the language. Due to a vast amount of sounds, words and syntactic rules, the speaker can theoretically create and understand a large number of sentences, including sentences he has never heard before. Thus, Chomsky views *competence* as a state, as something absolute; he equates it with knowledge, 'intrinsic tacit knowledge or competence' (Chomsky, 1965: 140). Since he refers to it as a *steady state* and an *attained state*, we can see that he is interested in the product but not the process. The linguist is concerned with the knowledge of a language, more precisely the knowledge of grammar. Thus, his interpretation of *competence* seems to exclude the idea of *ability.* Chomsky's knowledge provides the basis for performance or actual use of the language. According to Chomsky (ibid.), one cannot directly infer the concept of *performance* from the concept of *competence* since *performance* is determined not only by the speaker's linguistic competence but also by such circumstances as:

> a variety of non-linguistic factors including, on the one hand, social conventions, beliefs about the world, the speaker's emotional attitudes towards what he is saying, his assumption about his interlocutor's attitudes, etc. and, on the other hand, the operation of the psychological and physiological mechanisms involved in the production of utterances. (Lyons, 1983: 233)

To some extent, Chomsky's distinction between *competence* and *performance* corresponds to de Saussure's dichotomy of *langue* and *parole*. The concepts *performance* (Chomsky) and *parole* (de Saussure) can be used almost interchangeably; however, the concepts *competence* and *langue* are quite different. Whereas for Saussure the repository of *langue* is the speech community, for

> Chomsky the repository of 'competence' is the ideal speaker/hearer'. Thus Saussure's distinction is basically sociolinguistic, whereas Chomsky's is basically psycholinguistic. (Richards, et al., 1992: 206)

Moreover, 'Langue is a static system of signs, whereas competence is understood as a dynamic concept, as a mechanism that will generate language endlessly' (Bussmann, 1996: 86). Since Chomsky views *competence* as a static concept, which is referred to monolingual native speakers, it has been much criticized:

> Linguistic theories based on the notion of competence have been reproached for being too idealistic, which has led to a broadening of the original concept to mean communicative competence. (Bussmann, 1996: 86)

Chomsky's theory failed to account for the understanding of the choices language users can make in a given context to realize a particular linguistic aim.

The theory of context was advanced by the anthropologist Malinowski (1923: 307), 'a statement, spoken in real life, is never detached from the situation in which it has been uttered…the utterance has no meaning except in the context of situation.' He coined the concepts *the context of situation* (the environment of the text) and *the context of culture.* The latter is the environment of the linguistic system and is of importance on the level of language use and interpretation. The idea that any language must be understood in its context of situation was further developed by Firth (the London School of Linguistics), who outlined those aspects of the context of situation that were relevant to linguistic description. He argued that 'all linguistics was the study of meaning and all meaning was function in a context' (in Halliday and Hasan, 1991: 8). Firth (1957) generalized Malinowski's concept of the context of situation to include the participants of the situation, their verbal and non-verbal actions, the effects of these actions, and other relevant features, objects, and events (Mey, 1998: 4582).

Nowadays, the scope of context varies in different approaches to language use, e.g. the view of *context as knowledge* prevails in the pragmatics of Grice (1975) and the *speech act theory* of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969). Likewise, Sperber and Wilson (1986) in their *Principle of Relevance,* and Bartlett (1932) in his *schema theory* suggest the presence of knowledge schemata. However, they view this knowledge as an independent one, which determines the use and interpretation of a language. They fail to consider the role of the situation and text, which is knowledge in use. On the contrary, Lyons (1977: 574) emphasizes the role of knowledge in language use, which includes the knowledge of status, formality level, the spoken and written discourse, subject matter, and domain. The latter determines the register of a language. Moreover, he considers the relevance of linguistic features that interact with context. Mey (1993) puts forward the idea of context as knowledge, situation and co-text, the latter being the linguistic environment. By context we can understand such elements as 'the verbal and non-verbal context, the context of the given speech situation and the social context of the relationship between the speaker and hearer, their knowledge, and their attitudes' (Bussmann, 1996: 101-102).

1.3 Framework of Communicative Language Competence

Retaining Chomsky's dichotomy between *competence* and *performance*, Hymes (1967) proposed the concept *communicative competence,* by which he meant the ability to use the language in a social context:

> There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole. (Hymes, 1972: 278)

Hymes (1971: 282) considers *competence* to be the most general concept for the capabilities of a person. It is dependent upon (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use (ibid.). Thus, instead of focusing on a language as a formal system, as it is seen in Chomsky's works, Hymes refers to an individual's ability to use speech appropriately in a variety of social contexts. The scholar seems to be concerned with the social and cultural knowledge that speakers need in order to communicate successfully by understanding and using linguistic means.

The concept *competence* has been extended to include both the *knowledge* and the *ability* to use it. According to Widdowson (2000: 28),

> Ability is the executive branch of competence….and enables us to achieve meaning by putting our knowledge to work. … Since this ability is only activated by some communicative purpose or other, we can reasonably call this more comprehensive concept *communicative competence*.

CEF (2001: 9) provides definitions of the concepts *competences* and *communicative language competences.* Whereas *competences* are seen as 'the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions', c*ommunicative* *language competences* are ‘those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means.’ CEF is consistent with earlier work in communicative competence (Savignon 1983, 2000; Bachman, 1995; Canale, 1983; Canale and Swain 1980; Munby 1978; Hymes 1972) and seems to have provided the most comprehensive description of communicative language competences. The above-mentioned applied linguists agree that the ability to use a language communicatively entails both knowledge in the language and the ability of using this competence. For example, Savignon (2000: 14) argues that through practice and experience in a wide range of communicative contexts and events, learners gradually expand their communicative language competence, which comprises grammatical, discourse, sociocultural and strategic competences. She stresses that all the competences are interrelated and each competence is essential to the overall communicative competence.

CEF (2001) has described what language learners have to learn to do in order to communicate in the target language by dividing the language competence into: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

The purpose of the next sub-section is to sketch briefly the key contents and boundaries of the communicative language competence, which is based on CEF (2001), and to discuss the theories related to the LFRC in the light of the proposed theory of communicative competence.

1.3.1 Linguistic Competence

The linguistic competence enables a person to recognize lexical, phonological, syntactical features of the language and to use them in order to interpret and form words and sentences.

The ***lexical competence*** is concerned with the knowledge and ability to use the vocabulary of the language. The lexical elements of the relevant competence are fixed expressions, e.g. phrasal verbs, fixed collocations, and single word forms, e.g. nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, which belong to open word classes. The latter may consist of closed lexical sets. Closed word classes include grammatical elements, e.g. articles, demonstratives, personal pronouns, possessives, conjunctions.

To communicate well in academic and research situations, it is important to know and be able to use not only general vocabulary, but also vocabulary for academic and research purposes. Nation (2001: 187) contends that when learners have learned the 2 000-3 000 general words in English, they should start learning more specialized areas. Knowing academic and research vocabulary is an essential and useful goal for the learners who study English as a discipline. Coxhead (1998 in Nation, 2001) using a 3 500 000 token corpus of academic English (science, arts, commerce and law texts), has compiled an Academic Word List (AWL), which consists of 570 word families. This vocabulary is common to a wide range of academic fields and is more closely related to high frequency vocabulary than to technical vocabulary (Chung et al. 2003), which is associated with just one specialized field. The lexical competence for research purposes entails the knowledge of the forms and meanings of words that are used in an academic discipline and the ways these words are formed with prefixes, roots and suffixes, the parts of speech of the words, and the grammatical constraints governing them.

The ***grammatical competence*** entails the knowledge of morphology and syntax. It includes the knowledge of and the ability to use the grammatical means of the language, for instance, elements (e.g. morphs, morphemes-roots and affixes, words), categories (e.g. number, case, concrete/abstract, countable/uncountable; active/passive voice; past/present/future tense; progressive, perfect aspect), structures (e.g. compound and complex words), clauses (e.g. main, subordinate, co-ordinate), and sentences (e.g. simple, compound, complex). The *grammatical competence* of the students doing research involves not only all the knowledge of the grammar of everyday English, but also the ability to use these structures accurately and effectively in research settings. Thus, on the one hand it comprises a comprehensive knowledge of the grammatical features (morphological and syntactic) associated with argumentation, analysis, description, and definition such as parallel clauses, conditionals, complex clauses, and expanded features of the English verb system. On the other hand, it entails the knowledge of the preferences for one grammatical choice over another determined by the purpose of research communication.

The ***semantic competence*** raises the students' awareness and increases their control of the organization of meaning. Lexical semantics studies the questions of word meaning, whereas grammatical semantics explores the meaning of grammatical elements, categories, structures and processes. Pragmatic semantics deals with logical relations such as entailment (i.e. the relationship between two or more sentences), presupposition (i.e. what an addressor assumes that the addressee of the message already knows), implicature (i.e. the idea of an utterance that is not strictly implied by its content), etc.

The ***phonological competence*** is the knowledge and the skill in the perception and production of the phonetic and phonological resources of the language.

The learners studying English as a discipline are familiar with most phonetic and phonological features of the English language, but they must learn new features when they learn words used for research purposes, particularly words borrowed from other languages. Moreover, the students at the advanced level attending lectures may encounter reductions in normal speech; therefore, they need to review stress, pause, pitch and intonation patterns (Peterson in Celce-Murcia, 2001: 97).

The ***orthographic competence*** refers to the knowledge and the skill required to decode and produce the written symbols of a language, e.g. the proper spelling of words, the use of punctuation marks, the typographical conventions and varieties of font, logographic signs. For instance, students conducting research must know not only logographic signs that are in common use (*e.g., etc*.), but also such abbreviations as *ibid*, *et al*, which are typical of scholarly texts. The orthographic competence also entails knowing how to write the bibliography.

The ***orthoepic competence*** is the knowledge of and ability to produce a correct pronunciation from the written form. It is an important competence since it entails, e.g. skills to use a dictionary and the knowledge of the conventions used there for the representation of pronunciation; the knowledge of punctuation marks for phrasing and intonation.

1.3.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

The sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge and the skill required to use a language with the appropriate social meaning for the communication situation, e.g. the ability to interpret and to use the linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, and the expressions of folk-wisdom. It also entails the ability to recognize differences in register, dialect or variety. Dialect relates to ‘variations that are located regionally or socially’ (Spolsky, 1998: 33). Thus, dialect distinctions can be made at different levels. It can be a regional dialect, i.e. used in one part of a country, and a social dialect that is used by people belonging to a particular social class. For historical reasons, American and British English are the most influential dialects or varieties; therefore, the students at the FML are made aware of the distinction between them, in particular their characteristic features in semantics, spelling, grammar and pronunciation. It seems to be essential that the students are consistent in using one variety when writing their RPs. However, ‘dialect differences are arbitrary, while register differences are functional reflecting the way that grammar varies according to communicative purpose' (Biber et al., 2003: 5).

The sociolinguistic competence is a broad concept; however, in this paper we have restricted its use to refer to the recognition and use of the register of the target language. When we communicate, we select not only what to say, but also how to say it. The vocabulary and grammar that we use are influenced by such factors as the setting, the purpose of communication, the people we are speaking or writing to. The concept *register* is used to refer to variation in language use within a single dialect or variety (Halliday et al., 1991: 12; Hatim and Mason, 1990: 46). According to Biber et al. (2003: 8), there are four main registers: conversation, fiction, news, and academic prose; the latter can be subdivided into academic books and research papers and articles. The sub-category of lectures belongs to non-conversational speech. A more traditional approach to the classification of functional styles has been proposed by the Latvian linguist Rozenbergs (1995; 2004, 83-103), who classifies registers according to their use of emotively expressive resources and the social functions they fulfil into scientific and popular scientific, administrative, informative, colloquial, and literary styles. However, since this research is grounded in the theories propounded by Halliday and his Systemic Functional Linguistics theory in particular, we shall refer to his interpretation of the matter. Developed by Halliday (1964), register analysis aims at identifying lexico-grammatical features and explaining the relationship between the text and context. Halliday et al. (1964: 87) argue that language changes, as its function varies; it differs in different situations. Register analysis has been defined in respect of the formal linguistic properties of texts, e.g.

> A register can be defined as a configuration of meanings that are typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, mode, and tenor. But since it is a configuration of meanings, a register must also include the expressions, the lexico-grammatical and phonological features, that typically accompany or REALISE these meanings. (Halliday et al., 1991: 38-39)

Thus, Halliday (ibid.) distinguishes differences in register in terms of three aspects of the language use in context: *the mode of discourse*, *the field of discourse* and *the tenor of discourse.* The features of the context are presented in Table 1.1 below. The *mode of discourse* is the means by which the text is being created; it focuses on the spoken or written channel; the symbolic organization of the discourse, its function in the context; it refers to the role of the language in the text and the nature of the text itself (e.g. an essay, a lecture).

SITUATION: Features of the context	***TEXT:*** Functional component of semantic system
Field of discourse	***Ideational function*** • vocabulary; • transitivity.
Tenor of discourse	***Interpersonal function*** • discourse markers; • personal pronouns; • modality.
Mode of discourse	***Textual function*** • theme; • information; • cohesive relations.

Table 1.1 **Relation of Text to Context of Situation (adapted from Halliday and Hasan, 1991: 26).**

The *mode* is reflected in lexico-grammatical features that have textual meanings, and it is expressed through the textual function in the semantics. The *field of discourse* may refer to the subject matter of the language use as in lectures, RPs. However, Hatim and Mason (1990: 48) argue that the *field* is not the same as subject matter because there are fields that are characterised by a variety of subject matters. It refers to what the text is about; it focuses on institutional practices, 'the topic together with the institutionally or socially expected forms typically expected to express it.'

The *field of discourse* is reflected in the lexico-grammatical patterns and is expressed through the ideational function in the semantics. The third important consideration is *the tenor of discourse*, which refers to the relations among the participants. It depends on social relations and refers to who is present in the text and the role relationships of the participants, which influence involvement, formality and politeness. The *tenor of discourse* can be expressed through certain lexico-grammatical features, e.g. the choice of person (e.g. *I* and *you*), and through the choice of speech function. The *tenor* is expressed through the interpersonal function in the semantics.

Depending on the *mode* and the *tenor* of discourse, English can be of frozen, formal, neutral, informal, familiar, intimate style (CEF, 2001: 120), which is a variation in a person's speech or writing. Depending on the discourse domain in which language use occurs, the students should be able to determine the register and style that are used in it, including the specific functions and organizational features that are appropriate to that register because using the right register of a particular discourse domain can establish their membership in a relevant discourse community. Depending on the situation, texts can be referred to as belonging to different registers. Halliday and Hasan (1991: 38-39) differentiate between open-ended and closed (restricted) registers. An open-ended register does not seem to limit the students as to the choice of the range of meanings, whereas a closed register fixes the range of possible meanings. Research papers belong to the latter kind of register: the closed type.

The construction of discourse cannot be achieved only by the linguistic and sociolinguistic competences. The pragmatic competence is another important element of the communicative language competence.

1.3.3 Pragmatic Competence and Supporting Theories

This section of the paper addresses pragmatic sub-competences and their underlying theories that are relevant to this research and/or serves as an introduction to the theories and concepts explored in subsequent chapters.

Crystal (1997: 301) proposes that pragmatics is

> the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

The pragmatic competence envisages that language learners having C2 level, which is the assumed language level of the last year undergraduate students at the FML, 'can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organisational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices' CEF (2001: 125) (See Appendix 5).

Yule (1995: 3) emphasizes that 'pragmatics is the study of contextual meaning'. Hence, we may define pragmatic competence as the ability to interpret the speakers' or writers' intended meaning in a particular context. The pragmatic competence comprises discourse and functional competences.

The discourse competence entails the ability of a language user to arrange sentences in sequence in order to produce a coherent text, which can be achieved by paying attention to such discourse elements as topic/focus, given/new and by being able to structure and manage discourse in terms of thematic organization; coherence and cohesion; style and register; rhetorical effectiveness; the Co-operative Principle (Grice); text design, i.e.

knowledge of how information is structured in realizing various macrofunctions; and how written texts are laid out, signposted and sequenced. The analysis of the key concepts pertaining to the competence is discussed in Chapter 3.

Thus, the discourse competence refers to the knowledge of the ways in which a coherent text is constructed, which comprises the knowledge of the relevant linguistic features of the target genre.

Bachman (1995: 95) uses the concept *discourse domain* to describe the conventions that characterize the language used within a particular area or for specific functions. We can distinguish between a *written discourse domain* and a *spoken discourse domain*, and the most general distinction between *registers* can be made on the basis of the domain or modes of discourse, i.e. spoken and written. However, even between the spoken modes there are differences. For instance, conversation is more concerned with personal communication; however, the presentation of the Bachelor thesis has an informational purpose, which accordingly is reflected in the choice of linguistic features.

1.3.3.1 Theories on Language Functions: Bühler's Model of Language Function, Jakobson's Communication Model (Prague School), Halliday's Model of Language (London School), Brown and Yule's Functions of Language

According to Halliday (1991: 15), the concept *function* can be viewed as a synonym for the concept *use.* There are several classifications of linguistic functions (Malinowski (1923), Britton (1970), Morris (1967) in Halliday, 1991); however, the most comprehensive are Bühler's Organon model of language first proposed in his *Theory of Language* in 1934 and Jakobson's Communication model (1950).

Bühler's model (1934) views a language as a tool, by means of which one person (i.e. a sender) communicates to another person (i.e. a receiver) about things being communicated. Thus, communication takes place between a sender, a receiver, and a third party: objects and states of affairs. Bühler distinguishes three main functions of language: *representational (3rd person)*, *expressive (1st person)*, and *appellative (2nd person)*, each of which applies to a communicative action, which depends on the relations of the linguistic sign in a communicative situation. He emphasizes that several functions may act simultaneously. According to Bühler, the linguistic sign is:

a) a ‘symptom’ inasmuch as it ‘expresses the profound psyche of the speaker’. Thus, when the focus is on the sender, the function is called the *expressive function* of language.
b) a ‘signal’ inasmuch as it is an appeal to the receiver. When the focus is on the receiver, it is the *appellative function* of language.
c) a ‘symbol’ inasmuch as it refers to objects and states of affairs in reality. The focus is on the objects, and the *representational function* of language refers to the relation between the linguistic sign and the object or state of affairs that it represents as a ‘symbol’. (Bussmann, 1995: 342-343)

Bühler’s tripartite model of language functions was adapted and extended by Jakobson, who was the principal founder of the European movement in structural linguistics known as the Prague school. He considered that a context is necessary from which the object of communication is drawn. Jakobson introduced a theory that analyses the spoken language put to use in human communication. Jakobson’s Communication Model consists of two layers: one describes the various elements of language use, and the other shows the use of the language elements, i.e. language functions (www3). As it is shown in Figure 1.1, the *referential function* refers to the context and deals with the exchange of information. It is *what is being spoken of, what is being referred to*. In Bühler’s model, it is a *representative* function.

Context

Referential function

Message

Poetic function

Addresser____Addressee

Emotive function **Conative function**

Contact

Phatic function

Code

Metalinguistic function

Figure 1.1 **Jakobson’s Communication Model**

The *poetic function* focuses on the essence of the message (the use of the medium). Messages convey more than just the content since messages can change by means of stress, accent, pitch, rhetorical figures, synonymity and antonymity, etc. The *emotive function* focuses on the addresser and is similar to Bühler's *expressive* function. It refers to the attitude of the addresser towards the content of the message, e.g. through emphasis, intonation, loudness, interjections, etc. The *phatic function* is used to establish and to maintain social relationships either by opening the channel or checking that it is working. The *metalinguistic function* deals with the code itself. People use the *metalinguistic* function in order to clarify and/or correct any misunderstanding that might have occurred, e.g. when explicitly stating the rules of grammar. The *conative function*, which corresponds with the Bühler's *appelative* function, focuses on the addressee and aims at creating a certain response in the addressee.

Building on Jakobson's model, Hymes (1972) suggested that any communicative use of a language is made up by seven factors, each connected with a different function. The first is the speaker-writer, the second is the listener-reader; the third one is the message passed between them drawn from a speech code. The message conveys a topic, passed by some physical means, a visual channel in the case of writing or an aural channel in the case of speech. The speech event is located in some setting. It is possible to study one at a time, but each must be included to understand the working of the system. In particular cases, one or more of these factors can be emphasized. The *emotive* or *expressive* function stresses the speaker-writer's attitude. The *referential* or *denotative* function stresses the topic. Some messages just check that the channel is open or assure that it is.

Essentially, Prague School functionalists emphasize the multifunctionality of the language, as it is a functional means of communication whose structural sign system can be described through observation of concrete linguistic material in use.

Halliday (1990), Bachman (1995) and other linguists have further developed communication functions. Halliday has elaborated the Functional Sentence Perspective theory and propounded the Systemic Functional Linguistics theory, which also centres round the concept of language function. A language is viewed as a systematic resource for expressing meaning in context, and grammar is regarded as developing out of the need for language users to interact for functional purposes (Halliday 1991). Thus in Halliday's view, a language form is meant to serve functional purposes, and it is argued that, e.g. a person who is learning by listening to a professor, or reading a textbook, has to:

> 1. a) understand the processes being referred to, the participants in these processes, and the circumstances-time, cause, etc. – associated with them [EXPERIENTIAL];
> b) understand the relationship between one process and another, or one participant and another, that share the same position in the text [LOGICAL];
> 2. recognize the speech function, the type of offer, command, statement, or question, the attitudes and judgments embodied in it, and the rhetorical features that constitute it as a symbolic act [INTERPERSONAL]; and
> 3. grasp the new value and topicality of the message, and the coherence between one part of the text and every other part [TEXTUAL]. (Halliday, 1991: 45)

Hence, the basic elements of meaning, or *macrofunctions*, are the expression of the speaker's or writer's experience, which is concerned with representation (*ideational function)*; the expression of social roles, attitudes and relationships, which is concerned with interaction *(interpersonal function);* and the ability to organize the other meanings into coherent texts *(textual function)* (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992: 151).

In his description of language functions, Bachman (1995: 93) draws on the research into functional theory of language conducted by Halliday and proposes four macro-functions: *ideational, manipulative, heuristic*, and *imaginative*. For example, we use a language *ideationally* to express propositions, to provide information, when delivering lectures, giving presentations, and writing research papers. According to Bachman (ibid.), 'The *manipulative functions* are those in which the primary purpose is to affect the world around us.' The *heuristic function* (ibid.) is used to extend the knowledge of the world around us and is connected with teaching, learning, including self-study; problem solving and hypothesizing; conscious memorizing of facts, grammar rules, and words, etc. Problem solving can be exemplified in the writing of essays, reports, and research papers since learners go through the process of drafting, writing, editing. Bachman (1995: 94) argues that 'the *imaginative function* of language enables us to create or extend our own environment for humorous or esthetic purposes.' For instance, we watch television and films, read books and magazines, tell jokes and stories for enjoyment. Evidently, when using a language, several functions are employed simultaneously, and these are the relations among functions that make discourse coherent. However, the attempt to provide a general set of language functions has resulted in vague, often confusing terminology. Therefore, Brown and Yule (1989: 1) propose to use only two major functions of language:

> That function which language serves in the expression of 'content' we will describe as transactional, and that function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes we will describe as interactional.

The *interactional* function of language is used to establish and maintain social relationships. The concept *interaction* has been used in a variety of different senses, e.g. models of foreign language acquisition, instructional exchanges between teachers and learners, a.o. (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 79-80). The interactional view of linguistic studies considers that a language is

> a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. (Richards and Rodgers, 2001 in Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 107)

Lyons (1977: 2) suggests that a person is primarily interested in a deliberate communication of propositional information. Several linguists consider the *transactional* function of language to be the most important one (e.g. Brown and Yule, 1989; Cook, 1990), and it is seen as message oriented, which implies communicating correct messages efficiently. Brown and Yule (1989: 4) argue that written language is, in general, used for primarily transactional purposes.

The distinction *transactional/interactional* corresponds to Bühler's (1934) *representative/expressive*, Jakobson's (1960) *referential/emotive*, Halliday's (1991) *ideational/interpersonal* and Lyons' (1977) *descriptive/social-expressive* functional dichotomies.

The framework of language functions proposed by CEF distinguishes between macrofunctions and microfunctions. The former are commentary, exposition, explanation, demonstration, instruction, persuasion, which consist of sequence of sentences used for particular purposes. The latter are concerned with the functional use of single, short utterances, e.g. imparting and seeking factual information (e.g. reporting), expressing and finding out attitudes (e.g. agreement/disagreement); suasion (e.g. suggestions), structuring discourse (e.g. opening, turn-taking); communication repair. The classification seems to be based on the fundamental work by the linguists of the Prague School and the London School, which is applicable to all types of texts.

Thus, this research has adopted Halliday's model of language functions, which comprises three *macrofunctions: ideational function, interpersonal function,* and *textual function*, for the analysis of spoken and written discourse. English for research purposes builds on and extends the learners' general competence of language functions.

1.3.3.2 Grice's Co-operative Principle

When communicating for research purposes, people assume that verbal exchanges will conform to language conventions and norms, which the philosopher Grice (1975) called the *Co-operative Principle.* It is often referred to as a theoretical model of interaction, and it has been adapted to writing (e.g. Grabe and Kaplan, 1996: 41). In Gricean pragmatics, the view of context as knowledge dominates. It is determined by the language user's knowledge of the world, which guides the use and interpretation of the language. In written/spoken discourse, the writer/speaker must take into consideration a hypothetical addressee and tailor his/her text to facilitate communication. The model is built on the idea that the discourse is interpreted by the addressee who draws both on his/her knowledge of context and his/her belief that the writer/speaker will consider his/her interpretive needs (Hyland, 2000: 14). Hence, in order to communicate successfully for research purposes, the students should be confident in their ability to communicate, which could be achieved by observing four *maxims of conversation*. Drawing on Kant's four logical functions of reason, Gricean maxims (Grice, 1975: 47) make up a set of principles:

1) *maxim of quantity* (make your contribution as informative as necessary for the current purposes of the exchange, but no more informative than necessary;
2) *maxim of quality* (try to make your contribution one that is true: do not say what you believe to be false; do not say anything for which you lack adequate evidence);
3) *maxim of relevance* (make your contribution relevant);
4) *maxim of manner* (be clear, avoid ambiguity; be brief and orderly).

To a certain extent, speakers/writers create meaning through their uses of conversational maxims. The *quantity maxim* requires being informative. It is expected that students will not say more than it is necessary and will say all that is necessary to convey the information required. In research, hedging is often used (e.g. barely, fairly, merely, basically, commonly, mainly, etc.) (see Chapter 3) to show that the writer/speaker is conscious of the *quantity maxim*. For example,

This method gives merely probable results. This constitutes a rather interesting case. It is a commonly held belief. (BA14)

Cook argues (1990: 31) that the scientific discourse often 'sacrifices the maxim of quantity to the maxim of quality', and that *the maxims of quantity and manner* are often in disagreement too. For instance, sometimes a student may need to use more words in order to explain something better. The *quality maxim* requires a contribution that is true and has adequate evidence. To support assertions and convince the readers, evidence must be reliable. It means that it must be a) accurate: drawn from trustworthy sources, quoted exactly, presented with the original meaning unchanged; b) representative: reflecting a full range of sample from which the issue is said to be drawn; c) adequate: plentiful and specific to support the writers' assertions. The *manner maxim* presupposes that the idea will be clear, brief, orderly and understandable, and that redundancy and ambiguity will be avoided. In American academic discourse, headings are used to promote clarity-to help the reader remember the writer's focus or theme (Hatch, 1992: 62), and metadiscourse is used to guide the addressee in order to avoid any ambiguity. The *relevance maxim* expects the students to be relevant.

Sperber and Wilson (1986) have reduced the four maxims to one: the Principle of Relevance. According to the linguists, we pay attention only to the information that seems relevant to us. It is assumed that what the students say is relevant to the topic, research questions and the hypothesis, and that the evidence they present comes from the sources with authority on the topic. Moreover, the information must be put into an appropriate sequence so that communication messages relate to the previous ones and are relevant to what follows, i.e. they must be coherent. In order to identify specific illustrations or the development of ideas, the writers can use different linguistic means (Karapetjana, Rozina, 2004: 159-160), i.e. markers (*for example, for instance)* tied to the expectation of relevance, and paragraph markers that achieve coherence:

However, in the context of presenting their Bachelor papers, the students sometimes flout the maxims (e.g. Rost, 2002: 43-44, Laane ed. 1999: 16). For instance, *the maxim of quality* can be flouted by providing false information or saying something that does not have enough evidence; *the maxim of relevance*, by saying things that are not relevant to the theme; *the maxim of manner*, by failing to transmit information in a structured way and by being too wordy. To exemplify, Cook (1990: 32) shows how the usage of abbreviations, e.g. *TESOL, TEFL* employed 'to establish solidarity between speakers', resulted in the breakdown of communication because the person addressed did not know them. Likewise, the students must avoid using abbreviations or otherwise explain them. They must also explain the terms that can be interpreted differently by various addressees or provide a glossary. The *maxim of quantity* can be violated by being more informative than it is necessary. However, it can have a two-way result. If we are too brief, we may create the impression of being terse. On the other hand, if we use too many words, we may create prolixity (Cook, ibid.). Although it is argued (in Laane ed., 1999: 16) that language users can unintentionally ignore or violate these maxims, it is important that they develop an awareness of when and to what extent such violation of maxims is appropriate.

People use a language in speaking, listening, writing, and reading to achieve different purposes. Brown and Yule (1989: 1) argue that the analysis of discourse cannot be:

> restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs.

Thus, the ***functional competence*** is concerned with the use of spoken and written discourse in communication for particular functional purposes. Hence, the analysis of spoken and written discourse is the analysis of language in use.

Interim summary

The chapter dealt with the dichotomy between competence and performance and the main elements of communicative competence. We referred to the communicative language competence as both the knowledge and skills in using this knowledge in actual communication. The linguistic competence enables a student to recognize the features of a language and to make use of them in order to interpret and form words and sentences. The sociolinguistic competence is the control of the conventions of language use in a particular context, which entails the recognition and use of the register of the target language. The texts can be distinguished and interpreted through the register variables of *field, tenor* and *mode*. Language use is determined by the context of situation, the linguistic context, and the context of knowledge. Interaction is successful if the language users focus on relevant elements of a particular contextual situation. If the students wish to participate in social interaction for research purposes, they should be able to identify the contextual elements and conform to the expectations of the relevant discourse community. Moreover, it is necessary that they gain equal access to this contextual information. The students learn and thus acquire new knowledge and extend their contextual knowledge in the process of social interaction, i.e. their studies at the FML. The pragmatic competence pertains to the ability to accomplish certain communicative purposes in a language, which can be achieved by structuring the spoken and written discourse (discourse competence) for particular functional purposes (functional competence). A language form serves functional purposes: the language varies with context and content, and it is the medium through which meaning is realized. The basic components of meaning or macrofunctions are the representation of experience (ideational function); the expression of social roles, attitudes and relationships, which is concerned with interaction (interpersonal function); and the ability to organize the other meanings into coherent texts (textual function).The discourse component of communicative competence enables the students to use linguistic forms and meanings to communicate cohesively and coherently. The *ideational, interpersonal,* and *textual macro-functions* are applicable to the analysis of spoken and written discourse used for research purposes.

Grice's Co-operative Principle makes a set of rules for communicating clear and effective texts for research purposes.

The communicative language competence provides an essential background for the acquisition of the LFRC. It is a broad concept that embodies the ability to transfer language, skills and knowledge to new situations (i.e. independent research) within a specific field.

As a result of the analysis of the linguistic theories and the communicative language competence, we can conclude that <u>the linguo-functional research competence</u> is the quintessence of communicative language competences, i.e. linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, used when reading, writing, listening and speaking for research purposes. A command of the LFRC involves the acquisition of the language needed to carry out specific functions for research purposes in spoken and written discourse.

Chapter 2 Linguistic Theories on Spoken Discourse as a Pre-Requisite for Developing Linguo-Functional Research Competence

Chapter 2 builds on the conceptual overview of Chapter 1 in order to address some of the key issues in the nature of discourse. Since spoken discourse and written discourse are significant for this research, it aims at emphasizing the correlation between spoken and written modes in terms of their communicative functions, macrostructure and linguistic features. However, full treatment of the dichotomy between the modes is beyond the scope of this chapter.

In order to understand the true nature of communication, which is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, we look at both interpersonal and ideational functions of the spoken discourse. While focusing on ideational language, the aim of this chapter is to describe the macro-structure of university lectures and to identify some micro-features that contribute to it: logical linguistic structuring of lectures and metadiscourse. The chapter emphasizes the role of schema in lecture comprehension by drawing on Schema Theory propounded by the English psychologist Bartlett in 1932. Further, the chapter works toward defining metadiscourse and presents a discussion of its organizing and expressive roles in the spoken discourse.

It also highlights the relevance of note taking for academic and research purposes. By commenting on research conducted by applied linguists on spoken discourse, this chapter reports on the results of the survey, involving 128 students. The administered questionnaire aimed at examining the first year students' views on note taking and lecture comprehension at the FML and comparing their perceptions with those of others. Finally, it briefly reports on the students' summaries based on the lecture notes and hypothesizes that if the spoken mode shares structural components with the written mode and if these elements are acquired in one mode, they can be applied in the other provided there is adequate exposure to them.

2.1 Defining Discourse

One of the ways students acquire the LFRC is by learning the discourse of the discipline. There are many definitions of discourse and what counts as discourse. It is assumed that the concept *discourse* was coined by Harris (1952). Although Harris was interested in the analysis of a sentence, he ‘initiated a search for language rules which would explain how sentences were connected within a text by a kind of extended grammar (Cook, 1990). Nowadays discourse analysis is understood as a study of language use above the sentence level. In linguistics, it has been referred to as: text-linguistics, text analysis, rhetorical analysis and functional analysis, and the main object of these studies has been to understand the structure and function of language use to communicate meaning (Bhatia, 1993). Hyland (2002b: 11) argues that discourse

> refers to language as use, and to the purposes and functions linguistic forms serve in texts. Here the linguistic patterns of finished texts point to contexts beyond the page, implying a range of social constraints and choices that operate on writers in any context. The writer has certain goals and intentions, certain relationships to his or her readers, and certain information to convey, and the forms of a text are resources used to accomplish these.

Thus, discourse can be defined as the language used in complete spoken and written texts for a certain purpose in a context.

Spoken discourse and written discourse vary across a number of dimensions due to their distinct functions (McCarthy, et al. 1994: 37; Halliday, 1990: 32), which are determined by what is happening (field), who are taking part (tenor), and what role the language is playing (mode) (Halliday, 1990: 44). Thus, since they ‘represent different registers within a single language’ (Halliday, 1990: 42), they are not totally alike.

However, it is argued that the differences have been overstated as a result of drawing on prototypical situations in speech and writing, which do not take into account the diversity of spoken and written genres (Hyland, 2002b: 50). Likewise, Halliday (1990: 32) points out that the two modes do not form a simple dichotomy since they have features characteristic of the other medium. The linguist posits (ibid.) that speech and writing are used in different contexts, for different purposes, although with a certain amount of overlap (Halliday, 1990: 93). Likewise, Biber (1988) emphasizes that ‘there is no linguistic or situational characterization of speech and writing that is true of all spoken and written genres’. Thus, depending on the context and language functions, some kinds of spoken discourse, e.g. lessons, university lectures, interviews have features similar to written discourse. For example, the speech of academics can be influenced by written language forms (Brown et al., 1989: 14), which is exhibited in carefully planned and structured language, impersonal grammatical forms, metadiscourse. While the linguistic forms are relevant in the analysis of discourse, they have to be considered from the point of view of the functions they perform.

2.2 Interpersonal and Ideational Uses of Spoken Discourse

The two major functions that the language performs in the expression of propositional content and social relations or personal attitudes are ideational and interpersonal functions respectively. The interpersonal language function is the use of language to establish and maintain social relations. The language is often used to discuss uncomplicated or familiar topics to the speakers in contexts that have many verbal and non-verbal cues to meanings, which provide opportunities to interact, thus facilitating comprehension. The speaker uses a set of interactive strategies in order to initiate the discourse, which involves, e.g. starting the discourse, introducing a topic by using verbal and non-verbal cues; developing the discourse by (e.g. acknowledging, replying, giving feedback; asking for clarification); extending the discourse (e.g. exemplifying, adding points; shifting the topic, turn-taking), etc. Closing the discourse involves marking the boundaries and concluding the topic by using appropriate verbal cues such as substantiating, summing up, etc. On the contrary, the ideational language function is the use of language to communicate information and to express the subject matter. Although some of the interpersonal strategies are used in ideational uses of language, e.g. introducing a topic, exemplifying, summing up, in most cases the interactive strategies mentioned above are absent from a more formal spoken discourse such as a lecture or BA thesis defense, where a one-way information flow seems to be the dominant mode. Moreover, depending on the type of lecture, it may provide few context clues to assist comprehension.

Although the two functions are often intertwined, academic and research language, which is used to impart new and often complicated information, is mostly ideational, and since verbal and non-verbal cues may not be present, it is more complex and, therefore, more difficult to comprehend than the language used for social purposes.

Thus, the lecture is a fairly unique form of spoken discourse because of at least two major peculiarities. Firstly, it does not tend to be interactive: students are often unable to use most of the interactive strategies specific to interpersonal spoken discourse. Secondly, it may be based on the elements of written discourse. Therefore, the development of effective academic listening skills is an essential task for the students since they contribute to the acquisition of LFRC.

2.3 Competences Involved in Comprehension of Academic Texts

Cummins emphasizes that two factors affect language comprehension: cognitive complexity and context (in Chamot et al., 1994: 40). The comprehension of the language used for academic and research purposes is influenced by the context of knowledge and the context of situation, i.e. the environment in which a text functions.

CEF (2001: 67) (see Appendix 6 envisages B2 level for ‘Listening as a member of a live audience’, which the first year students’ should possess in order to ‘follow the essentials of lectures, talks and reports and other forms of academic/professional presentation which are propositionally and linguistically complex’ (ibid.).

However, in order to follow and comprehend a complicated subject matter expressed by using a linguistically complex language, the students require a mastery of listening skills that are necessary in order to take part in formal lectures, oral exams, and academic presentations as well as in such interactive exchanges as seminar settings and conversational lecture styles (Peterson in Celce-Murcia, 2001: 87). Richards (1983) has developed a taxonomy of micro-skills involved in successful academic listening comprehension process. It can be seen from Figure 2.1 below that the student has to rely on the process of inference, e.g. (5) ability to infer cause and effect relationships, to arrive at an interpretation of the utterance and the connection between utterances. The textual function of the language enables ‘the discourse to cohere not only with itself but also with its context of situation’ (Halliday, 1991: 45). This link between the text and context enables listeners and readers to make predictions; however, they have to look for such cohesion devices as anaphora, conjunctions, and ellipsis (Halliday and Hasan, 1985; Cook, 1990) in order to comprehend the discourse.

Although, written language and spoken language involve different linguistic decoding skills (i.e. visual vs. aural), they use similar cognitive strategies (Rost, 1994: 8). The main difference is that the student when listening to a lecture does not have control over the input; and therefore, successful students must make sense of the speaker’s linguistic and sometimes non-linguistic signals in the discourse.

1. ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture;
2. ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development;
3. ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g. major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples);
4. ability to identify role of discourse markers in signaling structure of a lecture (e.g. conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines);
5. ability to infer relationships (e.g. cause, effect, conclusion);
6. ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic;
7. ability to deduce meanings of words from context;
8. ability to recognize markers of cohesion;
9. ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g. pitch, volume, pace);
10. ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter;
11. ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual;
12. ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed;
13. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned;
14. familiarity with different registers: written versus colloquial;
15. ability to recognize irrelevant matters: jokes, digressions, meanderings;
16. ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude;
17. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g. turn taking, clarification requests);
18. ability to recognize instructional/learner tasks (e.g. warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions).

Figure 2.1 **Micro-Skills: Academic Listening (Richards, 1983)**

From Figure 2.1 above, we may observe that students often have to use strategies similar to those they would use when facing a written text. For example, they have to be able to understand not explicitly stated information through making inferences; to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar lexical items; to understand relations between part of discourse through lexical cohesion; to recognize indicators of discourse for changing a topic, emphasis, expressing a contrary point of view; to distinguish the main points from the supporting details.

The academic lecture is the main spoken genre in academic settings, and it has been a salient area for English as a foreign language (EFL) research for a number of years. By definition, a lecture 'is a talk to a large group in a lecture theatre on a particular topic that provides basic information' (Payne and Whittaker, 2000: 7). Thus, a lecture is the vehicle of instruction, the aim of which is to influence students with intent, which might be to inform, to raise their awareness about certain issues. More importantly, while listening to lectures, students perform a preparatory linguistic function for research, which may lead to a resultant function: the identification of a research topic. From a pragmatic perspective, listening to lectures is a communication process, where the lecturer is trying to convey a message using a spoken text, but the student is trying to understand it. Note taking is an indispensable part of the process, as it serves as a correlation between oral and written discourse, bridging the gap between the two of them. If decoded the information enters the mind of the student and communication is achieved (Figure 2.2).

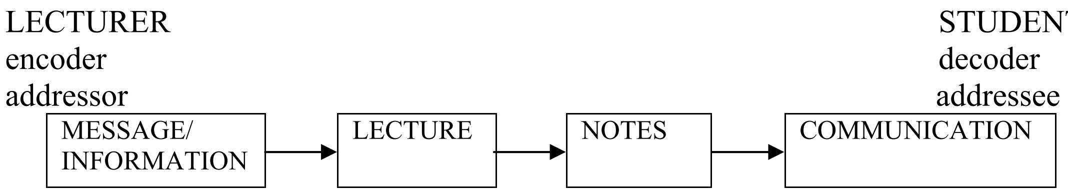


Figure 2.2 **Model of Spoken Communication at Lectures**

It is argued (Rost, 2002: 74) that even experienced listeners with a high level of linguistic competence may experience understanding problems, e.g.:

1. decoding, i.e. recognizing what has been said;
2. comprehending, i.e. understanding the main and subsidiary points;
3. taking notes, i.e. writing down quickly, briefly and clearly the important points for future use. (James, 1977 in Jordan, 1997: 186)

For the communication process to be successful, the student involved in a lecture comprehension process has to employ at least five types of competences: pragmatic, semantic, syntactic, lexical, and phonological, which interact with one another (Anderson, 1985). The competences can be represented hierarchically, where pragmatic competence is the highest and phonological competence is the lowest level (see Figure 2.3). The competences interact; however, only the higher level processes may facilitate the lower level processes. The main skill used by students in decoding meaning in spoken discourse relies on their phonological competence or the ability to identify the main points or important information through recognizing features specific to spoken discourse, which involves not only recognizing unit boundaries phonologically, but also identifying false starts, hesitations, stress and intonation patterns, decreased speed, increased volume.

When listening to an academic discourse, prosodic features are very important since students do not have a written text, and they cannot look for punctuation, headings, sub-headings, paragraphs and other cues to coherence.

Pragmatic	Application of world, schematic, and context knowledge;
Semantics	Processing of propositions;
Syntax	Processing of phrases and clauses;
Lexis	Processing of words;
Phonology	Processing of acoustic input.

Figure 2.3 **Processing Levels in the Model of Lecture Comprehension (adapted from Flowerdew, 1994)**

Intonation in terms of *given* and *new* information (the Prague School; the London School) is an important aspect in text comprehension since the lecturer can introduce a new topic, a new section of a text by, e.g. raising the pitch of his voice or by moving the primary stress in certain phrases. The decoding of the meaning in spoken academic discourse also depends on students' ability to use verbal cues, e.g. discourse markers, topic sentences in order to distinguish the main ideas from the supporting details and to reduce spoken texts through rejecting redundant or irrelevant information by recognizing digressions.

However, students' knowledge of phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis cannot be activated until they take on a pragmatic perspective, which includes the degree of coordination and collaboration between the lecturer and the student. Moreover, if communication is to take place, the lecturer and the student should have in common not only the same code (the language) and a similar linguistic competence, but also should share similar assumptions about the world. A problem arises if there is a discrepancy between the presuppositions of the lecturer and the student. The types of assumption we make about the world depend on what we have experienced and how the acquired knowledge has been organized in a mental structure called schema (Bartlett, 1932; Coady, 1979; Carrell et al., 1983; 1990), which is created through experience with the world. Schemata provide a framework for understanding, remembering and applying information. There is a distinction between *formal schemata* (background knowledge of the formal**,** rhetorical organizational structures of different genres) and *content schemata* (background knowledge of the content area of a text) (Carrell, 1990: 104). In the latter case, if students lack a particular content schema, listening to or reading the texts that imply content knowledge may result in the students' difficulty to comprehend the text (Johnson 1981; Carrell 1981). Research conducted in the field of contrastive rhetoric (Ostler and Kaplan 1982 in Carrell et al., 1990), emphasizes the role of *formal schemata* on the comprehension and production of the text, which imply the knowledge of the genre, i.e. its macro-structure and reoccurring linguistic features.

While listening to lectures, students make use of the existing schemata and modify them. However, they may face problems of comprehension if they do not share the relevant schema with the lecturer.

2.4 Macro-Structure and Micro-Features of Academic Lectures

In the context of the lecture (see Figure 2.2 above), the student needs to attend selectively to the propositional content, take notes and integrate that information with other information gained earlier. *Formal schema* or knowledge of the genre, which implies the organization of the text, allows the student to focus on essential information (Rost, 2002: 126) and contributes to the ease of understanding it.

Reece and Walker (2000: 146-147) assert that the lecture involves the lecturer talking to the students about a subject, and that there is little chance of interaction between the lecturer and the students. On the contrary, Peterson (2001: 97) argues that academic lectures in English-speaking countries, e.g. the United States tend to be conversational and more interactive. Dudley-Evans and St. Johns (1981) single out three styles of lecturing: *a reading, a conversational* and *a rhetorical style lectures*. In a *reading style* lecture, the lecturer reads from notes. It may be characterized by short tone-groups, narrowness of intonational range, and dominance of a falling tone. The lecturer speaks informally with or without notes in a *conversational style* lecture. It may be illustrated by longer tone-groups and key-sequences from high to low. In a *rhetorical style* lecture, the lecturer is a performer. It may have wide intonational range, often exploiting frequent asides and digressions (in Flowerdew (ed.), 1994: 148). The first style corresponds to Goffman's (1981) (in Flowerdew, ibid.) classification of lectures into *memorization* and *aloud reading*; the last two seem to be similar to his *fresh talk* lecturing style. Mason (1994) has divided lecturing styles *into talk-and-chalk* (the blackboard is the main visual aid); *give-and-take* (material is presented by the lecturer to encourage discussion, questions and comments); *report-and-discuss* (topics are given by the lecturer for study, presentation and discussion in the class, where the students' participation is integral).

Although there is no published research on the types of lectures in Latvia, the experience shows that there are different lecturing styles ranging from formal to informal ones.

However, it seems that the predominant mode is the informal, conversational style based on handouts, notes and using white/blackboard, overhead projector and more recently power-point slides. Since the processes involved in the comprehension of lectures are multifaceted: (1) comprehension of the spoken mode, (2) ability to select the main ideas from the supporting ideas, and (3) transformation of these main ideas into the students' notes, first year students may experience problems in understanding lectures not only due to linguistic difficulties and lack or insufficient knowledge of the subject matter, but also because of the lack of *formal schemata*, including unfamiliar lecturing styles.

Irrespective of the field, the mode of discourse determines how information is structured because when we communicate, we choose not only what to say, but also how to say it.

The lecture is expected to have the following pattern: discourse structuring phase: an introduction to the content, where the lecturer identifies topics that are to be covered in order to facilitate the processing of information, the body of the lecture giving details, and finally the summary of the lecture. Moreover, lecturers often indicate the transition from one part of the lecture to another by using rhetorical signalling cues: metadiscourse (e.g. Dunkel and Davis, 1994; Chaudron and Richards, 1986; Richards, 1983).

Although the linguists claim that a clear macro-structure and effective metadiscourse seem to be imperative features of academic lecture, for the students at the FML the lecture first and foremost has to be lively, has to use audiovisual aids and different learning modes. The questioned students indicated that since they were unable to concentrate for a long period of time, the above features prolonged their concentration span. Twenty-four per cent (24%) of the surveyed first year students considered taking notes to be difficult because of the inability to concentrate (see sample questionnaire in Appendix 7). Flowerdew (1994: 11) also thinks that one of the main difficulties for a student is to concentrate on and understand long texts without a chance of using interactive strategies. Therefore, lectures have to be not only carefully structured by arranging the propositional content, but also they have to employ effective linguistic means to assist the lecture comprehension process.

2.5 Transfer from Spoken to Written Discourse Manifested by Lecture Notes

One of the most complex tasks specific to the university context, which students have to complete throughout their studies, seems to be the continuous transfer from spoken to written discourse and back to the spoken or written discourse. For example, while listening to lectures students are involved in the actual writing of the notes, and then they may need to reconstruct the notes orally and/or do some writing based on the notes. Moreover, students may have to reformulate information from visual sources into written discourse and/or vice versa. For instance, they may have to combine the spoken input with the input from visual sources: handouts, black/white-boards, overhead transparencies (OHP), video, and slides.

Thus, decoding in the communication model above (see Figure 2.2) refers to the processes of listening to the lecture, comprehending it, and then writing it down in the students' own words, which indicates that taking notes is an analytical activity with the product (notes) continuously evolving from the process (the lecture). It is a high level cognitive process, where complex concepts and procedures are being synthesized and written down. Therefore, understanding lectures and note-taking may cause difficulties to students since they often have to process the information, take notes, analyse the visual information on the slides simultaneously (Jordan, 1997: 20; Gibbs and Habeshaw, 2001: 29). Moreover, some students may want to write down every word that the lecturer says. Similarly, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998: 104) stress that taking notes is a complex task since students have to process the language, relate the new information to the existing schemata and record that new information in such a way as to be understandable at a later stage when, e.g. revising for examinations, writing reports, research papers. Although note-taking is generally considered to be difficult, the majority, i.e. 46 per cent of the questioned first year students at the FML claimed that note-taking was an easy skill, and only 27 per cent of the students thought that it was difficult, whereas 16 per cent could not answer this question. Unawareness of its complexity might have been explained by their lack of experience of taking notes; however, 88 per cent of the respondents claimed that they had taken notes, whereas only 8.6 per cent replied that they had never taken notes while listening to lectures in English previously. When asked about the reasons that might cause difficulties in taking notes at lectures, 70 per cent pointed to the communicative manner of delivering the lecture as the main reason for failing to comprehend the lecture. Speed of delivery was recognized as the greatest obstacle to understanding (such evaluation is consistent with research by Conrad, 1989; Griffiths, 1990, Flowerdew and Miller, 1992 in Flowerdew, 1994: 22; Chaudron et al., 1994) since a great amount of processing of the incoming data is required in a very short period of time. Thirty one per cent (31%) indicated lack of experience in perceiving academic speech and taking notes, and ten per cent (10%) mentioned the absence of logical support in the presentation/lecture. One student noted that sometimes she was not able to decide what was relevant and what was irrelevant (Grice 1975; Sperber and Wilson, 1986), which is paramount in lectures. Only some students in the option *other* mentioned lexical difficulties, i.e. new terminology and inability to understand the word meaning. Phonological aspects, such as silent speech and even pronunciation were given as factors influencing their perception of lectures. Among other things mentioned were no handouts and lack of visual support.

Taking notes often interacts with reading when integrated with reading material. Sometimes a distinction is made between *note-taking* and *note-making* (Jordan, 1997: 197). The former is writing down of whatever is said or written, whereas the latter may involve summarizing and paraphrasing, or making e.g. important ideas and information stand out by visual means. Since processes involved in *note-taking* from lectures and from reading are similar, we shall also refer to taking notes while reading in this chapter and use the concept *note-taking* to refer to both aspects. Although there is much similar in note-taking while reading and listening, there are certain differences, which account for their advantages and disadvantages.

The advantage of taking notes while listening is that it is a very good way of integrating new information. However, the fact that poor notes may be inadequate and/or misleading is mentioned as a disadvantage (Wallace, 1995b: 29). Notes taken while reading are said to make reading a more positive process if done thoughtfully and not mechanically. However, there is a danger of passively recording rather than following the general idea of the writer's argument (ibid.). Nevertheless, there is substantial research support for the view that note-taking assists in the comprehension process (Cottrell, 1999; Wallace, 1994a; Flowerdew, 1994; Jordan, 1997; Dudley-Evans et al., 1998; Payne et al., 2000). Note-taking is allied to reading, listening, understanding and recall, which therefore, is a useful skill that can aid the learning process, e.g. when preparing essays, reports, presentations; revising before examinations, etc. (Payne et al. (ibid.); Jordan, 1997: 29;

Beard and Hartley, 1984). Likewise, Wallace (1994a: 52) asserts that one of the main reasons of taking notes is to make what the speaker or writer says a part of the student's own knowledge, which corresponds to the overall learning goal. The above researchers also assert that more effort is required for taking notes, and that it can help students' concentration since taking notes forces them to pay attention. The surveyed first year students had similar opinion: eighty per cent (80%) of them found note-taking useful for revision and general preparation for examinations; 75 per cent thought that it aided memory; 55 per cent considered that taking notes helped understanding, but 42 per cent believed that it aided writing. Moreover, lecture notes can provide students with statements that could be quoted in the assignments and issues to be studied in their independent research.

Note-taking involves the ability to distinguish between important and less important information; to decide when to record the points so that other important points are not missed while writing. Other processes involved in note-taking are the ability to write concisely and clearly in a kind of personal shorthand which will probably make use of various devices, e.g. abbreviations, symbols, etc. and the ability to decode one's own notes at a later date and to recall the essence of the lecture. Thus, students have to be made aware of different ways of note-taking to suit their learning styles in order to produce notes that could be used for later recall. Applied linguists (e.g. Payne et al., 2000, Jordan 1997, Wallace 1994a**)** agree that there is no best method of taking notes since it depends on individual preference and the time available to make notes. Rost (1990) suggests a list of note-taking types (see Figure 2.4 below).

The way notes are taken in the lecture differs from notes taken while reading. For example, underlining is a useful strategy if the text has to be thoroughly studied; however, it is not possible with borrowed books. Moreover, making marks on a text might seem too easy, and it can give the illusion of study.

The most common note-taking system seems to be the concept-ordering system. It can also be called the linear (sequential) system since the relevant information is recorded in the same order as the original material, and it involves vertical listing of items and points. However, there are different ways of recording information in this system. For instance, it can be done by using numbers and letters in order to separate sections and sub-sections and by using space and indentations.

Topic-relation notes:

1. Topicalizing- writing down a word or phrase to represent a section of the text;
2. Translating – writing down L1 equivalent of topic;
3. Copying –writing down verbatim what the lecturer has written on the blackboard (overhead projector, etc.);
4. Transcribing –writing down verbatim what the lecturer has said;
5. Schematizing – inserting graphics (e.g. diagrams) to organize or represent a topic or relationship.

Concept-ordering notes:

1. Sequence cuing –listing topics in order, numbering;
2. Hierarchy cuing –labelling notes as main point (key finding, conclusion, etc.) or example (quote, anecdote, etc.);
3. Relation ordering –left-to-right indenting, using arrows, dashes, semi-circles, or signs to indicate relation among topics.

Focusing notes:

1. Highlighting –underlining, placing a dot or arrow in front of a topic, circling a topic word;
2. De-highlighting – writing in smaller letters or placing topic inside parentheses.

Revising notes:

1. Inserting – drawing arrow back to earlier note, inserting with caret;
2. Erasing – crossing out old note.

Figure 2.4 **Types of Correspondences Between Listener Notes and Lecture Texts. Rost (1990)**

Linear system of taking notes can be satisfactory for the students, but it is also useful for them to be aware of other note-taking systems, e.g. the branching system (diagramming, web, mind maps). Wallace (1995b: 41) argues that branching notes are one of the most important techniques a student can learn:

> They try to reconstitute the totality of the speaker's thought by showing how his ideas relate to one another. They have the added advantage that the structure of even a badly-presented lecture can be revealed by this flexible technique.

Mind maps are said to be free-form ways of taking notes. When using a branching system, the main subject or topic is placed in the centre of the page with the main ideas and concepts branching out from it. Lines and arrows indicate the relationships between the ideas and concepts. An advantage of this method is that it clearly shows the relative importance of the central themes. It is claimed that this method makes recall easier since it is essentially visual, and the brain is able to make the necessary associations. It allows seeing the relationships between ideas more clearly and is an especially useful type of note taking when students have not received an outline of the lecture since it enables them to develop their notes in a flexible way (Payne et al., 2000: 157; Wallace 1995a: 66). However, this method may take a long time and much practice to get used to it. The author's experience shows that branching notes is not a favoured way of note taking during lectures.

In order to discover the first year students' knowledge of note-taking methods, a questionnaire was administered to 128 students in the academic year 2004/2005. The obtained results indicated that they were aware of different ways of note-taking: underlining 44 per cent, highlighting 43 per cent, branching notes 37.5 per cent, linear notes 34 per cent. However, when asked which way they preferred, seventy one per cent (71%) of the students favoured underlining; 50 per cent preferred highlighting; 35 per cent used linear notes, but only 31 per cent used branching notes. Although focusing notes appear to be the most favoured way of recording information, there seems to be certain contradiction since the students used mostly linear notes to record information from the observed lectures. It is likely that they did not recognize the concept *linear*, although they were encouraged to ask questions if anything was not clear. Since the majority of the students preferred underlining (71%) and highlighting (50%), and these ways of taking notes can be employed when there is a text, the students were asked to comment on their answers. It turned out that many students took notes as if writing a connected text and then underlined or highlighted certain parts that seemed to be important either during the lecture or at home when revising lecture notes. Their adopted approach seems to be time consuming, whereas the usage of abbreviations and symbols can save a great deal of time and effort (Wallace, 1995a: 64). Lynch (2004: 23-24) has divided them into:

1. Field abbreviations. They are typical of a student's field of studies.
2. Commonly understood abbreviations.
3. Personal abbreviations made up by the student himself. (See Appendix 8a and 8b)

The students were also surveyed in order to discover their approach to taking notes. The results showed that 65 per cent put down the key information; 33 per cent tried to get down as much as possible of what the lecturer said; however, only 28 per cent used abbreviations and symbols. The percentage of students who wanted to write down verbatim what the lecturer had written on slides/OHP (copying) or what the lecturer had said (transcribing) was rather considerable. Obviously, students should be encouraged to use abbreviations and symbols and develop their note-taking skills since their usage increases the time they could spend on lecture comprehension. Moreover, the development of note-taking skills, including the acquisition of abbreviations, may facilitate the performance of the preparatory linguistic functions for research, i.e. preliminary reading (note-taking) in order to limit the researchable topic; reviewing literature (note-taking, summarizing, paraphrasing, quoting) in order to define a research problem; writing up research.

It is argued that students' problems in understanding lectures could be reduced if lecturers improved their lecturing style by structuring every lecture and making it understandable by using discourse markers to explain, emphasize, recap, repeat and summarize main points (Lynch, 1994 in Jordan, 1997: 202; Rost, 1990) since all these linguistic features aid note-taking and comprehension of the propositional content of the lecture.

The generic discourse patterns and associated lexico-grammatical characteristics of spoken discourse, it is hypothesized that the spoken mode shares some structural components (e.g. metadiscourse) with the written mode.

2.6 Metadiscourse in Spoken Academic Discourse

There have been a number of relevant discourse studies, which have analysed the macro-structure of spoken texts and their linguistic and sociocultural dimensions in order to determine how meanings are construed. For example, Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) have designed a model for the study of classroom discourse; they have divided it into interaction, transaction, exchange, move, and act. Coulthard (1991) has investigated the distribution of authority in verbal exchanges. Applied linguists (e.g. Rost, 2002: 140; Ruetten, 1986 in Flowerdew, 1994: 17-18; Dunkel and Pialorsi, 1982) highlight the importance of previewing macrosections of the lecture and using metapragmatic signalling devices in the comprehension process of lectures. The necessity of using metadiscourse by lecturers is supported by Gibbs, et al. (2001: 42), who argue that students need to know what to listen for and thus what sort of notes are likely to be useful. They (ibid. 43) point out that many lectures lack good signposts; and as a result, students do not understand which are key ideas and have to be noted down and which are examples and do not need to be noted in the same way.

Thus, it has been recognized that discourse markers are essential elements in the development of the students' competence. Irrespective of the lecturing style used, lecturers are expected to use various devices in order to help students follow and understand their lectures. Blakemore (2002: 1) argues that the concept *discourse* emphasizes that discourse connectives or markers must be analysed at the level of discourse rather than the sentence, and that their function is to mark relationships among units of discourse (ibid. 2). Hyland (1998: 437) posits, 'Metadiscourse is a major feature of the ways we communicate in a range of genres and settings.' It is common in extensive spoken and written texts, such as presentations, degree or dissertation defenses, lectures, books, and RPs.

Lecturers divide their speech into chunks called information units, which are represented in speech prosodically. This means that lecturers can use prosodic features (stress, intonation, pauses), subordinating syntactic structures (e.g. relative clauses, noun complements, other subordinate clauses), and lexical discourse markers (e.g. logical connectors, number and other phrases) in order to indicate the importance of ideas and information (Tyler et al., 1988 in Jordan, 1997: 194). Although the prosodic, subordinating syntactic structures and paralinguistic devices, i.e. gestures and body language are regarded as metadiscourse signposts, which are used to emphasize particular ideas, we shall restrict ourselves to lexical discourse markers.

Lexical discourse markers can be considered as interpersonal metadiscourse underlying pragmatic purposes. A number of applied linguists (e.g. Chaudron and Richards, 1986; Jordan, 1997; Wallace, 1994b) emphasise the role of metadiscourse in signalling organisation of spoken academic texts explicitly and signalling the speaker's attitude towards the subject matter in order to help the students comprehend lectures. For instance, Chaudron and Richards (1986) researched reading style lectures and divided discourse markers into macro-markers and micro-markers (see Appendix 9). The former (e.g. to begin with) are 'higher-order discourse markers signalling major transitions and emphasis in the lectures'; the latter (e.g. on the other hand) are 'lower-order markers of segmentation and intersentential connections' (ibid.).

DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988) called lexical phrases that indicate important functions in the lecture discourse macro-organizers and divided them into several functional categories: topic markers, topic shifters, summarizers, exemplifiers, relators, evaluators, qualifiers and aside (an aside is talking about something other than *topic* markers). Yorkey (1982) categorized note-making cues into introduction to an idea, development of an idea, contrast of several ideas, results of ideas, transition of ideas, chronology of ideas, emphasis of an idea, and summary of ideas.

For the purposes of this research, Wallace's (1994b: 35) classification (see Table 2.1 below) seems to be the most useful one because it divides discourse markers according to functions that can be compared to the functions of the written discourse. Several groups of semantic markers that serve as signals for the meaning and structure of the lecture can be identified.

Functions	**Discourse markers**
listing	firstly in the first place secondly thirdly my next point is last finally
cause and effect	so therefore thus (we see) because since
giving examples	for instance for example let's take an example/instance of this was let me give you some examples I might add to illustrate this point
introducing an opposing idea	but nevertheless on the other hand and yet although
summing up	to summarise in other words it amounts to this if I can just sum up
indicating time relationship	then next after that previously while when
indicating a relative importance	it is worth noting I would like to direct your attention to I would like to emphasise the general point you must remember is… It is important to note that…
re-phrasing, introducing a definition	in other words let me put it this way to put it another way that is to say
expressing a condition	if unless assuming that
expressing digression	by the way I might note in passing

Table 2.1 **Semantic Markers Signalling Semantic Structure of Discourse Based on Wallace (1994a: 57-58; 62-63)**

Research (e.g. House, 1996; Yoshimi, 2001) done on the learners' use of discourse markers has demonstrated that there is an overall beneficial effect on the learners' use of this linguistic means. Awareness of these discourse markers may help identify the purpose of the lecture, relationship among units within discourse (see the micro-skills in Figure 2.1 above), thus assisting the students in note-taking. It is seen that some expressions are specifically spoken discourse markers, e.g. expressing digression, whereas some others can be both spoken and written discourse markers, e.g. introducing an opposing idea.

Metadiscourse can be defined as linguistic means that is used by the speakers/ writers to project themselves into their discourse in order to help interpret the text and signal their attitude towards the propositional content and the audience of the text.

Making students aware of discourse markers in the spoken mode may serve as a transition from spoken discourse to written discourse and vice versa. For instance, using metadiscourse in order to inform listeners about the purpose and the structure of their lectures or presentations may be compared with the ones used in corresponding rhetorical moves of introductory sections of research papers or metadiscourse used to indicate transition from one part of a presentation to another may correspond to providing transitions from one chapter to another.

In order to test empirically the theories discussed above and our presupposition that the explicit usage of discourse markers by the lecturer and the explicit instruction on and discussion of the functions of discourse markers increase the students' awareness of the functionality of the linguistic devices and result in their usage in the spoken and written discourse produced by the students, a study was undertaken. One hundred and twenty-eight first year students in the academic year 2004/2005 were exposed to a formal extended discourse – a recorded lecture (Jordan, 1997). Before the study, the first year students were provided with metapragmatic information on the use and functions of discourse markers through lectures and handouts. The use of students' lecture notes was observed following the presentation of the lecture (see transcript in Appendix 10).

The students were informed that there would be a task at the end of the lecture, and they took notes using any note-taking strategy they wished (see the student's lecture notes in Appendix 11). At the end of the lecture, the students reviewed their notes and had to write a summary on the content of the lecture as a home assignment. The next lecture, the notes and summaries were collected, and the lecture notes were checked for their types and compliance with Grice's four Co-operative Principles, whereas summaries for the usage of discourse markers.

The analysis of the students' notes revealed that they had employed both linear (see Appendix 12) and branching types of notes; however, 72 per cent of the students had preferred the linear type. The students frequently used the abbreviations (e.g., etc, i.e., adj.) acquired in the preceding lectures. Most of the notes reflected the propositional content of the lecture (maxim of quality) by giving important facts (maxim of relevance) and were quite informative (maxim of quantity). They were also fairly brief and clear; moreover, no ambiguity was observed (maxim of manner).

Although more research has to be done to validate the findings, we could conclude that the usage of discourse markers by the lecturer to structure his speech might have facilitated the students' ability to take notes conforming to the principles of successful communication.

It is interesting to note that research (DiVesta and Gray, 1972; Dunkel, 1985; Chaudron et al., 1988 in Rost (1994: 125) shows no clear correspondence between the quality and quantity of notes and the quality of understanding. For instance, Rost (ibid.) argues that those students who take the fewest notes are the ones who possibly understand more of the lecture content. They have well developed note-taking skills and their notes become a simplified register (Janda, 1985 in Rost, 1994: 125) that they have to transfer into a formal register when writing reports and research papers.

The analyzed summaries of the lecture showed that progress in the use of the discourse markers was not consistent across the summaries; however, 63 per cent of the students employed three and more discourse markers used by the lecturer. To illustrate, a student's summary, which can be seen in Appendix 12, clearly addressed the main ideas of the lecture and employed semantic markers used for listing (*first of all, secondly, next*) and introducing an opposing idea (*on the contrary, however*). We may assume that the student had acquired the appropriate background knowledge: formal and content schemata, as she was able to comprehend and process the text selectively. Moreover, she was able to apply discourse markers in written mode. Although it is not known what the student's prior background knowledge of academic discourse had been, we might presuppose that the skills and knowledge acquired in one mode may have an impact on the development of those skills and knowledge in the other mode.

Comprehension of academic lectures draws on multiple sources of information: students' background knowledge, including factual and discourse; their knowledge of context and linguistic competence. It is the process of activation and modification of the concepts conveyed by the lecturer to the information in students' memory. In the first year of their studies, students might not have many schemata: modules of knowledge about particular topics, genres, discourse structure and the language used in their memory. However, gradually new schemata build from their understanding of the subject matter, development of their language competence and the LFRC. Obviously, schemata organization may be influenced by a number of factors, e.g. how relevant they are to understanding the lecture and how recently and frequently schemata have been activated.

Interim summary

Since much of what students are required to learn is transmitted through lectures, the discourse of the discipline is central to the way the LFRC is constructed and transmitted. During the lectures, a complicated propositional content needs to be conveyed to the students; therefore, successful communication entails not only the knowledge of the ways the university lecture discourse is structured, but also the knowledge and skills of some of the most distinctive micro-features which are used in order to facilitate discourse processing.

Lecturers, being expert members of a discourse community, share their knowledge on the disciplinary discourse not only by transmitting the propositional content of the discipline, but also by broadening students' knowledge of academic genres, including the knowledge of the register, macro-structure and pragmatically effective discourse markers. Students' increased awareness of metadiscourse in academic speech, may help them learn to reconstruct the organizing structure of the lecture and identify the logical linkage of contents, thus facilitating the note- taking process.

We may draw conclusions that lecture comprehension involves constant updating of both content and formal schemata, and the frequent usage of metadiscourse may result in their application not only in the spoken mode, but also in the written mode.

An important aspect of mode is the shift of modes, which is manifested in the students' notes taken while listening to lectures, and using these notes to refer to the lecturers' ideas when writing.

- the link as exhibited through metadiscourse between the text and its context of situation enables the listeners to identify the purpose of the lecture and the relationship among units within the discourse, thus assisting the students in taking notes.

We have also sufficient ground to assume that

- the interpersonal and ideational functions are often intertwined. The ideational function is message oriented, focusing on the participants, circumstances, processes, content and imparting new, factual or propositional information. This function generates specific structures at the syntactic level, e.g. the nominal groups realizing subjects and objects, verbal groups realizing transitive or intransitive verbs. The interpersonal function is person oriented, generating such choices as the use of modal verbs, mood, discourse markers in order to express a stance on the content, thus helping the students comprehend the lectures;
- the students acquire the LFRC by learning the discourse of the discipline.

Chapter 3 Linguistic Theories Complying with Development of Linguo-Functional Research Competence Manifested in the Language of Bachelor Papers

The previous chapter gave an insight into the spoken discourse; it also contended that the spoken and the written academic discourse have certain similar features. Therefore, although the main data for the empirical part of this research will be acquired from the analysis of written texts, this chapter also reflects on the spoken discourse because of the obvious connection between the two modes.

Chapter 3 defines and examines such key concepts for this research as *text*, *discipline* and *disciplinary research community* and states the communicative aim of the BA thesis. It aims at examining relations that exist in all the written texts within the scientific discourse, by briefly discussing some relevant linguistic features pertaining to scientific discourse, e.g. the use of the passive voice, nominalization and prepositional phrases.

The main focal point of the chapter is the London School of Linguistics, which has further elaborated the theory of the Prague School and propounded the Systemic Functional Linguistics theory. It construes the concept *coherence* and analyses its contribution to communicating propositional content by emphasizing the role of the functions of the theme and the rheme in discourse. It also identifies three basic types of thematic progression. The chapter aims at assessing the role of cohesion, and in particular reference, textual and interpersonal metadiscourse markers, i.e. hedges and person markers in the context of research.

Further, the chapter analyses linguistic features pertaining to the research genre of the Bachelor thesis. It investigates the genre-based studies of texts arising from Systemic Functional Linguistics, and English for Specific Purposes genre theories in order to identify the regularities of rhetorical organization and of linguistic features within the research genre in international context, which would help us analyse the LFRC in a framework. The chapter also seeks to relate these regularities to the communicative purpose of the genre and its sub-genres in order to establish mandatory and optional linguistic entities as accepted by the relevant discourse community. This chapter explores and comments on the results of a comparative analysis, which examined the BA paper writing conventions at Daugavpils University, the Faculty of History and Philosophy

(UL), the Faculty of Social Sciences (UL), and the University of Vilnius as compared with the models worked out by recognized genre theoreticians. However, the review of rhetorical structure of the genre, its sub-genres and their linguistic features is not comprehensive, as it selects the elements that are of direct relevance to this research and are manageable within its limits.

This chapter is also a selective review of research on the functions of literature review in BA papers, and it aims at proving that valuable preparatory linguistic functions for research can be performed through the skill of reading. It claims that the precision of the scientific register and the replicability of research can be largely ensured by the choice of quotations, reporting verbs, references, and the selected bibliography. Therefore, this chapter addresses the issue of referencing: using quotations, paraphrases/summaries, and the linguistic resources, i.e. the reporting verbs employed when referring to the sources in the literature review.

At the end of the chapter, the author proposes a framework of the LFRC.

3.1 Text as Variable in Linguo-Functional Research Competence Development at University

The concept *text* can be referred to any spoken or written passage that is more than one sentence long and forms a unified whole. The text is a piece of discourse that is coherent with respect to itself (i.e. it is cohesive) and the context of situation (i.e. it is consistent in register) (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 23). De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) define the oral or written text as a communicative event that meets the following standards of textuality: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality. Intentionality entails the writer's purposeful usage of rhetorical devices; acceptability is the readers' recognition of the text as being well-constructed; informativity ensures that the text has made the readers aware of something that was not previously known; situationality recognizes that, in a given context, the text will affect readers in their interpretation; intertextuality recognizes that the text is created and interpreted in the context of other texts. If the text does not conform to any of the standards above, the text has not fulfilled its communicative function. Moreover, there are three main regulative principles that control textual communication:

1) efficiency of a text, which depends on the usefulness of the text to the participants with a minimum of effort;
2) effectiveness of a text, which depends on whether it exerts a strong impact on the addressee and is likely to accomplish its aim;
3) appropriateness of a text depends on whether its setting is in accord with the seven standards of textuality (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981: 11).

Internal structuring of a text is achieved by cohesion and coherence, but informativity along with intentionality, acceptability, situationality and intertextuality contributes to the external structuring of the text (DeBeaugrande and Dressler, 1981: 3). This seems to suggest that the formal rhetorical and linguistic elements of RPs as the objects of analysis cannot be studied independently of particular writers, readers and contexts. The context of interpretation has to be taken into account since writers employ readers' assumed background knowledge and expectations, e.g. the established research writing conventions, references made to prior research, explicit connections between ideas and comments, etc.

A number of different approaches to the study of texts as a linguistic phenomenon have been undertaken. Text analysis as a study of language is often called text linguistics and discourse analysis. Although it is often argued that discourse analysis focuses on performance, spoken language, and description, whereas text linguistics focuses on competence, written language, and theory (Mey, 1998: 4581), there is no absolute opposition between the two concepts. We shall use the concept *discourse analysis* to refer to the analysis of a text presented either in an oral or written form.

An important concept related to discourse is *disciplinary discourse community*. *Discipline* is defined as a 'subject that people study, especially at a university' (CD ROM Macmillan English Dictionary); thus, it can be seen as a branch of education. *Disciplinary discourse community* can be viewed as an internal community within the university, who have specialized expertise in a particular branch of knowledge, e.g. linguistics and applied linguistics. Grabe et al. (1996: 370) consider that the concept of *academic discourse communities* is an important one for advanced writing instruction since they use different genres and conventions, which students have to master. Similarly to our definition, they define academic discourse communities as 'discipline-specific groups of academics who share sets of theoretical, methodological, and conventional notions about their discipline.'

Although Grabe et al. refer to academics, Hyland (2002b: 41-42) argues that any writer is a member of a community, as he uses the language of this community:

> a text conveys certain meanings and its force as a particular kind of action only within the community for which it is written, exhibiting the patterns and conventions which reflect the sociocultural understandings of that community.

Thus, while studying at university, the students become members of these communities 'and this helps them both to legitimate their membership and establish their individual identities through discourse' (ibid.). As the students progress through their studies, they are expected to produce research genres that comply with the conventions of the disciplinary research community, which impose distinct expectations (Grabe et al., 1996: 341-342). Likewise, Bhatia (1998: 156) posits that the function of learning is not only to be able to read and write but to 'become sensitive to the conventions in order to ensure the pragmatic success of the text' in the context in which it will be used. Moreover, Swales (1991: 24-27) contends that discourse community can exist only 'through people's engagement in the conventions of the community.' The applied linguist emphasises that in order to function successfully in a specific discourse community of the students' chosen field, they need to develop 'the understanding of code, the acquisition of genre knowledge associated with the specialist culture, sensitivity to cognitive structuring of specialist genres.' It can be achieved through academic discussions and practices amongst the practicing members of an academic community both in institutional and international contexts.

Writing in higher education fulfils an array of purposes according to the various contexts in which it occurs, as students have specific communicative needs determined by the social purposes and rhetorical practices of specific target communities (Hyland, 2002b: 112). Writing tasks are embodied in a range of genres: lecture notes, summaries, course reports, essays, term papers, diploma papers, BA papers, MA papers, PhD theses. Diploma, BA, MA and PhD papers belong to the genre of research papers, which is viewed as a final stage of advanced student writing, and which may incorporate other academic genres (Grabe et al., 1996: 362-367). A research paper is a major piece of individual work involving in-depth research about a topic with the end product being a formal report (Payne, 2000: 237). There are differences among research genres in terms of their rhetorical organization and the linguistic features used, which can be identified by studying:

> the surface structural form, through the functional and organizational logic of the text, and through the rhetorical features (including aims) which circumscribe the text as a whole. (Grabe et al., 1996: 165)

However, RPs have typical features that are present in all texts, and in order to meet graduation requirements, the students should have well-developed schemata for scientific discourse and research genres.

3.2 Scientific Discourse

Since the mid 1960s, when English became the international language of technology and commerce (Hatchinson and Waters, 1994: 6), there has been a rise of English as an international language of academic, professional and research communication. It has generated an increasing interest in gaining a better understanding of scientific discourse. Barber (1962, in Grabe et al., 1996: 159) was one of the first linguists who studied scientific writing. He enumerated a number of its formal features, which as Grabe and Kaplan point out are taken as received knowledge:

> Long sentence length (words/sentence); many complex noun and adjective phrases; many non-finite subordinate phrases and clauses; many infinitive clauses; many occurrences of the verb BE (in all conjugations); many conditional structures; a relatively greater number of relative clauses; a relatively greater proportion of simple present tense verbs; a relatively greater number of past participles; a smaller number of progressive tense forms; a smaller number of past tense verbs; few questions; and few contractions.

Christie (1985) contends that science texts have the universal present tense, the impersonal passive, the verbs identify experiential processes, the sentences are declarative rather than interrogative, and they contain verifiable propositions. Although Dixon (1987 in McCarthy et. al., 1994: 31) claims that the features that Christie has identified as characteristic to research texts could appear in any other discourse, the linguist generally agrees that there are some linguistic entities typical of the research genre, which usually include the features mentioned by Christie and Barber. Dixon has generated a discussion about the existence of various genres within the scientific discourse. For example, Veisbergs (2004: 26) argues that the scientific discourse can vary depending on the discipline and topic of research, and that the style of writing RPs in the natural sciences and the social sciences may slightly differ, especially with respect to the technical vocabulary associated with one specialized field. On the contrary, Bhatia (1998: 17-18) dismisses the arguments that a research article in science is likely to be different from a research article in linguistics or any other discipline. In general, all linguists seem to concede that there are some recurrent universal features typical of the scientific discourse. Veisbergs (ibid. 23-25) emphasizes that written discourse for research purposes is message oriented, and that such genres as scientific articles, dissertations, theses, reviews, books belong to the scientific discourse. The distinguishing features are as follows:

- The extensive usage of nominal phrases, which means that there are twice as many nouns in a scientific text than in a general text, e.g. instead of using the verb *to research,* the construction *to conduct research* is used;
- Objectivity, which is ensured with the help of such impersonal structure as the passive voice. It has been found out that the passive voice is used 6 to 15 times more often in a scientific text than in a general text. Objectivity can also be achieved by the usage of hedges and quotations, which indicate that research is replicable.
- The usage of formal or neutral lexis, mostly international words, many words of Greek and Latin origin. In general texts, the usage of words of Latin origin is about 15 per cent, whereas in scientific articles it amounts to 50 per cent.
- Precision, which is ensured by references, comments, quotations (in other languages too), analysis, bibliography, abstracts, tables, etc.
- Density: complex syntax, structure of sentences and lexis, extended sentences.
- Questions: mostly rhetorical. (Veisbergs, 2004: 24-25, the author's translation)

Linguists (e.g. Barber, Bhatia, Christie, Coffin et al., Rozenbergs, Swales, Veisbergs) characterize the scientific discourse as formal, objective and impersonal, which includes a range of linguistic aspects that are related to the contexts in which the authors write. The main aim of research writing is to communicate a specialized and precise knowledge to readers, who would have approximately the same knowledge of the subject (Bhatia, 1993: 148-157). This can be achieved by a number of rhetorical means, some of which are discussed below.

The use of prepositional phrases allows a dense packing of information in the text; therefore, they commonly occur in sequences in academic and research texts, as it can be seen in the example below:

> *Of special relevance, is the influence of metacognitive knowledge in the self-regulation of learning.(McCarthy, Lantolf eds., 1998: 520)*

The foregoing example illustrates that the head noun *influence* is followed by a prepositional phrase *of metagognitive knowledge,* which in its turn is followed by a prepositional phrase *of learning*, modifying the noun *self-regulation.* Evidently, the noun phrases are the primary carriers of information.

The use of nominalization has become extremely common in the scientific discourse. It consists of the use of a nominal form instead of the corresponding verb, from which the nominal is derived. The use of nominalized expressions requires a different organization of the whole sentence. In this way, much information, which would otherwise be expressed as verbs, adjectives and prepositional phrases, is packed into the nominal groups. Hence, the rhetorical function of complex nominal phrases is the carrier of information. They usually have premodifiers and postmodifiers; premodifiers can be adjectives, participles, and nouns. The following sentence exemplifies the use of the adjective as a premodifier:

> *He stresses that in order to have a genuine communication, something new must be communicated..(BA29)*

In the noun phrase *genuine communication,* the adjective *genuine* acts as a premodifier of the head noun *communication.* Let us consider another complex nominal phrase: *important language learning process,* where the adjective *important* and then nouns *language* and *learning* act as premodifiers of the noun *process*.

Clausal postmodifiers are relative clauses, to-clauses, participial phrases. Phrasal postmodifiers are prepositional phrases, appositive noun phrases, and adjective phrases. For instance, the participial phrase *given above* acts as a postmodifier in the following sentence:

> *It can be seen from the example given above. (BA40)*

Nominalization can be difficult to be understood in unfamiliar contexts; however, for the members of the relevant discourse community, it helps to convey the message in a brief and dense way.

The passive voice accounts for 25 per cent of all the finate verbs (Biber et al., 2003: 167) in the academic discourse, and it is used even more frequently in the scientific discourse (ibid.). The main purpose of research is to impart information; therefore, the scientific discourse is characterized by an extensive use of agentless passives, which are about six times as recurrent as long passives (ibid.) due to the relative unimportance of the agent. To illustrate the contribution of the agentless passive to the objective detachment, let us consider the sentence below, which does not state who exactly has applied the case study research method. The agent is recoverable as the author of the text.

> *The case study research method was applied since it investigated individual units, i.e. forms 4 and 5 in Marupe secondary school. (BA29)*

It is important that the writer/speaker organizes the propositional content of the sentence so as to establish whatever point of departure is desired for the message.

3.2.1 Textual Cohesion: Thematic Progression and Anaphoric Reference

The ordering of the information parts of the sentence was propounded by the Prague School linguists in their Functional Sentence Perspective theory, which views the sentence as consisting of the *theme* accompanied by the *rheme* and bases the analysis of the sentence in respect to its communicative function. Halliday, similarly to the Prague School, argues that the basis of the clause is already known information (*theme*), where speakers/writers intentions are announced. The theme is the information that has appeared prior to a point in the text, and it is inferable by the addressee from the linguistic context and the context of situation. It also refers to things that are unique and that are known to all with the same schematic knowledge. The part of the message in which the known information is developed is the body of the message (*rheme*). The rheme is new information that has not appeared prior to a particular point in the text, and that is not inferable by the addressee from the linguistic context and the context of situation. It does not refer to things that are unique and that are known to all with the same schematic knowledge. Halliday (1990: 38) holds that by putting the given information first, ideas are made easier for readers to follow since we expect writers to present old information first as a context for new information. In English, the typical theme in declarative sentences is the complete subject of the clause, which is realized by the nominal groups and fulfils ideational function, and the new information is the complete predicate. In the example sentences below, the themes are underlined and the rhemes are the remainder of the sentences. The theme in sentence (1) is thematically connected with sentence (2). In sentence (2), the theme represents the information presented in the rheme of sentence (1) with the pronoun *its* acting as an anaphoric reference.

(1)The pupils of the experimental group and the control group were asked to fill in a questionnaire. (2) Its aim was to compare the impression made by the particular lesson on both groups.(BA4)

Various dichotomies are used to designate the constituents of information units, e.g. *contextual sentence (utterance) organization* (Firbas, 1974: 11), *topic/comment struktur* (Hess-Lüttich, 1981: 327), *theme/rheme structure* (Halliday, 1985: 53). For example, VanDijk (1972) and Firbas equate *theme* with *given*. Halliday (1990: 278) separates information structure (given/new) from thematic structure (theme/rheme) and contends that they are two interacting though independent dichotomies: there is a close relationship between, e.g. information and thematic structures, but they are not the same since the *given/new* relationship is listener/reader oriented, while the *theme/rheme* relationship is speaker/writer oriented.

More contemporary applied linguistic theories (e.g. McCarthy et al., 1994: 70) also recognize the importance of thematic analysis and argue that it is undertaken 'to establish the relative coherence of a text and to show how paragraphs can be organized across sentence boundaries by means of patterns of given (and new) development.' Thus, information structuring is also observed in longer texts, e.g. the paragraph where its topic sentence is the *theme*, whereas the supporting sentences, which develop it, are the *rheme*.

This research has adopted the view of the theme as the given information that has appeared prior to a point in the text. The theme is inferable by the addressee from the text or the context of situation, or it is something that is known to everybody because of the shared prior background knowledge or schemata of the addressee (See Chapter 2). It meets the criteria of intertextuality (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981: 3). *Rheme* is treated as new information that has not appeared prior to a particular point in the text and cannot be inferred by the addressee from the text or the context of situation (the criteria of situationality (ibid.)), and there is no shared background knowledge of the things or processes being discussed.

Within the context of the lecture, the new information is what the lecturer believes is not known to the student, and it will come last. The given information is what the lecturer believes is known to the student, and it will come first. Halliday (1990) followed the linguists of the Prague School who considered that it is primarily intonation in English that marks off which information the speaker considers as new by giving phonological prominence to it, and which information he considers as given by not marking it with phonological prominence. While all content words receive some stress according to the rules of the English language, the prominent word will receive a greater stress. Thus, lecturers convey given and new information through presentation cues, which are mostly intonational. However, speakers introduce new information not only with the help of intonation or word stress, but also with the help of metadiscourse (see Chapter 2) and indefinite referring expressions followed by definite expressions, which mark given information. Sometimes new information could precede given information; however, in the written research discourse it is expected that given information would precede new information.

Daneš (the Prague School) defines *thematic progression* as 'the choice and ordering of utterance themes, their mutual concatenation and hierarchy, as well as their relationship to the hyperthemes of the superior text units' (Daneš, 1974: 114). For the purposes of this research, we have adopted his schemes of thematic progression.

1) In simple linear progression, the theme is identical to the rheme of the preceding sentence:

T1 ⟶ R1

T2 (=R1) ⟶ R2

T3 (=R2) ⟶ R3

(1) The students wrote a progress test. (2)The results showed that all the students had learnt all the words, except one student. (3) He had not obviously revised the vocabulary for the test. (BA25)

The theme of sentence (1) is *the students*, which is recoverable from the context of situation- the writers reference to the target population of the research paper: *the students.* The proposition *a progress test*, which is the rheme of sentence (1), is taken up by sentence (2) and becomes its theme. In the next sentence, the rheme of sentence (2) *one student* is expressed again in the sentence with the help of personal deixis *he.*

2) In continuous theme progression, the theme is identical in a sequence of sentences, each sentence having its own rheme. We can present it graphically as follows:

T1 → R1

T2 → R2

T3 → R3

> *(1)The majority of the participants mentioned repeating new words many times as one of the best methods to learn vocabulary. (2)They claimed that their language skills were developed by reading, speaking, listening and (3) mentioned that watching TV and films was of a particular importance.(BA25)*

The theme in sentence (1) is *the majority of the participants*. It is maintained across sentence (2) by the pronoun *they*. The same theme is maintained in the second sentence by *zero anaphora*, which could be replaced by the pronoun *they*.

3) In derived theme progression, sentences are related to an extra theme or hypertheme.

T

T1 → R1 T3 → R3

T2 → R2

> *(1) Diane Larsen-Freeman (2001) has explored different teaching methods. (2)The Grammar-Translation Method aims at enabling students to read literature in the foreign language. (3)The Direct Method intends to teach how to use the target language to communicate. (4)The Audio-Lingual Method endavours to make the students use the target language in their communication without stopping to think. (BA22)*

The hypertheme stated in the first sentence is *teaching methods*. From this, the paragraph develops in terms of different teaching methods (the Grammar-Translation Method in sentence 2, the Direct Method in sentence 3, the Audio-Lingual Method in sentence 3), which are the themes derived from the hypertheme.

Themes act as signals, creating expectations and laying the foundation for the reader's or listener's schematic representation of how the messages will develop. The thematic organization in written scientific discourse can be also observed in the following patterns:

1. the theme may correspond with the grammatical subject and any other information which can be recovered from the preceding context;
2. the theme may correspond to an opening participial phrase, an adverbial word or a phrase, an existential *there*, a formal *it*;
3. the theme may be introduced by linking adverbials, which fulfil a textual function.

Our interest predominantly lies in the last pattern. Textual themes include a range of adverbials such as *thus*, *therefore, for example*, which connect the clause to the previous part of the text by indicating relations such as result, apposition, etc. Linking adverbials can be considered as being part of the theme, and they contribute to the cohesion of the text.

As it has already been stated, internal structuring of a text is accomplished with the help of cohesion and coherence. There are two main approaches to the two concepts: 1) cohesion is an instance of coherence (e.g. VanDijk and Kintsch, 1983); 2) cohesion and coherence are two separate concepts (e.g. de Beaugrande and Dressler, 1981; Halliday and Hasan, 1991). The second approach seems to be far more widespread among applied linguists. The concept *coherence* is used to refer to the unity and organization of ideas within a text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) use the concept *texture* to refer to coherence and see it as consisting of register and cohesion. We share the opinion (Trimble, 1975; McCarthy, 1991) that coherence entails the knowledge of the discourse features used in different genres, including linking adverbials and other organizational signals. For example, in reading, they help in gaining perspectives on what is read, in seeing relationships, in following the thought. In writing, they help to develop hypotheses and provide smooth transitions between ideas. Coherence is an *interpretive process* created by the addressee while reading a text or listening to it. Thus, we can claim that coherence is a text-based and addressee-based linguistic phenomenon. The former refers to the internal structure of the text, whereas the latter is related to the meaning interaction between the reader and the writer, the listener and the speaker. The content of the text must be coherent with the addressee's pragmatic knowledge or his expectations regarding his schematic knowledge. For the reader/listener to make appropriate inference, the writer/speaker will have to comply with the Grice's four maxims of conversation: the maxim of quantity, the maxim of quality, the maxim of manner, and the maxim of relevance (see Chapter 1).The concept *cohesion* is used to refer to the linguistic features (grammar and vocabulary) that relate sentences to one another (Halliday and Hasan, 1991). Cohesion is a 'surface relation' (Baker, 1992: 180) since it connects the actual words or expressions that we can see or hear. Halliday and Hasan (1985: 48) distinguish four types of grammatical cohesive links: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

1) Reference is realized by deictic expressions: nouns, personal pronouns (e.g. it/its/itself), demonstrative pronouns (e.g. this, that), and adverbs (e.g. here, there). For instance, in the example below the thematic information of the second clause (2) the person deixis *they* is also the theme of the previous sentence (1) *students:*

> *(1) Students have often difficulties in understanding spoken English. (2) They usually turn to their teacher who wishes to assist in whatever ways he can. (BA26)*

Noun phrases are the main grammatical device used to refer to different entities in spoken and written texts. However, texts from different registers differ in the use of referring expressions. For instance, the personal pronouns *you* and *I* are used extensively in spoken discourse to refer directly to the participants engaged in discourse exchange, where *I* is the current speaker and *you* the addressee(s). The 3rd person pronouns *he, she, it* and *they* refer to persons and things that are not addressees at the moment of speaking. Essentially, the principal function of personal pronouns is to help establish major referents in the scientific discourse by setting up referential chains by means of anaphora.

Biber et al. (2003: 73) argue that the demonstrative determiners *this/these* have the highest frequency in academic writing and are especially useful in anaphoric reference: pointing back to a previously established referent. In the following example clause *'…This approach has been the conventional approach to research'*, the spatial deixis *this* is used as part of a noun phrase and *this approach* has already been introduced in the preceding discourse. *This* links the current sentence with the previous one by putting given information before new information. It is important that anaphoric reference is positioned soon after their referents in order to assist in identifying them clearly. Thus, cohesion is not only a formal relation, but also a semantic relation, which relates an element in the text to some other element in the text (either preceding or succeeding) that is important for the interpretation of the former. Sometimes we can observe an opposite situation, e.g. a pronoun is given first, and only then followed by an explanation. This is known as *cataphora* and is typical of fiction.

The meaning of referring expressions can only be discovered by referring to other words of the context. For example in the extract below, we can observe an anaphoric reference: the student uses the pronoun *it* to refer to the *game* and the possessive determiner *their* to refer to the noun *pupils* in the previous sentence.

The pupils of the experimental group participated in a game. Emotional experience gained during it influenced their performance. (BA37)

The function of referring expressions is to provide a unity to a text (Baker, 1992: 180); they also have a function of economy since we do not have to repeat ‘the identity of what we are talking about again and again’ (Cook, 1990: 18). It is often suggested that students should be also made aware of the role of unambiguous reference in discourse because they often assume that the meaning of the referring expression is clear; however, the addressee fails to understand it.

Semantically, the usage of personal-gender pronouns is an interesting and often controversial issue. Traditionally, to refer to a male or a female, writers prefer the masculine form. However, the practice of using the masculine form *he* to refer to either a man or a woman is now widely avoided, particularly with reference to occupation and jobs (e.g. Mey, 1993: 97). Cory (2000: 16) suggests using he/she, s/he, or (s)he; however, he considers that such usage can be rather clumsy; moreover, these forms are not transferable to the spoken discourse. Alternatively, Cory proposes to use *they* to refer to one person or to use a plural noun in order to avoid the problem. Biber et al. (2003: 87) pose that the use of the plural personal pronoun referring back to a singular personal noun is common in conversation, and although the use of *they* to refer to a single personal pronoun has been growing in written texts, the linguists suggest using *he/she* in academic texts. In fact, the pronoun should agree with its antecedent noun phrase in number, and if a gender is not known the form *he* and its case forms should be used (a) or in order to avoid a singular noun phrase, it should be converted into the generic plural (b), see the examples below:

(a) The teacher often finds that his students are not motivated.
(b) Teachers often find that their students are not motivated.

The forms *he/she* and *s/he* are also acceptable; however, their usage should be avoided if repeated too often since it may leave rather a cumbersome impression. Thus, the pronouns *he* and *his* can be used to refer to a male referent and as a gender-neutral pronoun to include a female referent, e.g.

Every student was given a test, which he had to complete in one hour. (BA39)

Other devices that contribute towards reference and function as determiners are the articles: *a, an, the.* The definite reference made by *the* and the indefinite reference made by *a(n)* are discourse functions, associated with the information packaging of the content of a clause, sentence or extended discourse into given and new information, in which new is marked by *a/an* or *zero article* and given by *the*. The fact that in English new information is introduced by the indefinite article and subsequently referred to by the definite article was already observed by Harris in 1751 (quoted in Brown et al., 1989: 170):

> … here we shall discover the use of the two Articles (A) and (THE). (A) respects our *primary* Perception, and denotes Individuals as *unknown;* (THE) respects our *secondary* Perception, and denotes Individuals as *known.*

2) *Ellipsis***,** which is not typical of written discourse for academic and research purposes, is an omission of a part of a sentence. It is assumed that earlier sentences or the context will help to understand the meaning of the omitted parts. Ellipsis could be a part of a clause or a part of a verbal or nominal group. Halliday (1985) mentions *substitution* as a sub-type of ellipsis.

2 a. Substitution refers to a class of items and there are three types of *substitution*: nominal, verbal and clausal.

1) Substitution of a noun can be observed in the sentence below, where the countable noun *case* is replaced by the pronoun *one*:

> *The results obtained from the first* <u>*case*</u> *indicate considerable improvement of the learners' lexical knowledge. The data received from the second* <u>*one*</u> *confirm… (BA7)*

The pronoun *one* does not have a semantic identity of its own. It has only the grammatical function of substituting for a noun in order to avoid repetition.

2) Substitution of a verb and *substitution of a clause* are not typical of research written discourse either.

3) The third type of cohesive tie is *lexical*. Halliday (1985: 310-313) proposes the following forms of lexical cohesion: (1) repetition of a lexical item; (2) synonymy, i.e. the choice of a lexical item that is a synonym or a near-synonym with a preceding one. It is not typical of research discourse, especially if used in relation to the key concepts employed in a particular research; (3) collocation, which is a tendency of lexical items to co-occur. Halliday points out that collocations are often associated with a particular register or a functional variety of the language.

4) The last type of cohesion is *conjunction* that helps to organize discourse in order to achieve communicative goals of the writers/ speakers.

Halliday (1990: 49) gives examples of the elements that tend to come at the beginning of the clause and are treated as *given*. However, he argues that they can also come elsewhere in the clause. The first group is conjunctive and modal adjuncts.

(1) Conjunctive adjuncts, also known as discourse adjuncts, relate the clause to the preceding text. A conjunction connects two clauses in the same sentence. They are exemplified in Table 3.1

	Type	Meaning	Examples
I	appositive	'i.e., e.g.'	that is, in other words, for instance
	corrective	'rather'	or rather, at least, to be precise
	dismissive	'in any case'	in any case, anyway, leaving that aside
	summative	'in short'	briefly, to sum up, in conclusion
	verifactive	'actually'	actually, in fact, as a matter of fact
	additive	'and'	also, moreover, in addition, besides
	adversative	'but'	on the other hand, however, conversely
	variative	'instead'	instead, alternatively
II	temporal	'then'	meanwhile, before that, later on, next, soon, finally
	comparative	'likewise'	likewise, in the same way
III	causal	'so'	therefore, for this reason, as a result, with this in mind
	conditional	'(if…) then'	in that case, under the circumstances, otherwise
	concessive	'yet'	nevertheless, despite that
	respective	'as to that'	in this respect, as far as that's concerned

Table 3.1 **Conjunctive Adjuncts (Halliday, 1990: 50)**

A considerable research has been conducted on the thematic structure of discourse, and linguists and applied linguists agree that the main function of *conjunctive adjuncts* (Halliday), *text connectors* (Swales), *logical connectors* (Hyland), or *linking adverbials* (Biber et al.) is to show relationships between the units of discourse. The research indicates that linking adverbials are very essential features of research discourse since they function as a means of presenting and supporting arguments. Moreover, they are pragmatically effective devices, explicitly helping the readers/listeners interpret discoursal meanings. They tell us how the readers/ listeners understand the semantic connection between parts of sentences or units of discourse. Having a textual function, linking adverbials connect the clause to the previous part of the text by indicating a range of semantic relationships between them. The main semantic categories of linking adverbials according to the classification by Biber et al. have been tabulated in Table 3.2 below.

LINKING ADVERBIALS	
Summation	all in all, in conclusion, overall, to summarize, in sum, to conclude, to sum up
Linking (chronological sequence)	first(ly), second(ly), next, finally; first of all, to begin with
Addition linking	above all, also, again, besides, by the same token, correspondingly, equally, further, furthermore, in addition, in the same way, likewise, moreover, then, similarly, too, as well
Result/inference	Consequently, thus, therefore, so, as a result/ consequence, accordingly, hence, or this/that reason
Contrast/concession	alternatively, on the other hand, conversely, instead, on the contrary, in contrast, by comparison. nevertheless, nonetheless, however, although, besides, though, yet
Apposition	that is to say, that is, for instance, namely, specifically, e.g. (for example); i.e., viz.(namely), as follows, such as, including, included

Table 3.2 **Linking Adverbials**

Adverbs marking summation foreground relevant points, signal that a unit of text concludes, sum up what was said in the preceding text or indicate the beginning of a new section of the text. Summation adverbials are *all in all*, *in conclusion, overall, to summarize, in sum, to conclude*. Linking adverbials can be used to, e.g. present action in chronological sequence (e.g. numbering words: *first(ly), second(ly), next, finally*; prepositional phrases: *first of all, to begin with*). Addition linking adverbials show that a new piece of discourse is being added to what has been previously indicated (*also, by the same token, further, furthermore, in addition, likewise, moreover, similarly*).

Linking adverbials of result indicate that the second clause states the results or consequences of the preceding clause. Inference indicates a deduction from what is tacit in the preceding sentence(s). Linking adverbials of result/inference are *consequently, thus, therefore* (written discourse), *so* (spoken discourse). Contrast/concession adverbials indicate some contrast or conflict with what has preceded. Adverbials of contrast are: *alternatively, on the other hand, conversely, instead, on the contrary, in contrast, by comparison*. Adverbials of concession are: *nevertheless, nonetheless, besides, though* (mostly spoken discourse), *yet*. *Text glosses* (Swales) /*code glosses* (Hyland) or *adverbials of apposition* (Biber et al.) are explanations of what particular terms in the text mean, or they help readers understand parts of the text, e.g. *that is to say* (spoken discourse), *that is, for instance, namely, specifically.* In the written discourse, Latin abbreviations are used: *e.g. (for example); i.e. (that is), viz. (namely).*

The most typical linking adverbials are result/ inference, apposition, and contrast/ concessive adverbials, and the most frequent linking adverbials in academic discourse that occur over 100 times per million are: *however, thus, therefore, for example, then, so, e.g., i.e., first, finally, furthermore, hence, nevertheless, rather, yet, for instance, in addition, on the other hand, that is.* It should be noted that although the linking adverb *so* appears in the list above, it is considered to be used in informal register (Biber, et al., 2003: 39, Cory, 2000: 23).

As it has been already stated, the most typical position for linking adverbials is the initial, coming before the subject or any other obligatory element. Placing linking adverbials in the initial position ensures the expected information structure of English discourse: the given information coming before the new information, which contributes to cohesion. However, linking adverbials can be found in medial positions as well. For instance, *therefore, thus, however* tend to be used in medial positions after the subject or operator (the verb used to form negative or interrogative clauses) (Biber et al., ibid., Hewings, 1999). For instance, in the example below, the adverbial *however* follows the subject *group work* and is used to emphasize the contrast.

Group work, however, may not be effective if students are not selective. (BA2)

(1) The second group is modal adjuncts, which express the speaker's judgement regarding the relevance of the message.

	Type	Meaning	Examples
I	probability	how likely? how obvious?	probably, possibly, certainly maybe, obviously
	usuality	how often? how typical?	usually, sometimes, always, never for the most part, seldom, often
II	presumptive	how presumable?	evidently, apparently, presumably
	tentative	how constant?	initially, tentatively, provisionally

Table 3.3 **Modal Adjuncts (Halliday, 1990: 50)**

According to Biber et al. (2003: 382), they are stance adverbials, and they indicate a speaker's or writer's judgement, or they comment on the information in a proposition expressed in a clause. There are three main types of stance adverbials: epistemic, attitude, and style adverbials (ibid.), which we have systematized in Table 3.4 below. Stance adverbials are used in order to assess the truth of the information or subject matter expressed in the text and to show the writer's attitude to the proposition or degree of commitment to the assessment. For instance, the writers can use such imprecision adverbials as hedges (e.g. *may/might/seem)*, certainty adverbials (e.g. *clearly, it is obvious that*), and source of knowledge adverbials (e.g. *according to X*). The highest frequency of stance adverbials is in the spoken interactional discourse (Biber et al., 2003); however, they are also used in the written discourse, e.g. attitude adverbials can show the writer's attitude to the proposition, epistemic adverbials can convey the meaning of imprecision, source of knowledge adverbials, which are of particular interest to this research, acknowledge the source of information. To exemplify, having previously spoken about the roles of the teacher in the classroom, the student states (1):

(1) *Evidently, the roles of the teacher and learners in ELT are complimentary. (BA2)*
(2) *According to the studies on the Communicative approach to ELT, the goal of employing the Communicative approach in a classroom may be interpreted as training students to be communicatively competent in authentic situations by expanding their language skills.(BA2)*

The noun phrase *the roles of the teacher and learners* has already been mentioned in the previous text, and the epistemic adverbial *evidently* alludes to this evidence. *According to* in extract (2) is the source of knowledge adverbial, and it shows that the idea comes from another source.

STANCE ADVERBIALS	
Epistemic adverbials	
Certainty and doubt	Certainly, undoubtedly, no doubt, probably, perhaps, maybe, arguably, decidedly, definitely, incontestably, incontrovertibly, most likely, very likely, quite likely, of course, I guess, I think, I bet, I suppose, who knows
Actuality and reality	In fact, really, actually, in actual fact, for a fact, truly
Source of knowledge	Evidently, apparently, reportedly, reputedly, according to X, as Y reports/notes
Limitation	In most cases, in most instances, mainly, typically, generally, largely, in general, on the whole
Viewpoint or perspective	In our view, from our perspective, to my knowledge, to the best of our knowledge
Imprecision	Like, sort of, kind of, so to speak, if you can call it that
Attitude adverbials	
expectation	Surprisingly, not surprisingly, most surprising of all, as might be expected, as you'd expect, as you might expect, inevitably, naturally, as you might guess, to my surprise, astonishingly, of course, predictably
evaluation	Unfortunately, conveniently, wisely, sensibly, quite rightly, even worse, disturbingly, ironically
importance	Even more importantly, significantly
Style adverbials	Frankly, if you don't mind my saying so, literally, seriously, confidentially, to tell you the truth, technically speaking, generally speaking, to put it X (e.g. bluntly)

Table 3.4 **Semantic Categories of Stance Adverbials**

The third group is conjunctions and relatives. These elements are used to help interpret the relation between the clauses. They have to be thematic and come at the beginning of a clause. (1) Conjunctions

Type	Examples
Co-ordinator subordinator	and, or, nor, either, neither, but, yet, so, then when, while, before, after, until, because, if, although, unless, since, that, whether even if, in case, supposing (that), assuming (that), seeing (that), given that, provided (that), in spite of the fact that, in the event that

Table 3.5 **Conjunctions (Halliday, 1990: 51)**

Conjunctions are seen as relationships indicating links between the preceding and the following sentences or parts of a sentence. The presence of conjunctions in the written discourse is very important since they often contribute to style.

(2) Relatives are either nouns or adverbs, and they function as a subject, an adjunct or a complement.

Type	Examples
definite indefinite	which, who, that, whose, when, where (why, how) whatever, whichever, whoever, whosever, whenever, wherever, however

Table 3.6 **Relatives (Halliday, 1990: 51)**

Biber et al. (2003) name this group of adverbials circumstance adverbials and categorize them into place, time, process, contingency, degree, addition/restriction, and recipient. They are undeniably important for academic and research discourse, as they add something about the action or state described in the clause; however, they are not discussed in the present paper.

3.2.2 Taxonomy and Functions of Metadiscourse in Written Mode

Although adverbials are essential elements ensuring text coherence, they do not account for all linguistic means that can be used to create conditions for effective communication for research purposes. Swales (1990: 24) posits that a characteristic feature of a long text such as a research article is a relatively high use of metadiscourse, and that it is the responsibility of the writer to make the meaning explicit to the readers. Hyland (2000: 437) views writing as a social communicative act, and asserts that the choice of metadiscourse shows the writers' communicative aims. Being a pragmatic construct, it allows us to see how writers aim at influencing readers' understanding of both the text and their attitude towards its content and the audience.

It is agreed (e.g. Swales et al., 2000: 170) that metadiscourse is as integral part of the written and spoken discourse that does not add anything to the propositional content of the discourse but helps to organize it as a coherent text and helps the reader/ listener follow the text, comprehend its content, and evaluate the information given. It facilitates communication and is linked to the norms and expectations of the discourse community.

Thus, it may direct and assist the readers by showing the structure of the text, referring readers back to a relevant part of the text, providing definitions so that the argument and the findings of the research are explicit. Therefore, it is a very useful linguistic tool, e.g. when starting and ending chapters, providing an outline of the chapters in the introductory section of the RP. Having drawn on Halliday's textual and interpersonal functions, Hyland (1998) differentiates between the textual and interpersonal features of metadiscourse. The former are 'devices which allow the recovery of the writer's intentions by explicitly establishing preferred interpretations of propositional meanings' (Hyland, 1998: 442), which enable the writer/speaker to organize his text so that it makes sense and the addressees understand the propositional content more easily. Interpersonal metadiscourse allows us to express the addressor's attitude towards the subject matter or information. Hyland (2000: 111) proposes the taxonomy of metadiscourse, which can be seen in Table 3.7 below.

Logical connectives are mostly linking adverbials and stance adverbials (see the previous sub-chapter), which help readers construe pragmatic connections between ideas. Frame markers show the borders of schematic text structure and in many ways coincide with linking and summation adverbials. Research (e.g. Basturkmen, 2002: 51) reveals that non-native speakers of English often overuse linking adverbials if compared with native speakers who use them sparingly (an average 2.9 and 5.3 cohesive connectors, respectively).

Endophoric markers, which are the reference to tables, charts, figures, appendices make additional material salient to the reader and are very typical of RPs; however, they are not discussed in detail in this research.

Category	Function	Examples
Textual metadiscourse		
Logical connectives	Express semantic relation between main clauses	In addition/but/thus/and
Frame markers (sequencing)	Explicitly refer to discourse acts or text stages	First(ly), finally
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	Noted above/see Figure/in Chapter X
Evidentials	Refer to the source of information from other texts	According to X/ (1990)/Z states/argues/studies/research
Code glosses	Help readers grasp meanings of ideational material	Namely/e.g./ such as/i.e./viz
Interpersonal metadiscourse		
Hedges	Withhold the writer's full commitment to statements	Might/perhaps/possible/ /apparently/seems/ somewhat
Boosters/emphatics	Emphasize force or the writer's certainty in message	In fact/definitely/ it is clear /evidently
Attitude markers	Express the writer's attitude to propositional content	Unfortunately/ I agree/have to
Relation markers	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with the reader	Frankly/note that/ you can see/our (inclusive)/ we (includes reader)
Person markers	Explicit reference to the author (s)	I/ we/my/mine/our

Table 3.7 **Functions of Metadiscourse in Academic Texts (based on Hyland 2000)**

We shall classify metadiscourse into previews that refer to a later stage of the text by looking forward, reviews that refer to an earlier stage of the text, which can be done by summarizing the previous part of the text, and overviews that look in both directions and refer to the current stage of the text in overall terms (based on Swales' classification, 2000: 172). From the point of view of the *scope*, metadiscourse can refer to the whole dissertation, chapter(s), sub-chapters, paragraphs, and sentence(s).

Direction	*Scope*
Previews Reviews Overviews	1. dissertation as a whole 2. chapter(s) 3. sub-chapter(s) 4. paragraph(s) 5. sentence(s)

Table 3. 8 **Metadiscourse: Direction and Scope (based on Swales, 2000)**

The most characteristic forms of metadiscourse are preview and review statements. The former informs the reader about the text that is to be about to be read; the latter summarizes the information that appeared earlier in the text.

Another important metadiscourse is evidentials, which play an important role in literature review and which tell the reader where the claim reported in the proposition comes from. According to Hyland (2000: 112), 'Evidentials distinguish who is responsible for a position and are distinguished from the writer's stance towards the view, which is coded as an interpersonal feature.' They show the place of this research in a larger disciplinary context and provide credibility to statements and the students' knowledge of prior research in the field. Code glosses or apposition (Biber et al.) adverbials provide additional information either by explaining or expanding what has been said.

Some elements of interpersonal metadiscourse coincide with stance adverbials (Biber et al.): hedges or imprecision adverbials (ibid.); boosters or certainty/doubt adverbials (ibid.); attitude markers or evaluation adverbials (ibid.), relation markers or stance adverbials (ibid.) (see above). Our interest lies in person markers, which indicate the author's presence in the text measured by the frequency of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives. Let us consider an example from the corpus of students' BA papers in order to examine how metadiscourse guides the reading process.

> *To choose suitable tasks for the present research, we had to identify what type of activities the students liked best. The students were asked to complete a questionnaire (see Appendix 6). The results are shown in Figure 5.3. (BA1)*

The extract is taken from the discussion section of a BA paper and contains two endophoric markers: *(see Appendix 6)* and *Figure 5.3*. Both of them preview the text by looking forward to the thesis as a whole and referring to the next paragraph respectively. It has also the person marker *we*, which refers to the author of the text.

Thus, it can be seen that metadiscourse guides readers through a text and helps them organize content, as they read and receive information clearly. Moreover, it can be a useful tool to help readers distinguish propositional content from the writer's commentary. It also gives readers the sense that the writer is fully aware of what he/she is doing (Swales, 2000; Mauranen, 1993). Besides, it is argued that metadiscourse reduces readers' memory and cognitive load, supports the writer's position (Swales, et al. 2000: 170).

3.2.2.1 Interpersonal Metadiscourse: Hedges and Person Markers

Although it is often believed that research texts use an impersonal and objective style, authors frequently formulate their statements in a cautious and tentative way, which can be achieved by means of hedges. Hedges have been studied as a feature of metadiscourse, as they are used to qualify the information and comment on what is being said. They have been discussed as having both an ideational and interpersonal function of discourse.

The importance of hedging in research writing has been the subject of much research. George Lakoff was one of the first who explored hedges. He referred to a group of words as hedges, 'words whose meaning implicitly involves fuzziness- words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy' (1973: 471). Lakoff's treatment of hedges involved semantics: how the usage of hedges affects the experiential component of the ideational function of language. Lakoff has facilitated the discussion on hedges, although since that time the meaning of the concept has broadened.

Initially, hedges were analysed in the spoken discourse, but since the mid-1980s there has been an extensive interest in hedges in the academic and research written discourse in different disciplines, e.g. economics (Dudley-Evans, 1993), biology (Myers, 1990), biology (Hyland, 1998), medicine (Salager-Meyer, 1994). Most of the studies seem to agree that hedges are important features of discourse. It is assumed that hedging may fulfil numerous functions in discourse (Hyland, 1996: 437); however, the frequency and functions of these linguistic devices can vary in different disciplines.

Hedging can be viewed from the point of view of linguistic politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1978; 1987). The linguists incorporated the concept of face into their theory of linguistic politeness and distinguished between the negative and positive face, the concept *face* referring to our public self-image. They argued that the speakers/writers are aware of the desire to 'to be unimpeded in one's actions (negative face), and the desire (in some respects) to be approved of (positive face)' (1987: 13). In communication, even taking into account Grice's Cooperative principle (see Chapter 1), certain illocutionary acts (i.e. "a complete speech act made in a typical utterance that consists of a) the delivery of the propositional content of the utterance, b) a particular illocutionary force, whereby the speaker asserts, suggests, etc." (www7)) threaten either the positive or negative side of the person's face. These utterances are called face threatening acts (FSAs). Myers (1989) has investigated hedges as politeness markers in scientific discourse. The linguist claims that hedging is used to mark a claim 'as being provisional, pending acceptance in the literature, acceptance by the community' (ibid.: 13). He considers that hedges indicate the relations between the addressor and the addressee, rather than the probability of the statement. It is also claimed that papers written in linguistics might have more hedging devices than in hard science texts since often argumentation in linguistics is not based on experimental data.

Thus, hedging has been viewed as a positive politeness strategy in order to maintain the social relationship between the addressor and the addressee, which can be achieved by communicating one's opinion vaguely and inviting the addressee to use his schematic knowledge to interpret the addressor's opinion (Brown and Levinson, 187: 117). The addressor's positive face may be threatened when he/she has to admit a mistake. To counteract the threat, people adopt a strategy depending on the power relationship and social distance between the speaker/listener and the writer/reader.

A negative face refers to our right to be independent of action. The addressee's negative face may be threatened when the addressor is too assertive; for example, by imposing his opinion on the addressee. Thus, hedging can be viewed as a strategy protecting the writer/speaker's negative face. In this case, a typical strategy employed would be a deference strategy. It can be seen as formal politeness, employing impersonal language. Student writers can limit their responsibility toward the propositional content given and maintain their face and thus can possibly avoid criticism from the readers/listeners in case one is found to be wrong (Salager-Meyer, 1994: 150). It is claimed (ibid.) that hedges can be used to change the information presented so that the author expresses negative politeness toward the addressees by leaving them room for interpretation.

Unfortunately, it is not always possible to distinguish between a negative and a positive politeness without checking a particular hedge with the addressor. Hyland (1998: 156) argues that ‘hedges convey a range of meanings for particular users in particular contexts.’ If hedging is used in a scientific discourse between a student and a professor who are unequal interlocutors, the student may exercise caution with regard to the professor. In this case, a hedge fulfils a negative politeness function. When we use negative politeness, we make use of a language that stresses our deterrence for the addressee. However, some scholars do not agree with the politeness interpretation of hedges:

> To be ‘polite’ is to abide by the rules of a relationship established by the scientific discourse community.[…] contributing to a scientific debate involves the writer entering into an interactional contact with specific rights and obligations, among which are limits of self-assurance and norms concerning the deference due to the views of other researchers. Adherence to such an interactional contract may exert a stronger influence on scientists than considerations of face […]. (Hyland, 1998: 69)

Recently hedging has been viewed as a pragmatic concept, as it has been analysed taking into account the interpersonal function of the language and emphasizing a communicative situation. Thus, it is assumed that hedging may have numerous pragmatic functions in discourse (Hyland, 1996: 437). This politeness strategy can be viewed as an attempt by the addressor to avoid imposing on the addressee his beliefs (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 144) and asking the addressee ‘to use his common knowledge’ when interpreting the addressor’s opinion (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 117). Moreover, it may protect the negative face of the addressor against the criticism of the addressee in those cases when there is no full agreement. The students remain modest because they do not feel to be ready to claim that they have made an outstanding contribution to the field yet. Indeed, hedges are used to comment on the validity of the proposition; however, the students would balance facts and evaluation of those facts since they try to give information as accurately and objectively as possible, by reducing their presence from the text.

It is often argued that the incidence of hedges in the RPs depends on the type of the research method used: the imprecision of the numerical data mostly in hard sciences is commented on by means of hedging. However, in soft sciences, the theoretical and empirical findings seem to be more tentative than in hard sciences, where the conclusions are based on empirical experiments. Thus, hedges are useful linguistic entities to be used in applied linguistics. Research proves that hedges are not equally distributed throughout RPs. Myers (1990: 13) claims that hedging appears mostly in the discussion section of a

RA; Salager-Meyer (1994: 156) points out that it also used in the results and introduction sections of RAs.

Hyland (1996/1998) has categorized hedges in scientific research articles, the major categories being: content-oriented and reader-oriented hedges. Content-oriented hedges 'hedge the correspondence between what the writer says about the world and what the world is thought to be like' (Hyland, 1996: 439). Reader-oriented hedges deal with the relationship between the author and the reader, who may be a person from the same scientific discourse community. If students want to be accepted by a discourse community, they must write in a deferential way, which means that they should follow the norms of a given discourse community.

Thus, most applied linguists view hedges as useful linguistic tools for research writing, and they can be as follows:

1) modal auxiliary verbs, e.g. may, might, can, could, would, should, will.

Most studies establish close relationship between hedging and modality (e.g. Brown and Levinson, 1978; Hyland, 1998). Hyland (1998: 2) argues that 'the writer or speaker's judgements about statements and their possible effects on interlocutors is the essence of hedging, and this clearly places epistemic modality at the center of our interest [in the analysis of hedging].'

Epistemic modality is connected with the addressor's knowledge and beliefs concerning the information, his confidence regarding what is being communicated, and it is when 'the speaker explicitly qualifies his commitment to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence he utters (Lyons, 1977: 797). Thus, the auxiliary *may* in sentence (1) below is used epistemically to express tentativeness toward the information presented:

(1) *Students <u>may</u> have found the task motivating.*
(2) *Students <u>may</u> go home.*

The auxiliary *may* in sentence (2) is used to express permission. It is an example of deontic modality, which is concerned with 'the necessity or possibility of acts performed by morally responsible agents' (Lyons, 1977: 823). They may also function as means of expressing duty, volition, and obligation.

2) modal lexical verbs perform the functions of doubting and evaluating, e.g. *to seem, to appear (epistemic verbs), to believe, to assume, to suggest, to tend, to argue, to propose.*

It is believed that language learning should start with listening comprehension rather than that listening comprehension should be added on to an established programme of reading, writing and speaking.(BA12)

They are used particularly when evaluating results or stating implications of findings.

It seems that more attention should be paid to the development of this particular type of vocabulary.(BA25)

3) adjectival, adverbial and nominal modal phrases:

a. probability adjectives: *possible, probable, (un)likely;*

They are common in academic and research texts, and together with the nouns that they modify add to their information density.

A possible solution of the problem might be the introduction of communicative games in the learning process. (BA45)

b. nouns: *assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion (potential, uncertainty, unlikelihood);*

c. adverbs (non-verbal modals): *perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, apparently.*

In the sentence below, the adverb *relatively* modifies the adjective *unimportant:*

The difference in examination results is relatively unimportant. (BA34)

If the students are exposed to listening practice that is interesting and relevant to the students' age group by means of pre-, while-and post-listening activities, they are likely to build their confidence in listening to the English language and to develop their listening comprehension skills. (BA12)
Taking into consideration her own study experience, the author supposes that the most effective way to learn new vocabulary is probably by incidental learning(BA25)

4) approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time: *approximately, roughly, about, usually, somewhat.*

Many degree adverbs are frequently used in statistical measurement with gradable adjectives as they show degrees on a scale; moreover, they indicate that the modified part of speech is not being used precisely. For example, the degree adverb *somewhat* decreases the effect of the modified adjectival participle *differed* in the following extract below:

Answers to the second question somewhat differed… (BA29)
The number of words was approximately the same as in the first work. (BA25)

5) introductory phrases express the author's personal doubt and direct involvement: *to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that.* The right choice of verb: *we suppose that…, we tend to…, this suggests that….*

> *To our knowledge, the case study method is not a widespread technique of teaching English in Latvia. (BA34)*

6) if clauses: *if true, if anything*

> *If tertiary level students receive meaning-focused input, language –focused learning and fluency development during their academic studies, they are likely to build their academic vocabulary.(BA25)*

7) compound hedges are made up of several hedges: *it would seem; it seems reasonable, it may suggest, it would seem somewhat unlikely that.*

> *The data obtained from the research can help to contextualise how teaching and learning academic vocabulary should take place in universities; and therefore, it can be assumed to be practical.(BA25)*

The usage of hedges shows that the information is presented as an opinion rather than a recognized fact. It is an interpersonal communicative strategy, which is used to qualify claims by making them stronger or weaker. Students must show that they are convinced about their propositions; however, they must avoid overstating their claims since this may cause a negative reaction from the addressees, especially if they disagree with the students.

As it has been argued earlier, directness, objectivity, and precision are the most important features of the scientific discourse; therefore, it often employs impersonal, objective style, which implies avoiding the first personal pronoun *I* and its case forms. Anderson and Poole (1994: 6) argue that

> scientific writing is not of a personal or conversational nature and for this reason the third person is commonly used. As a general rule, personal pronouns such as *I, we, you, me, my, our* and *us* should not appear except in quotations.

However, the usage of personal pronouns has become a rather controversial issue recently. On the one hand, their usage in the research genres is forbidden in writing style guides and theoretical literature, on the other hand experienced research writers tend to use them (Chang and Swales, 1999). For example, Swales et al. (2000: 16-17) and Coffin et al. (2003: 28) point out that until recently, particularly in the sciences, the concept of objectivity, which was associated with the experimental method, meant avoidance of a personal voice. Several applied linguists (e.g. Chang et al. ibid.; Coffin et al., ibid.; Harwood et al., 2004) have conducted research in order to find out the frequency of using some of the formal elements in research articles from various fields. They conclude that references to the first person pronoun *I* and the second person pronoun *you* are increasing since their usage makes science writing clearer and more accessible to the reader. Likewise, Day (1998: 210) claims that the usage of the first person plural pronoun *we* for single-authored papers is not allowed, 'Do not use the "editorial we" in place of "I".' In general, the first person personal pronouns may have several functions in written discourse:

- The writer shows that there are spaces in the research literature which need to be filled. He/she emphasises that his/her own work is worth reading because it fills this space.
- The writer uses a personal pronoun near the end of the paper to emphasize how much his/her research has achieved.
- The writer provides the reader with the structure of his/her paper, telling the reader what is coming next.
- The writer shows his/her paper is methodologically sound.
- The writer explains and defines the specialist language he/she is going to use.
- The writer uses a personal pronoun to promote his/her work and to show the originality of the research technique used. The reader is not included.
- The writer describes his/her methodology. (Harwood, 2003)

Hyland (2002a: 352) reports that there is a considerable difference between disciplines, and that the hard sciences highlight the proposition, whereas the humanities and social sciences favour a stronger identity. For example, there are 17.2 instances of singular pronouns *I, me, my* in applied linguistics and 15.0 instances of plural pronouns *we, us, our* if compared to marketing 1.6 and 36.5 instances respectively. It is also generally agreed that most aspects of style are determined by convention and the requirements of a particular discourse community. According to the discursive and epistemological practice of the FML, the absence of the first personal pronoun *I* and its case forms is a valid indicator of impersonal, objective research style. The students are expected to use the plural pronoun *we/us/ours,* the third person singular pronouns *he* or *she* when referring to the author of the RP, as it is considered a salient characteristic of research writing. Thus, the likely arguments that would account for the avoidance of the first person singular pronoun are as follows:

1) The student-author's reluctance to overvalue his personal contribution to the proposed ideas (e.g. Baltins, 2003);
2) The conventions of the genre and discursive and epistemological practice of the relevant discourse community;
3) The presentation of the author's ideas as part of the existing knowledge in the field;
4) The author's intention to involve the reader in the process of communication.

The first person plural pronoun *we* and its case forms *us, our* are used to explicitly refer to:

1) a single author: an exclusive *we*;
2) the writer and the reader or to build relationship with the addressee: an inclusive *we*;
3) the writer and others who have contributed to the research, however, excluding the addressee: an exclusive ***we***.

The students, especially the first year undergraduates, often find it very difficult to refer to themselves using the first person plural pronoun *we* or the third person singular pronouns *he/she* or their case forms. Apparently, the first year students find the shift from informal style, which they were used to at school, to a formal spoken and written style rather difficult. In order to find out the students' perception of some problematic elements of academic and research language, a questionnaire (see Appendix 13) was designed and administered to 84 students in the academic year 2002/2003. As the results show, only thirty-two per cent (32%) of the respondents considered that the second person pronoun *you* is not used in academic writing, fifty-one per cent (51%) were of the opinion that the first person pronoun *I* should be avoided, and fifty-four per cent (54%) of the students believed that academic and research writing would not contain verb contractions, which is another linguistic means that contributes to the formal style. They were also asked to examine pairs of sentences and tick the one in each pair that best suited academic style. For example,

(1) The results we report here…
(2) I would like to report on the results…

Forty-six per cent (46%) of the respondents chose option (1), but thirty-four per cent (34%) selected option (2), which contradicts with their earlier answer: cf. 51 per cent of the students believed that the personal pronoun *I* should be avoided to refer to themselves as the writers. When asked about their choice, those students who ticked the second sentence said that the form *I would like to report* sounded more polite than the form in the first sentence. Their replies seem to indicate that they did not pay attention to the personal pronouns and did not appreciate their rhetorical value in scientific and academic discourse. However, as the students progress with the studies, they learn to use impersonal style, including the usage of the personal pronouns that largely contribute to it, which can be exemplified in the sample paragraph below:

> *When starting to work as an English teacher at a vocational school, the author of the paper was convinced that from all the areas that students have to master while learning a foreign language (such as vocabulary, speaking, writing, reading listening, pronunciation, etc.), her grammar classes will be a success and her students will show good results in using grammar in tests and examinations. (BA2)*

The student refers to herself using the noun phrase *the author* and the third person singular possessive determiner *her*. Thus, through this discourse community specific academic identity, the student communicates the proposition to the readers.

3.3 Exploring Research Communication Theory of Genre

The studies of texts within the framework of one register showed variations within the same register. That fostered the development of the Genre theory, which was largely facilitated by Swales' (1981) research too.

For many years, the concept *genre* has been used to refer to particular kinds of literature or other media of creative expression such as film. However, recently the usage of the concept has been expanded to embrace the predictable and recurring academic, professional and other texts that are used in a range of contexts. Nowadays the concept *genre* has been adopted as a theoretical and pragmatic construct. The three major schools dealing with the studies of genres are New Rhetoric studies, Systematic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The distinction between these schools is often vague. New Rhetoric work draws on the studies of rhetoric, composition studies and professional writing (Freadman and Medway, 1994) and focuses on a detailed analysis of the social and cultural contexts in which genres occur, emphasizing the social actions that texts perform within these contexts (Miller, 1984). Work on genre by the scholars of Systemic Functional Linguistics (e.g. Martin and Rothery, 1981; Christie and Rothery, 1989) draws on the Systemic Functional Linguistic theory (the London School). The core features central to this school are: a functional perspective in the study of language, a focus on the relationships that exist between the texts and the contexts in which they occur, and emphasis on the interrelationship between the spoken and written modes of the target language. The ESP perspective of the Genre theory sees genres as communicative events, which have ‘typical schematic structures that are recognized by users of the genre’ (Hyland, 2002b: 16-17). The focus of ESP scholars (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Dudley-Evans and St Johns, 1998) is on analyzing communicative purposes and formal linguistic features of genres in various academic and professional contexts. The most influential definition of a genre has been proposed by Swales (1990: 120):

> 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 constraints choice of content and style. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community.

From this definition it is obvious that an important aspect of genre analysis is a communicative event, in which two parties, i.e. the writer and the reader engage in communication through the text. The parties share the understanding of communicative purpose, which helps them distinguish one genre from another. Likewise, Bhatia (1998: 45) argues that the communicative purpose is the most important factor in genre identification because any major changes in it will give a different genre, but minor changes will help identify sub-genres. The definition above also suggests that genres have a schematic structure, and the participants (readers and writers) of the communicative event draw on this structure for writing and construing the text. Likewise, Bhatia (ibid.: 14), Grabe et al. (1996: 206) emphasize the importance of a complete structure of a genre along with other identifiable formal properties and purposes. Similarly, Tribble (1996) holds that a genre is a structured and conventionalized communicative event, and the members of the academic community recognize the conventionalized internal structures of the genres, and they have a role in defining the characteristics of a particular genre.

Thus, the linguistic resources used to write a particular text must conform to specific structural and lexico-grammatical resources of a particular genre. As it can be seen from Figure 3.1 below, Swales distinguishes between content schemata and formal schemata. Content schemata are related to the organization of facts and concepts, but formal schemata are connected with the organization of information and rhetorical elements and style. It is obvious that established members of a particular discourse community have a much greater previous experience and prior knowledge of understanding generic practices than their students, who should acquire both formal and content schemata so that their RPs could comply with the academic conventions of a discourse community:

> the students need both a rhetorical awareness of the texts that they have to write for their departments and a linguistic awareness of the range of language forms that can be used to express the basic rhetoric of the academic papers they write.
> (Dudley-Evans, 1999)

Formal schemata, which are the pre-requisite for developing communicative expertise in the specialist discourse, include the acquisition of genre knowledge, i.e. the communicative purposes of the genre; the knowledge of the lexico-grammatical, semantic and discoursal resource of the genre; the application of generic knowledge in specialized contexts, i.e. the ability to use conventions in order to achieve pragmatic results (Bhatia, 1997a: 136-138). The communicative purpose is revealed 'in the interpretative cognitive structuring of the genre, which, in a way, represents the typical regularities of organization in it' (Bhatia, 1998: 21).

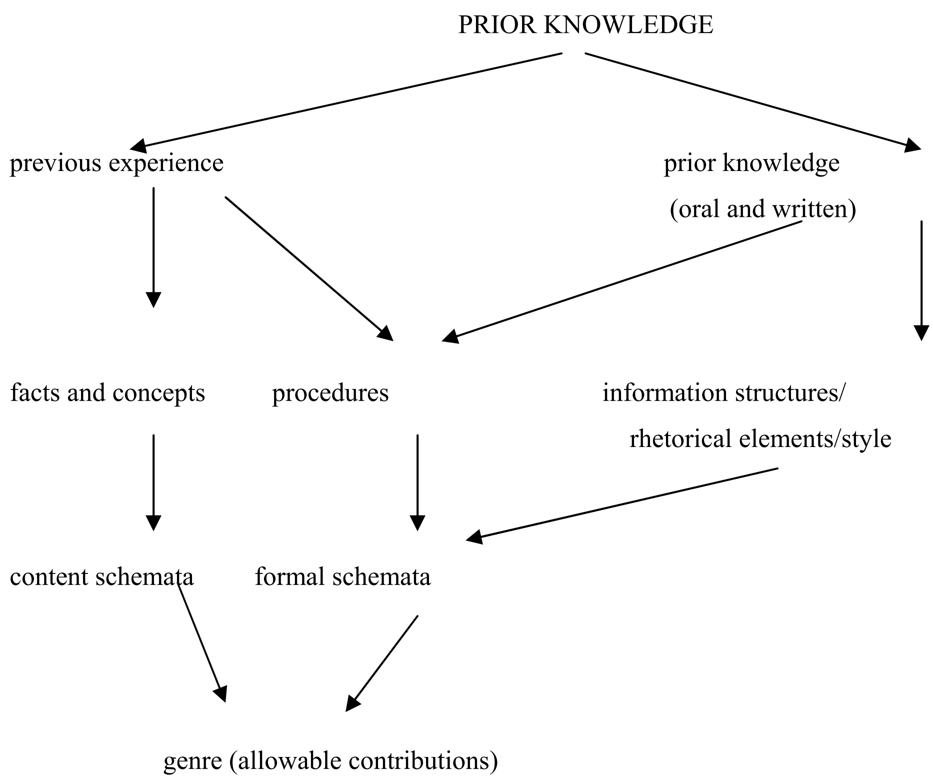


Figure 3.1 **Schematic Structure of Genres (Swales, 1990: 84)**

The applied linguist asserts that members of a particular discourse community use certain strategies to construct and to understand that genre in order to accomplish specific communicative purposes. Therefore, conventions are seen as an important aspect in the genre theory, as genres are essentially defined in terms of the use of language in conventionalized communicative settings. The communicative goals of a discourse community establish relatively stable structural forms and, to some extent, even limit the use of lexico-grammatical elements employed in a particular genre. Such constraints can be often ascribed to variations in disciplinary practices. Dudley-Evans (1987) argues that the typical features of style and form are 'recognized either overtly or covertly', by the users of the particular genre. To exemplify, the scholar mentions a research article, which has a public purpose and has conventions about layout, form and style.

Although genres are typically associated with recurring rhetorical contexts and are recognized on the basis of a shared set of communicative purposes with constraints on the use of lexico-grammatical and discoursal forms, they are not static. A key feature of Hasan's (1978) theories is the concept of genre-specific potential (GSP), which is a specific implementation of field, tenor and mode within a particular context. It is an abstract category specifying a range of possible patterns and structures available for selection within a genre and suggesting that there is a combination of obligatory and optional elements. On the one hand, a genre is viewed as having a 'generic integrity' (Bhatia, 1998), on the other hand certain changes are allowed in order to respond to new rhetorical contexts. As Bhatia (1997) points out,

> Such liberties, innovations, creativities, exploitations, whatever one may choose to call them, are invariably realized within rather than outside the generic boundaries, whichever way one may draw them, in terms of recurrence of rhetorical situations (Miller, 1984), consistency of communicative purposes (Swales, 1990, and Bhatia, 1993), existence and arrangement of obligatory structured elements (Hasan, 1985). It is never a free-for-all kind of activity. The nature of genre manipulation is invariably realized within the broad limits of specific genres and is often very subtle. A serious disregard for these generic conventions leads to opting out of the genre and is noticed by the specialist community as odd.

Thus, some linguists argue that there are obligatory and optional elements in a genre. The obligatory elements in a particular sequence, define the limits of a genre. The optional elements mean that language users may vary the form of their language within the limits of a genre. For example, Tribble (1996: 51) posits:

> A genre is not a rigid set of rules for text formation. It is a social practice, not simply the text, which makes the genre possible, and social practices are open to challenge and change.

The linguist suggests that writers might vary the optional generic conventions in order to achieve their communicative purposes; however, they should follow mandatory organizational patterns and lexico-grammatical features of specific genres in order to ensure the pragmatic success of the text in the appropriate context. Hence, a student who attempts to write a Bachelor thesis, provided he/she has achieved a high level of communicative language competence needs to have 1) developed the *linguo-functional research competence* required to perform preparatory linguistic functions for research and resultant linguistic functions leading to the end product: a Bachelor thesis; 2) acquired the knowledge of the *genre*: its *macro-structure* and the *underlying recurrent linguistic features* that are prototypically present in the relevant genre and its *sub-genres*, which entails: a) the knowledge of the coherence-creating mechanisms of the target language; b) the knowledge of the *writing conventions* of a particular discourse community (see Appendix 16) as manifested by the *disciplinary discourse community's expectations and considering international context*; c) the knowledge of the *subject* being discussed.

Since the Genre theory propounds that there are underlying recurrent lexico-grammatical features and a uniform structure that are prototypically present in particular genres, it is the task of a genre analyst to conduct the analysis of texts in the relevant context. It was already argued earlier that texts could be interpreted in contexts where they are produced. Thus, research writing at the FML is viewed as an activity that occurs in the institutional and international contexts. Bhatia (1998: 18) argues that a 'text by itself is an ongoing process of negotiation in the context of issues like social roles, [...] professional and organizational preferences and prerequisites […].' Thus, the sociological aspect of genre analysis answers the question *Why do members of a particular community write the way they do?* According to Bhatia (ibid. 19), the psycholinguistic aspect of genre analysis reveals the cognitive structuring, but the tactical strategies are used in order to make the writing more effective, which can be achieved by taking into consideration a particular reader's requirements, a different use of medium and constraints imposed by institutional and other factors. Thus, we advocate that the genre of research papers should be seen as a social process and product existing in specific institutional contexts and fulfilling definite communicative purposes.

The UL defines a Bachelor thesis as 'a student's research work, which demonstrates acquisition of theoretical and practical knowledge and methodological skills in a group of sciences or a science in the amount identified in a study programme' (The Statute of the UL Study Programmes, www4).

Like most writing, a thesis is written to accomplish certain purposes or functions with a specific audience. The students' purposes in undertaking it may be manifold; however, most of them will consider it to be only a requirement to earn the degree. Obviously, writing a RP should be viewed as a means of learning about the topic the students have chosen, which will result in the fostering of their personal and professional growth. A Bachelor study programme ensures 'mastering of theoretical knowledge, research skills and aptitude in the respective branch, prepares a student for follow-up studies in higher level study programmes and for general employment in the relevant area' (www4). Thus, a degree holder should be able to conduct research on his chosen theme, showing knowledge in the relevant field and the skill to write a RP according to the BA paper writing conventions approved by the relevant discourse community.

The communicative purposes of writing a Bachelor thesis are to inform the reader about the results of the research (ideational function) and to argue the stance and persuade the addressee to accept a particular position (argumentative function). Obviously, the reader being a representative of a particular discourse community has certain expectations about the research genre in terms of the mastery of the disciplinary course content, the language used and the compliance with the established BA paper writing conventions.

Thus, a degree holder should be able to conduct research on his chosen theme, showing knowledge in the relevant field and the skill to write a RP according to the BA paper writing conventions approved by the relevant discourse community.

In order to show schematically the language for research purposes, we have applied Martin's (1997, in Christie and Martin, 2000) model of Functional Diversification of Language and Social Context to RPs and broadened it by including the discourse and a support function (see Figure 3.2 below). Discourse is viewed as a broad concept, embracing the genre and the register of a particular genre. Hence, the institutional context comprises the levels of register, genre and discourse. The genre is concerned with the ways in which the register, comprising the variables of field, tenor and mode, are used to form a text, in which the field focuses on the institutional practices; the tenor focuses on social relations; the mode focuses on a channel. The discourse, genre and register determine the language to be used in a particular context to fulfil a range of functions. The macro- and micro-linguistic patterns of a Bachelor thesis are related to their use in the institutional context.

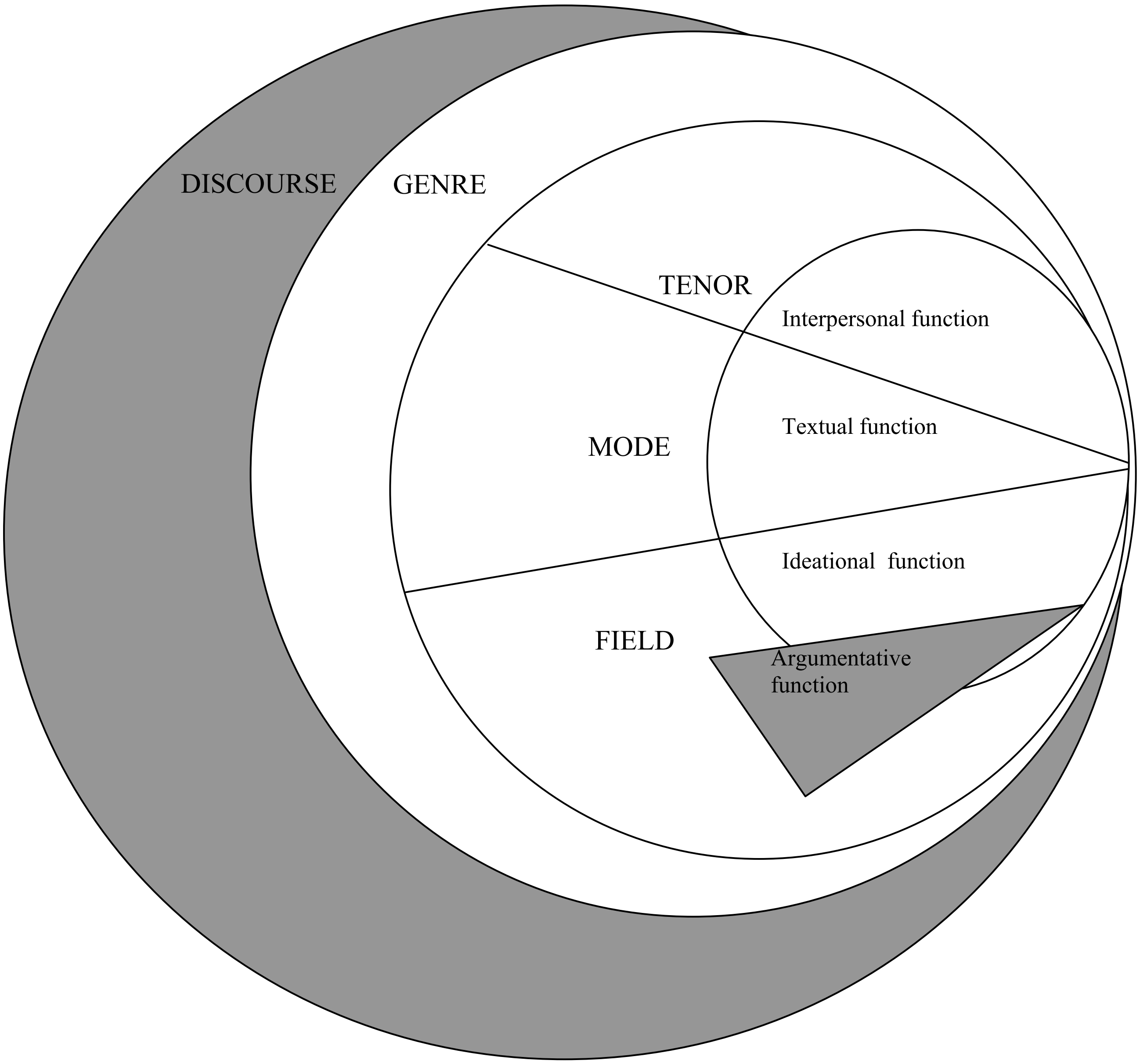


Figure 3.2 **Schematic Representation of Language for Research Purposes**

A BA thesis fulfils several linguistic macro-functions: the ideational function, by communicating the research knowledge; the interpersonal function, by interacting between the addressor and the addressee; the textual function, by organizing the ideational and interpersonal meaning into a text. Moreover, it performs a support function: the argumentative function of language, by using adequate linguistic means to advocate a proposition by arguing its feasibility and by trying to persuade the addressee about the validity and reliability of the findings of the research.

In this research, the genre of Bachelor thesis is interpreted as a sub-category of the scientific register having a static macro-structural organization. The register and genre are two concepts supplementing each other. D'Andrea's (1997 in Glatthorn, 1998: 3) investigation on research papers suggests that the lack of structure in a research paper might be the key element in the inability of many students to complete their programme.

3.3.1 Macro-Structure of Bachelor Papers

The studies of the language and the structure of research papers have been undertaken by a number of linguists. The majority of them have been conducted on post-graduate level dissertations (Ilyinska, 2004; Thompson, 2001; Bunton, 2005). However, there is little published research to our knowledge that has investigated research papers written by English Philology students at the BA level. Therefore, the present research aims at filling this gap.

The comparative analysis of RP writing conventions that follows entails graduate and post-graduate dissertations since the studies on RP structure and linguo-grammatical patterns do not distinguish between the levels. We analysed the models of RPs proposed by Swales (2004), Jordan (1997) (see Appendix 14), Swetnam (2000) and Hart (2002: 213), the latter has been based on the standards laid down by the British Standard: Presentation of Theses and Dissertations (see Appendix 15). We compared the macro-structure proposed by the above linguists with the available published RP paper writing conventions of the University of Vilnius (Katkuviene and Šeškauskiene, 2005). For this purpose, we also analysed the guidelines on writing term papers, bachelor papers, master papers at Daugavpils University (DU), the English Philology Department (Sardiko, 2004), the UL, the Faculty of History and Philosophy (FHPh) (Grasmane, 1997), which assume the same structure for undergraduate and post-graduate levels. The comparative analysis allowed us to elaborate the functional stages of the BA thesis at the FML (see Chapter 5 and Appendix 16). The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3.9 below.

The table does not show such mandatory and optional elements of a BA thesis as the title page, the declaration of academic integrity, acknowledgements (optional), the abstract in Latvian, the table of contents, the bibliography, theses, appendices (optional). For the purposes of this research, we undertook a comparative analysis of the abstract, the introduction, the literature review, methods, results and discussion sections and the conclusions. As it can be seen from Table 3.9, the introduction and conclusions are obligatory elements of a RP in all surveyed conventions.

Swales (2004)	**Swetnam** (2000)	**Hart** (2002)	**Jordan** (2001)	**Sardiko DU** (2004)	**Grasmane LU** (1997)
Abstract	V	V	V	V	-
Introduction	V	V	V	V	V
Literature review	V	V	V	Theoretical part	V
Methods	V	V	V	Practical part. Presentation of research findings	Main chapters
Results	Data analysis	V	V		
Discussion		V	V		
Conclusions	V	V	V	V	V
					Abstract in foreign language

Table 3.9 **Structural Elements in Bachelor Papers**

The body of a RP consists of a literature review, methods, results and discussion sections in the English tradition (Swales, Swetnam, Hart, Jordan), while the Latvian research tradition either only mentions literature review and does not specify the other constituent parts of the body of a RP (Grasmane) or divides it into the theoretical and practical parts (Sardiko). The RP writing conventions of the Faculty of Social Sciences (FSS) available on the Internet (www5), which however are not reflected in Table 3.9 above, state that the body of a RP should reflect the research process, main findings, empirical research and arguments, which seems to be quite similar to the English research tradition.

Although the analysis of the guidelines of RP writing at Vilnius University (Katkuviene, et al., 2005: 18-32) shows that the abstract is considered to be a preliminary section of a

RP, its rhetorical purpose is similar to the one stated by the FML, i.e. to give brief information about the contents of the RP.

As it is shown in Table 3.9, the abstract is an indispensable part of a RP written in English (Swales, Swetnam, Hart, Jordan, Sardiko), but it is not written in the Latvian language (Grasmane). The FHPh (Grasmane) requires an abstract to be written in a foreign language at the end of a RP, and the FSS requires an abstract in Latvian and a foreign language to be written at the end of a RP, which changes the focus of the communicative functions of the abstract. It can be seen that RP writing conventions in Latvian largely depend on a particular discourse community's accepted practice.

Hence, on the surface level, the major discrepancy between the structural elements of the thesis in English and Latvian seems to be the abstract. Therefore, the next subchapter explores the macro-structure and linguistic features of the abstract written in English. It also investigates the introduction, which appears to be very similar to the abstract in terms of context because they are from the same academic setting; they use the same channel of communication: written mode; and they have the same participant relationships and formal style. However, the abstract and the introduction are different in their communicative purposes; and therefore, must have different cognitive structuring. Since both genres are written by the same person and are meant for the same readership, they must remain distinct as genres.

3.3.2 Recurrent Rhetorical and Linguistic Features of Abstracts and Introductions

The RP can be examined as a genre consisting of several sub-genres, e.g. the abstract, the introduction, the literature review, the conclusions. The concept *sub-genre* is used in this research to refer to a section of a full genre that has its own specific pattern of organization. Thus, we shall refer to a RP abstract as a sub-genre of a RP.

The abstract as a typical sub-genre of research is used in scientific journal and academic research paper writing. Bhatia (1998: 78) defines the abstract as ‘a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article.’ The idea of the abstract having the summarizing function is common. For instance, Kramina (2000: 139) asserts that the abstract is a type of summary that provides readers with a brief preview of a whole paper or dissertation. Hyland (2000:

63) emphasizes that abstracts must meet the expectations of a disciplinary discourse community since they are:

> significant carriers of a discipline's epistemological and social assumptions, and therefore a rich source of interactional features that allow us to see how individuals work to position themselves within their communities.

Thus, the abstract is a short written statement of the most important ideas in the research paper, and its communicative functions are the following:

1) to summarize and emphasize the main points so that the potential reader can decide whether to read the entire paper or not;
2) to serve as a summary of the paper for those who do not have time to read the whole text;
3) to prepare the reader for reading all the text, to focus his attention on the direction of the argument and thus give him an idea of what to expect.

In general, there are two types of abstracts: descriptive and informative abstracts. Descriptive abstracts tell the readers what information the text contains and include the aim and the methods of the paper; however, do not provide the results, conclusions or recommendations of the research. Informative abstracts are like descriptive abstracts; however, they inform the readers about the results and conclusions of the research papers. The latter type is favoured in RP writing.

Moves	***Communicative purpose***
1. Introducing purpose	It gives a precise indication of the author's intention or hypothesis that forms the basis of the research being reported. It may also include the goals or objectives of the research or the problem that the author wishes to tackle.
2. Describing methodology	The author gives a good indication of the experimental design, including information on the data, procedures or method(s) used and, if necessary, the scope of the research being reported.
3. Summarizing results	The author mentions his observations and findings and also suggests solutions to the problem, if any, posed in the first move.
4. Presenting conclusions	It interprets results and draws inferences. It typically includes some indication of the implications and applications of the present findings.

Table 3.10 **Bhatia's Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Abstracts (Based on Bhatia, 1998: 78-79)**

Bhatia (1998; 2000) posits that an abstract has information on four aspects of the research (see Table 3.10 above), which corresponds to four main moves. A *move* is a functional unit or 'a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse' (Swales, 2004: 228), which is global to the argumentation of the abstract.

Vilnius University (Katkuviene, et al., 2005) prefers the Bhatia's model, which comprises the objective, methods, results and conclusions of the RP. It is interesting to note that their conducted analysis of recently defended RP reveals that their students tend to include some background information at the beginning of the abstracts too.

Swales (1990: 181) contends that most abstracts follow the IMRAD (i.e. introduction, methods, results and discussion) pattern of the research article abstract and points to 5 typical moves, each move having a specific communicative purpose. Table 3.11 below compares Swales' macrostructure with Hyland's classification of rhetorical moves and requirements to writing an abstract at DU.

Swales (IMRAD)	**Hyland**	**Sardiko**	***Communicative purpose***
1. Background /topic	Introduction	Introduction: Background and purpose	What is the topic of the research, and what has been done in that area so far? It establishes context of the paper.
2. Purpose or scope	Purpose		Why was the research done? Indicates aim of the research and/or hypothesis.
3. Methods	Method	Methods	How was it done? Gives information about the research methods and tools used.
4. Results	Product	Results	What was found? Informs about results or main findings.
5. Conclusions	Conclusion	Discussion	What does it imply? What are the recommendations? Interprets results, directs to applications or wider implications.

Table 3.11 **Comparison of Structural Elements of Abstracts**

We could not conduct a comparative analysis of the abstract writing conventions of other institutions, as the FHPh did not have any, but the conventions of the FSS only state that the abstract has to contain concise information on the problem of the research, the contents of the RP and conclusions. Therefore, they are not included in the analysis.

From Table 3.11 above, it can be seen that the DU's model has only 4 moves; however, it can be inferred that two moves have been joined in one, as Move 1 fulfils two functions: it introduces the topic by giving the background, and it states the purpose of the research. Other moves seem to be similar in all the models.

As it is shown in Table 3.10 and Table 3.11, the difference between the models is that Bhatia's proposed structure does not have the first move, i.e. *background/ introduction* indicated explicitly. However, it can be inferred that the first move *introducing purpose* may contain indication of the research problem, which in a way establishes the context of the paper.

From the analysis of the available models, it can be concluded that the preferred rhetorical structure of the abstract consists of 5 moves. It has already been argued that all the texts in a genre must have a uniform, invariant organization and that within a genre there is a combination of obligatory and optional elements. The obligatory elements in a particular sequence help to define a genre. In order to investigate the recurring rhetorical patterns in the sub-genre, abstracts from the *Applied Linguistics* journal have been analysed. The IMRAD (Table 3.11) and Bhatia's (Table 3.10) models are illustrated below as (1) and (2) respectively:

(1) Move 1 Introduction Lexical knowledge is an important predictor of school success. **Move 2 Purpose** The present study focuses on aspects of the lexical knowledge of bilingual children in both their L1 and L2. **Move 3 Methods** It not only compares the amount of knowledge they have but also deals with qualitative aspects of their lexical knowledge. Data were obtained from 40 bilingual Turkish-Dutch children (9-and 11-year-olds) living in the Netherlands. These children were asked to explain the meaning of some common Dutch and Turkish nouns in an extended word definition task. The meaning aspects the children mentioned in their responses were analysed according to a classification scheme (cf.Verhallen and Schoonen 1993). **Move 4 Results** It turns out that there are important differences between the available lexical knowledge in L1 and L2: children allot to L1 words less extensive and less varied meaning aspects than to L2 words, L2 being the language of education. **Move 5 Conclusions** These findings are added to earlier findings that the L2 knowledge of bilingual Turkish children lags behind that of monolingual Dutch children. The overall conclusions that the L1 knowledge of the bilingual children cannot counterbalance their poor lexical knowledge in L2. Some educational implications are discussed.

The first abstract (1) starts with some short background information, followed by the purpose statement. Further, the author informs the reader about the methods used and the results of the study. The move of the conclusions starts with relating the findings of the particular research to earlier findings and finishes with the sentence, introduced by the phrase *the overall conclusions*.

(2) Move 1 Purpose This study sought to investigate the impact of peer revision on writers' final drafts in two rhetorical modes, narration and persuasion, among 14 Spanish-speaking ESL college students. Two questions were addressed: (1) How were revisions made in peer sessions incorporated by writers in their final versions? (2) How were trouble sources revised according to different language aspects (content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics)? **Move 2 Method** An analysis of audiotape interactions, first drafts, and final drafts **Move 3 Results** revealed that 74 per cent of revisions made in the peer sessions were incorporated. In addition, writers made many further and self revisions after the sessions. These revisions suggest a pattern of behaviour conductive to self-regulation among writers. Results also show that students focused equally on grammar and content when revising in the narrative mode and predominantly on grammar in the persuasive mode. Organization was the least attended aspect in either mode. Only 7 per cent of false repairs were found overall. **Move 4 Conclusions** The study suggests that peer assistance can help L2 intermediate learners realize their potential for effective revision, to the extent their linguistic abilities permit. It is the authors' belief that peer revision should be seen as an important complementary source of feedback in the ESL classroom.

The second text (2) follows Bhatia's model, as it offers a clear purpose in the first sentence. The next sentence informs the reader about the research questions addressed in the study. The methods move contains a very brief information about the methodology employed, immediately followed by an informative results move. Finally, the author provides the conclusions.

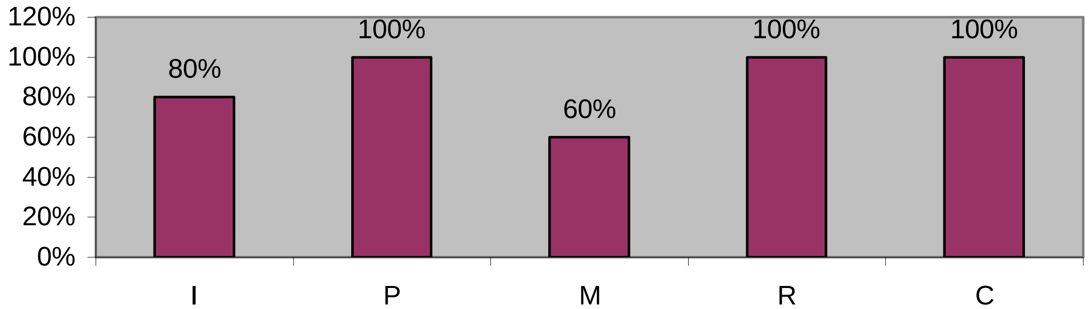
The abstracts above can be considered as representative samples of the models; however, not all the analysed abstracts were prototypical samples. Let us consider the example below which can be viewed as a generic variation of the Swales' model:

(3) Move 1 Introduction/ background Dating back to the early 80s, the FL/SL literature on learner strategies and on self-directed language learning documents an ongoing recognition of the need to help language learners reflect upon and refine their beliefs and knowledge about learning. i.e. their metagognitive knowledge. To date, however, this literature has not been explicit about the function of this knowledge in language learning. **Move 2 Purpose** This article reviews selected theoretical and research literature on metacognition to address this lack. **Move 4 Results** It argues that insights provided by the review can enhance our understanding of those approaches to second language acquisition which assign an active role to the learner, and **Move 5 Conclusions** concludes with a consideration of practical implications for foreign and second language instruction.

The third abstract (3) contains a relatively long introduction/ background to the study, providing the reader with a context for the study, followed by an indication to the gap in the available research, which is supposed to be the functional move of the introduction (see below). A purpose statement and indication to the results of the study follow. As it can be seen, the writer has omitted the methods move. The conclusion move is introduced by the verb *concludes*; however, the writer leaves it for the reader to find out the conclusions himself by reading the whole RP.

As it is shown in Figure 3.3 below, the majority, i.e. 80 per cent of the analysed abstracts employed Swales' model, i.e. Introduction-Purpose-Methods-Results-Conclusions moves. Out of the five moves, the methods move seems to be the least favoured, as it was only used by 60 per cent of the authors.

Figure 3.3 **Comparative Analysis of Rhetorical Moves in Abstracts**



Taking into account the results of the comparative analysis of the rhetorical moves in the abstracts, we may conclude that the IMRAD model is preferred in the journal.

In general, the tendency of research writing in English is towards conformity because native and non-native users of the language around the world are interested in publishing their research in the English-speaking publications, where rigid conventions and standards exist. The decision of whether to accept the paper for publishing is often taken on the grounds of the conformity of the abstract with the accepted conventions. Therefore, it is very important for the novice researchers to be able to write abstracts in English that would match the institutional and international disciplinary community's schemata.

The communicative purpose of the abstract is also achieved by a number of linguistic means. For example, it is accomplished by the use of the simple past (Graetz, 1985; Salager-Mayer, 1992 in Hyland 2000: 65), which is employed in order to report on the conducted research. Similarly, McCarthy et al., (1994: 101) argues that the abstract is characterized by the use of the past simple except the concluding sentence, which projects forward to *future research* and by the absence of the continuous aspect of verbs. Graetz (ibid.) claims that the use of the passive is a typical feature of the abstract. Table 3.12 below shows the use of verb phrases in the sub-genre. It can be seen from the table that the present simple is used in Move 1, e.g. to refer to the topic under investigation and the state of knowledge in the field. The present simple is also used in Move 5 in order to suggest that the proposition is true regardless of time. However, the past simple is preferred in Moves 2-4 since the writers are supposed to report on the purpose, methods, and results of the research conducted in the past.

1. Background / topic	Present simple
2. Purpose or scope	Past simple or Present perfect
3. Methods	Past simple, Passive voice
4. Results	Past simple
5. Conclusions	Present simple, Modal verbs (could, may, might) Adverbs indicating tentativeness (possibility)

Table 3.12 **Recurrent Linguistic Features of Abstract (Kramina, 2000: 139)**

The agentless passive (Biber et al.) is preferred in the abstract because it is not important to specify the agent: the reader already knows the author of the RP from the title page. To illustrate, the sentence below contains the agent of the noun phrase *the author of this paper,* which does not seem to be necessary:

The author of this paper highlights the wide perspectives for English philologists based on the research of contemporary requirements in Latvian labour market. (A5)

Moreover, the usage of the passive voice gives the topic status to the subject of the sentence, thus giving prominence to the propositional content of the sentences. In the sentence below, the noun phrase *the respondents' answers* has become the topic of the sentence:

The respondents' answers were analysed and summarized. (BA45)

Besides, the usage of the passive voice gives the sense of objectivity, which is characteristic of scientific register. One might claim that by the *moves* we restrict rather than encourage the students to express the ideas they want to communicate. However, we would like to argue that the students need to become aware of how English research writing differs from their first language, by introducing them to the conventions of writing RPs at the beginning of their academic studies and providing them with a more detailed work on the rhetorical structures and language used in writing different sections of the thesis, including the introduction.

The communicative function of the introduction is to introduce a lengthy discourse without mentioning everything reported in the RP; however, a discipline or academic community may affect the way introductions are structured.

Thus, the introduction shows the relevance of a particular research by placing it in the context of the previous research in a particular field of study. It is considered to be a very important function pertaining to introductions, which cannot be often found in abstracts (Bhatia, 1998: 82). In his original work on article introductions, Swales (1981) suggested four identifiable stages or basic *moves* for a typical article introduction that was later (1990) called Research Space Model for Article Introductions (see Figure 3.4). Each *move* points to a communicative purpose, which contributes to the general communicative purpose of the introduction, and gives it a cognitive structure.

Move 1: Establishing the research field either by
- a) asserting centrality of the topic, or
- b) stating current knowledge, or
- c) ascribing key characteristics.

Move 2: **Summarizing previous research** can be done by using
- a) a strong author-orientation and/or
- b) a weak author orientation and/or
- c) a subject orientation.

Move 3: **Preparing for present research** can be accomplished by
- b) indicating a gap (in previous research) or
- c) question-raising (about previous research) or
- d) extending a finding.

Move 4: **Introducing the present research** can be realized by
- a) stating the purpose of present research;
- b) outlining the present research.

Figure 3.4 **Swales' Research Space Model for Article Introductions (1981)**

In his later version developed in 1990 (see Figure 3.5 below), Swales introduced the concept *step*, which '… is a lower level text unit than the "move" that provides a detailed perspective on the options open to the writer in setting out the moves in the introduction' (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998: 89), and which takes into consideration the writers' rhetorical or social purposes in structuring and wording introductions.

In his CARS model, Swales has combined Moves 1 and 2 of the Research Space Model into a single move: establishing a territory because of the obvious difficulty to separate Move 1 and Move 2.

	SWALES model
Move 1	**Establishing a territory**
Step 1	Claiming centrality and/or
Step 2	Making topic generalizations 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 1	Outlining purposes or
Step 1b	Announcing present research
Step 2	Announcing principal findings
Step 3	Indicating research article structure

Figure 3.5 **CARS Model for Article Introductions (Swales, 1990)**

The communicative function of **Move 1** is to introduce the research field by showing that the particular research area is relevant, interesting or problematic in some way and by introducing items of previous research in the field. Thus, **Move I** is intended to provide a context for the study. It might deal with the developments and changes in the society that made the problem seem important or it might focus on the developments of the relevant field that made the issue seem worth studying or new methods and theories that needed testing. **Move 2** aims at establishing a niche by indicating a gap in the previous research, raising a question about it, counter-claiming, and/or extending previous knowledge in some way. The purpose of **Move 3** is to occupy the niche by stating the purposes or the nature of the relevant research, and/or indicating the structure of the dissertation. Thus, here the writer states the significance of the research problem, indicates the research method used and the population of the research, followed by the outline of the RP.

There have been few other attempts to design rhetorical structure of the introduction, e.g. Dudley-Evans has developed a six-move structure of M. Sc. dissertation introductions (see Figure 3.6 below).

Move 1: Introducing the field
Move 2: Introducing the general topic (within the field)
Move 3: Introducing the particular topic (within the general topic)
Move 4: Defining the scope of the particular topic by
- (i) introducing research parameters
- (ii) summarizing previous research

Move 5: Preparing for present research by
- (i) indicating a gap in previous research
- (ii) indicating a positive extension of previous research

Move 6: Introducing present research by
- (i) stating the aim of the research or
- (ii) describing briefly the work carried out
- (iii) justifying the research

Figure 3.6 **M. Sc. Dissertation Introduction Model (Dudley-Evans, 1986)**

In fact, the main difference between Swales' model (Figure 3.5) and Dudley-Evans' model (Figure 3.6) seems to be the fact that the latter has divided the introductory move *establishing field* in three separate moves. It can be explained by the fact that introductions to students' theses are long in comparison with introductions to research articles because of literature review included in it. Bhatia (1998: 98) seems to be critical to the way Dudley-Evans identifies the first three moves since he argues that it is not easy to decide whether these three stages should be regarded as sub-moves of the same move or as separate moves.

Although recognizing the importance of the genre approach to structuring RPs, there has been certain criticism of it. For example, Widdowson (1983) disagreed with a close relationship between form and function in teaching writing on the basis of moves. Bazerman (1988) and Myers (1990) have criticized the initial work on moves since it did not take into consideration the institutional context in which academic papers are written.

Dixon (1987 in Reid, 2000) has argued that by teaching moves we are imposing an over-rigid model of writing, which restricts writers' expression of ideas. On the contrary, Hart (1986) in Bhatia (1998: 40) underlines that genre analysis is 'pattern seeking rather than pattern imposing'. However, as a result of this constructive criticism, nowadays genre analysis talks of tendencies rather than of certain fixed patterns that are to be conformed to. Nevertheless, Swales' CARS model has had an important impact on the way RP introductions are written. Therefore, it has been used as a device facilitating the study of research writing within the discipline of applied linguistics at the FML. We have followed Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998: 93) suggestion to view the moves in 'a flexible manner' according to the communicative purposes and already existing conventions of the disciplinary discourse community. Dudley-Evans (www6) argues that some changes in the moves and the structures used to express these moves need to be acknowledged. Hence, we have made certain changes to the Swales' model.

The main rhetorical elements that we have identified are: the general background of the study, the significance of the problem, the goal of the research paper, the enabling objectives, the hypothesis, the subjects/participants/population, the research context or site, the methods of the research, the outline of the chapters (for a detailed analysis see Chapter 5). Although it has been argued that the indication of methodology and data collection techniques is paramount to abstracts, and they are rarely used in article introductions (Bhatia, 1998: 82), we have included these elements in the introduction too. However, the results of the reported research are not expected to be disclosed in the introduction. The changes made to the Swales' model reflect the research paper writing traditions at the FML and the UL. For instance, the FHPh, LU (Grasmane, 1998: 22) asks students to state the topicality and scientific value of the problem under investigation, to formulate the aim and the enabling objectives, and to substantiate the structure of the RP. DU, the English Philology Department (Sardiko, 2004: 37-38) envisages the following elements: the rationale, the aim and objectives, the research question(s) and the hypothesis, the methods of research and research tools, a brief review of the literature, and the outline of the chapters. Vilnius University follows CARS Model for Article Introductions (2005: 20-22).

Bhatia (1998) draws our attention to the cognitive structuring of the two sub-genres: the abstract and the introduction and argues that only the last move of the introduction reappears as Move 1 of the abstract as introducing a purpose. He claims that it is necessary since an abstract can be used alone, without a RP. If we compare the two sub-genres, we can see that despite the fact that they are associated with the same research setting, including the background knowledge that the two sub-genres assume on the part of their readership, and that they use the same written mode and have the same formal scientific style, they differ in terms of their communicative purposes; and therefore, they should have different generic structures. An abstract is an accurate summary of the whole paper; however, a RP introduction only introduces a paper without revealing everything that is reported in a RP. The main function of an introduction is to place the present research in the context of previous research in a particular field of study. However, there is no place for discussion of the previous research in abstracts.

It has been already argued earlier that genres are not fixed and unchanging, and that underlying different genres there are certain key prototypical linguistic features, not all of which need to be present in one text. Thus, generic knowledge entails the ability to adjust the language according to field, tenor and mode since registers vary according to the contexts where they are used; however, they are field-specific, which can be identified, e.g. with reference to the lexical items used. Hence, in order to achieve the pragmatic aims of research, the disciplinary community's constraints should be taken into consideration, which are unlikely to influence substantially the global communicative purpose of a specific sub-genre.

Lecturers need to know where the student is starting from and aiming for in the process of learning. The students' awareness of the genres and sub-genres that they have to write for their institutions and the linguistic awareness of the language used to express the rhetoric of the RPs should be raised, gradually fostering their ability to produce the texts that seem to be well-formed and structured in order to meet the expectations of the members of the disciplinary discourse community they belong to. Since the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* only gives a basic introduction to the conventions of academic and research paper writing, the students are provided with a more extensive practice on the issue in the support activities of the relevant competence.

3. 4 Literature Review as Integral Part of Research Papers

As it is specified in our framework (Figure 3.7), reading for research takes place at least twice in the process leading to the defense of the BA thesis. The undergraduate students are expected to do preliminary reading in order to limit the scope of their research. Essentially, they would take notes and compile a working bibliography. They would have to review the relevant literature for the second time in order to define a research problem, a question or a hypothesis and to establish aims and enabling objectives of the research. They would take notes by summarizing, paraphrasing and quoting the parts of texts of relevance to their research. The students are expected to show familiarity with the main theories in the subject area, provide an analytical and critically evaluative stance to the existing literature on the topic. The literature review provides a general background, an overview of a topic, and places a research question in context, i.e. one finds out what others have said about the problem. Hart (2002) defines literature review as:

> The selection of available documents (both published and unpublished) on the topic, which contain information, ideas, data and evidence written from a particular standpoint to fulfil certain aims or express certain views on the nature of the topic and how it is to be investigated, and the effective evaluation of these documents in relation to the research being proposed. (Hart, 2002: 13)

It is obvious that the literature review is central to the thesis since its main functions are as follows: it gives reasons why the topic is of sufficient importance for it to be researched; it demonstrates the students' familiarity with and understanding of relevant research on their topic and the related theory; it provides a theoretical framework for the research (Blaxter et al., 2001: 123). It is argued that the function and format of the undergraduate literature review is, '…essentially descriptive, topic focused; mostly indicative of main current sources on the topic. Analysis is of the topic in terms of justification' (Hart, 2002: 15).

The review of the relevant literature in research papers may occur either as a separate chapter or chapters called *The Literature Review*, or it may be incorporated into the wider text or integrated throughout the whole work as the need for comparison and evaluation arises (Swales et al., 2000: 115). Whatever form the literature review takes, studying literature will help the students acquire sufficient knowledge of the subject area along with comprehending the significance of the work done in the field by becoming acquainted with the latest research and debate on the topic. Moreover, in order to engage authoritatively with the knowledge gained from reading literature and listening to lectures, the students have to refer to various sources in their research papers in order to validate their arguments.

Reading to integrate information (Alderson et.al, 1984; Grellet, 1991) requires making decisions about the relative importance of the information: what information to integrate and how to integrate it. Explicit reference to specific authors and their work is an essential element of scientific discourse, as it demonstrates the relevance of the investigated problem. More recently, citation analysis has become a recognized topic in applied linguistics (e.g. Hyland, 2002b, 2000; Thompson and Tribble, 2001; Thompson and Ye, 1991; Swales, 1990) because of the essential functions of using sources in the RP:

- to indicate that one has researched an issue (Reid, 2000: 252; Jordan, 1990: 79);
- to indicate that one is aware of what the authorities have said on the topic (Jordan, ibid.), (Thompson and Tribble, ibid.), and to place the writer's claims within a larger disciplinary framework;
- to give more authority to a point of view, argument, etc. in the paper by referring to published work (Reid, ibid.; Jordan, ibid.);
- to give an example of something, or to give evidence, information or data (Jordan, ibid.);
- to help one's writing look sufficiently academic (Jordan, ibid.);
- to show the novelty of one's work (Hyland, 2000);
- to indicate that research is replicable (Baltins, 2003; Veisbergs, 2003).

Most of the notes students make from reading the texts will take the form of direct quotation, paraphrase and summary, which are included in essays, reports, and research papers. Students repeating the ideas and words of other authors will refer to them twice: once in the body of the paper (in-text citations), and once at the end of the paper (end-of-text citations) in the bibliography in order to enable the reader to find the cited material. The FML has adopted the Harvard System of referencing, as it is used principally in linguistics and applied linguistics. It is important for the students to acquire the competence of source attribution, which often causes problems to most novice writers (Borg, 2000; Campbell, 1990 in Thompson et al., 2001) since the students may be tempted to copy straight from materials because they might think that they cannot write as well as the original writer or that they can get a better mark for their written assignment, or they may overwhelm their own point of view. However, copying directly from another writer and pretending that their words and phrases are their own may result in plagiarism, which may have serious consequences. The students can avoid it by using the correct methods for referencing, i.e. in-text citations (quoting, paraphrasing) and end-of text citations (the bibliography). Moreover, inexpert phrasing of reporting statements may result in the misinterpretation of the author's stance.

The author's experience as an academic advisor and the research conducted by a number of applied linguists (Williams 2004; Thompson and Tribble 2001; Hyland 1999, 2000; Swales 2000; Jordan 1990) indicate that students are not often able to balance the use of quotations and paraphrases from the work of others with an evaluative comment of their own. Therefore, the next sub-chapter will review relevant research into quotations, paraphrases/summaries and generalisations.

3.4.1 Presentation of Cited Work

There are different recommendations provided in reference materials for students (e.g. Swales and Feak 1994; 2000; Jordan 1999; Hyland 2000; Thomson and Tribble 2001) regarding the citations. Their research shows disciplinary differences in the frequency of the usage of citations. For example, on average there are 70 citations per paper, with the applied linguistics having 75.3 citations but physics having 24.8 citations per paper (Hyland, 2000: 24). The overall tendency is that soft sciences use more citations than hard sciences.

Several types of in-text citations have been specified: block quotations, direct quotations, paraphrases, summaries, and generalizations. Although quotations and paraphrases and summaries may have the same functions in research papers, the difference between them is that when quoting someone, the exact words of the author are used either indented for longer quotations or are included between quotation marks for shorter quotations. If used at all, the quotations should be as short as possible by quoting only the essential part of what the author says, and the students' comments are equally important or sometimes even more important to the reader. Therefore, students should be able to assess the value of a quotation before they copy it and to quote only if:

- The author's style and wording is so distinctive that they could not say the same thing as well or as clearly in their own words without weakening the meaning (Perrin, 1990: 488; Lunsford,1992: 568-569);

- The vocabulary is technical and, therefore, difficult to paraphrase (Perrin, ibid.);
- Respected authorities in the field whose opinions support the students' own ideas, and authors' opinions they wish to emphasize and/or if they challenge or vary greatly from those of others in the field (Lunsford, ibid.).

Depending on the purposes, the students may summarize background information but quote statements that support their views. However, they should quote only if the original statement is forceful, well written, or contains ideas that are so controversial that they feel it is best that the exact words of the author are used so that there can be no misunderstanding.

A pair of quotation marks ('…') surrounds direct speech, in order to show that the writer is using the exact words of the author. Within a sentence, a comma usually precedes the direct quotation, and the first word of the direct quotation is capitalized. The full stop comes before the final quotation marks. For example,

> *According to Swales (2000: 114), 'Successful academic writing depends in part on situating current work within a larger disciplinary context.'* *

In the sentence above, the author is identified in the sentence; therefore, his name does not appear in the parentheses. If a direct quotation is not introduced, and it involves only a part of the sentence, a comma does not precede the direct quotation, and the first word of the direct quotation is not capitalized because the quotation is part of the existing sentence. The full stop comes after the citation in parentheses.

> *…learner purposes can be viewed on a continuum between 'achievement orientation' and 'survival orientation' (Breen, 1987: 26).**

As it can be seen from above, when paraphrasing and summarizing, reference has to be made to the source. Therefore, it is essential that the students record the author, title, and the page number(s) on which the original material appeared while reading and making notes. Block quotations are direct quotations of more than 40 words (about three lines). They must be separated from the main text, indented 5 spaces, and used without quotation marks. The sentence introducing the quotation must be followed by a colon. For example, *...which is at the heart of Swales's concept of genre:*

> *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 [...] (Swales 1990: 58)**

*Murphy, J. (2003) 'Task-based learning: the interaction between tasks and learners.' *ELT Journal,* 57(4): 352-359

With the help of paraphrasing and/or summarizing, the students can make the ideas fit into their individual writing style, which requires proficiency in the linguo-functional research competence. When summarizing, an extended idea or argument (e.g. a passage, a section, a chapter, and a whole work) is condensed into a sentence or several sentences in the writer's own words. Therefore, students have to read the text critically to identify the author's key points, as the summary does not contain all the details of the original text because the essential nature of summary is '*conciseness, objectivity*, and *completeness*' (Fowler et al. 1989: 126), which corresponds to the Grice's maxims. Passages that students do not wish to quote, but whose details they wish to note fully should be paraphrased. A paraphrase accurately states all the relevant information from a passage in one's own words and sentence structures, without any elaboration. Unlike a summary, a paraphrase always restates all the main points of the passage and any important details in the same order in which they were presented and in about the same number of words.

A paraphrase can be done by changing the vocabulary (verbs/nouns), the verb form (from active to passive), the word class (from a verb to a noun phrase), by synthesis, i.e. combining two or more opinions or pieces of information (Jordan, 1999: 93-94). However, too much of the original text is sometimes left intact. Moreover, students often tend to imitate the author's style, substitute synonyms, add their comments and even distort the author's meaning. Many processes involved in paraphrasing and summarizing are similar, and without seeing the original source, it is difficult to decide whether the text is a paraphrase or a summary. Since it was not possible to examine the original texts, this research does not differentiate between the concepts *paraphrase* and *summary*.

The last type of in-text quotations is generalization or combining several sources.

> *Other practitioners have either used Swales's CARS model,..., specifically the introduction and discussion sections (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans 1988, Kusel 1992, Dudley-Evans 1994, Jacoby et al. 1995).**

Swales et al. (2000: 132) argue that problems are often caused by *hanging citations* since they can be ambiguous, for example:

> *The causes of illiteracy have been widely investigated (Ferrara 1990; Hyon 1994; Jones 1987).***

* Murphy, J. (2003) 'Task-based learning: the interaction between tasks and learners', *ELT Journal* 57(4): 352-359

**Flowerdew, L. (2000) 'Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing', *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 367-377

The present example is not ambiguous because it seems that all the authors cited have done the research. However, the following sentence *The causes of illiteracy have been widely investigated (Clement 1993).** seems to be unclear since we cannot know whether Clement is the leading researcher in his field, or he is only a commentator.

Hyland (2000: 24) has researched the above-mentioned types in eight disciplines. As it is shown in Table 3.13 below, there seems to be little disciplinary variation in the usage of citation types. The summary is certainly preferred by all disciplines, with the generalization comprising most of the rest. Block quotations seem to be used very rarely and only in soft sciences, e.g. they appear only in 2 per cent of texts in applied linguistics. Sociology and applied linguistics have the highest percentage of citations in the form of quotations from other authors' work, i.e. 8 per cent.

Discipline	Quotation	Block Quotation	Summary	Generalization
Biology	0	0	72	38
Physics	0	0	68	32
Electrical engineering	0	0	66	34
Mechanical engineering	0	0	67	33
Marketing	3	2	68	27
Applied linguistics	**8**	**2**	**67**	**23**
Sociology	8	5	69	18
Philosophy	2	1	89	8

Table 3.13 **Percentage for Each Citation Option According to Discipline (Hyland, 2000: 24)**

Similarly, Swales et al. (2000: 145) have observed that it is typical of applied linguists to quote short memorable phrases from the reviewed literature. Swales (1981), who has initiated the study of citation analysis in applied linguistics, has classified citations into integral and non-integral citations. Integral citations focus the attention on the researcher; the cited author is part of the syntax of the cited sentence.

*Bhatia (1993) provides examples of materials to familiarize students with…**
*The best-known approach to the analysis and teaching of professional and academic discourse is probably that taken by Swales (1990).**

Non-integral citations focus on the research; the cited author is in brackets, and he does not have an explicit grammatical role within a sentence.

*Flowerdew, L. (2000) 'Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing', *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 367-377

According to Thompson and Tribble (2001), the main function of non-integral citations is to attribute a proposition to another author. The citation serves as evidence for this proposition, and the writer can agree to it or disagree and thus provide a counter argument.

*It has also been pointed out (Paltridge 1996) that the generic move structure in a section of academic writing…**

Table 3.14 below shows the relative percentage of integral and non-integral types of citation in Hyland (2000). From the table it can be seen that the usage of citations varies between disciplines, philosophy being the only one that favours the integral form (64.6%). Writers in applied linguistics seem to prefer non-integral (65.6%) to integral citations (34.4%), thus emphasizing the proposition rather than the author.

Discipline	**Non-integral**	**Integral**
Biology	90.2	9.8
Physics	83.1	16.9
Electrical engineering	84.3	15.7
Mechanical engineering	71.3	28.7
Marketing	70.3	29.7
Applied linguistics	**65.6**	**34.4**
Sociology	64.6	35.4
Philosophy	35.4	64.6

Table 3.14 **Ratios of Non-Integral to Integral Citations by Discipline in Hyland (2000)**

Thompson and Tribble (ibid.) hold that in longer texts (e.g. dissertations), the integral form is likely to be used more often. In non-integral citations, the cited text can implicitly control a verb (e.g. 'It has been claimed (Brown 2000)…'). In integral citations, the cited author or text control a verb; thus, extra choices are provided for the writer as to which reporting verb to use and which tense and voice to employ.

Overt reference to experts in the discipline or the field of research is an essential feature of research writing, as it helps the students establish 'a persuasive epistemological and social framework for the acceptance of their arguments' (Hyland, 2000: 22). The students need to convince the readers that their RPs are grounded in a shared theoretical

*Flowerdew, L. (2000) 'Using a genre-based framework to teach organizational structure in academic writing', *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 367-377 framework in order to show that their arguments are reliable. Williams (2004: 256) points out that in

> academic paraphrasing and summarizing tasks, the proper choice of verb frequently makes an enormous contribution toward the twin goals of accuracy and adequacy, and it serves students well to control whatever means are available to achieve both goals.

Thus, the students must take into consideration the likely reactions of the readers and select the means and ways of attributing the propositional content of the BA papers to another source.

Although many verbs may have more than one meaning, the process verbs can be classified into the following semantic categories according to the type of activity referred to: 1) research verbs denote mental and physical processes related to research work, e.g. study, question, observe, report, investigate, process, design, elicit, modify, evaluate, discover, notice, show, analyse, calculate, assay, explore, find, isolate, demonstrate, quantify, obtain, measure.

Since research verbs are often used to describe research activities: experimental procedures, observation, findings, they are usually used in the past. When referring to research methods and analysis, they are commonly used in the passive voice (Biber, 2003: 171).

The frequency of words' occurrence was calculated and analysed. (BA40)

2) discourse acts or activity verbs are concerned with verbal expression, e.g. ascribe, discuss, hypothesize, state, suggest, comment, argue, challenge, report, conclude; (dis)agree, stipulate, emphasize, claim, view, point out, note.

Discourse act verbs are used to describe the current knowledge in the discipline; and therefore, they are usually used in the present.

3) cognition acts or mental verbs refer to mental processes and describe a state rather than an action, e.g. believe, conceptualize, think, consider, suspect, view, understand, prefer. (based on Hyland, 2000; Thompson and Ye, 1991).

Thus, in view of the nature of research in applied linguistics, we would expect students to use discourse act verbs, but when reporting on the results of empirical research or the results of the research obtained by some other researcher to use research act verbs. The choice of reporting verbs can be explained by the research perspective used in soft and hard sciences. Hard sciences would mostly use a quantitative type of research, which would involve precise measurement; therefore, they would prefer research act verbs. On the contrary, soft sciences would often use a qualitative type of research that would require explicit examination and interpretation of relationships and variables, which often tend to depend on context. The persuasive purpose of arguments can be achieved through synthesizing past research and presenting evidence to support claims; therefore, the choice of reporting verbs facilitates qualitative arguments. However, Hyland's (2000: 28) research shows that discourse act verbs are preferred by all disciplines 57.6 per cent cf. with 33.5 per cent of research verbs and 8.9 per cent cognition act verbs. The writers in applied linguistics display a preference for discourse act verbs (59.0%) if compared with cognition act verbs (10.5%) and research act verbs (30.5%).

In Hyland's corpus of 80,000 words from 80 research articles (ibid.: 27), over 400 different reporting verbs are used to introduce the citations; however, nearly half of them are used only once. Soft disciplines have employed a higher number of reporting verbs than hard disciplines cf. 44.4 per cent of use in applied linguistics with 27.0 per cent of use in physics. As it can be seen in Table 3.15 below, the discourse verbs *argue* and *suggest* are among the highest frequency verbs in soft sciences, whereas the discourse verbs *report* and *describe* are often used in hard sciences.

Discipline	Verbs
Biology	Describe find report show suggest observe
Physics	Develop report study find expand
Electrical engineering	Propose use describe show publish develop
Mechanical engineering	Describe show report discuss give develop
Marketing	Suggest argue find demonstrate propose show
Applied linguistics	**Suggest argue show explain find point out**
Sociology	Argue suggest describe note analyse discuss
Philosophy	Say suggest argue claim point out hold think
Overall	Suggest argue find show describe propose report

Table 3.15 **High Frequency Reporting Verbs (Hyland, 2000)**

It may be inferred from the table that the prevailing category in applied linguistics is discourse act verbs: *suggest, argue, point out* and *explain*. For instance,

> *As Aljaafreh and Lantolf (1994) point out, effective feedback in the ZPD should be contingent on…the learners' specific needs and potential level of development.*

Show and *find* are research verbs, which most frequently occur in the empirical part of the RP or in other parts of the RP when referring to the research conducted by others:

> *Singleton (1987) found that L2 Spanish was the privileged source of transfer in the French IL of an English L1 speaker.*

It is observed that the students often overuse some reporting verbs (e.g. to say, to state, to tell, to think) or do not appreciate their functional role by misusing them (Karapetjana, 2005: 341). For example, Williams (2004: 248) argues the students are often unaware of the semantics of specific reporting verbs. Therefore, it is noteworthy that we consider the meaning of reporting verbs.

Reporting verbs can be classified into the *author act verbs*, which denote what the author has done and indicate his stance (attributing a position to the original author), and the *writer act verbs*, which denote the student writer's stance (adopting a personal stance) to the content in the text. Selecting appropriate reporting verbs, the students can show their neutral, positive or negative attitude towards the propositional content (Hyland 2000; Thompson and Ye, 1991). The verbs reporting the author's positive stance are, e.g. accept, emphasize, note, point out, subscribe to, posit, whereas the verbs reporting the author's negative stance are, e.g. attack, dismiss, dispute, oppose, question, reject.

A comprehensive taxonomy of reporting verbs has been proposed by Fowler and Aaron (1989: 584), who have classified the verbs introducing summaries, paraphrases, and quotations into the categories indicating the author's stance: the author being neutral, inferring or suggesting, arguing, agreeing, and being uneasy or disparaging (see Appendix 17). They argue that it is imperative that the students use verbs that convey information about the source author's attitude to what he/she is saying. The verbs reporting the (student) writer's stance can be divided into 1) factive verbs (the author is correct; the reported information is true), e.g. acknowledge, demonstrate, prove, throw light on, identify; 2) counter-factive verbs (the author is incorrect; the reported information is false), e.g. confuse, disregard, ignore; and 3) non-factive verbs (the writer does not express an opinion of the author's information), e.g. believe, claim, propose, use. The last category allows the student to assign an opinion to the author of the text, reporting the author to be as positive (e.g. argue, hold), neutral (e.g. report, comment), tentative (e.g. believe, suggest), and critical (e.g. object, refute) (Hyland 2000; Thompson and Ye, 1991). Williams (2004: 249) supports the necessity of differentiating the verbs within their functional groups and also explores the issue of factive vs non-factive dichotomy of reporting verbs (see Table 3.16 below).

Non-factive	***Factive***
Say [*believe*+PUBLICIZE]	Know [*believe* +FACT]
Claim [*say* +NON-EVIDENT]	Point out [*know*+PUBLICIZE]
Argue [*claim*+ SUPPORT]	Prove/demonstrate [*point out*+SUPPORT]
Assume [*believe*+NO SUPPORT]	Realize [PROCESS+*know*] (‘come to know’)
Suggest [*say*+ NOT CERTAIN]	Inform [*know*+PUBLICIZE+ NEW INFO TO HEARER]
Doubt [NOT *believe* +NOT CERTAIN]	Remind [*know*+PUBLICIZE+OLD
Be certain [*believe*+CERTAIN]	INFO TO HEARER]
Insist [*say*+CERTAIN]	Concede [*point out*+NOT
Deny [NOT *believe*+CERTAIN]	WILLINGLY]

Table 3.16 **Lexical Frames and Reported Speech (Williams, 2004)**

He distinguishes between *believing* something (non-factive), which may later turn out to be false and *knowing* something, which is a factual proposition, and thus it is the truth. Although Williams’ classification presents interest for this research, as it helps us see the difference between the *factive* and the *non-factive verbs*, it does not account for the counter-factive verbs. Therefore, we have grouped the evaluative category verbs in Table 3.17 (see below), which is based on the classifications discussed above. Our taxonomy differentiates between the factive, non-factive, and counter-factive verbs, each group performing an essential function in discourse. The non-factive verbs are further categorized into positive, neutral, tentative and critical reporting verbs.

Hyland's research shows that in 78.1 per cent of texts in applied linguistics, the writers use non-factive verbs cf. 20.0 per cent factive verbs. A much smaller number of writers use counter-factive verbs (1.9 per cent). If we analyse the results of Hyland's research (Table 3.15) using our taxonomy (Table 3.17), we can see that the writers in applied linguistics prefer factive and non-factive verbs to counter-factive ones.

Factive (knowledge or writer acceptance)	**Non-factive (belief or no clear signal)**				**Counter-factive (writer disagreement)**
	positive	**neutral**	**tentative**	**critical**	
Acknowledge Point out Establish Concede Prove Demonstrate Show Inform Throw light on Identify Know Realize Remind Find Report State Note	Advocate Argue Hold See Admit Assert	Illustrate Address Cite Comment Look at Explain Describe Present Observe Write	Allude to Believe Hypothesize Suggest Think Consider	Attack Condemn Object Refute	Fail Overlook Exaggerate Ignore Misuse Confuse Disregard

Table 3.17 **Taxonomy of Evaluative Reporting Verbs**

The writers do not seem to have any preference to either type, as they use an equal number of factive (show, find, point out) and non-factive (suggest, argue, explain) verbs. As to the non-factive verbs, tentative (suggest), positive (argue), and neutral (explain) verb types are employed. For example, the discourse act verb *suggest* is a non-factive verb since we use it to say something that is likely to exist or be true; the belief is not firm. Thus, it is used in reporting the author or idea that is tentative: In the example below, the tentativeness of the idea is even more emphasized by the modal verb *may.*

> *Others (e.g. Lamb 1995) have suggested that it may be worth asking participants to take part in exercises which will encourage them to reflect on their own teaching style.**

*Wolter B. (2000) 'A participant-centred approach to INSET course design', *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 311-318

The usage of the tense form in research writing is determined by rhetorical choice rather than by time lines (Lackstrom et al., 1972; Malcolm, 1987; Gunawardena, 1989; Salager-Meyer, 1992), and it seems to indicate tendencies rather than rules. Malcolm's (ibid.) research of tense meaning in research writing has found out that generalizations tend to be in the present simple, references to specific experiments in the past simple; references to areas of enquiry in the present perfect. Similarly, Swales (1990: 154) considers that tense choice may show the author's stance towards the cited work. Thus, the usage of the present perfect might imply closeness to the study, while the past simple may distance the writer from the cited work. In a later work, Swales et al. (2000: 158) hold that the present perfect is connected with generalizations (often hedged) about the literature, and that they 'tend to cluster in the earlier paragraphs and/or at the beginnings of paragraphs.' The choice of the verb tense may be determined by pragmatic considerations as well. For example, the present perfect could be used to draw from current literature and make information relevant to a specific finding in the student writer's research. To illustrate, let us consider the examples below:

(1) We will only highlight those that we have found particularly important for our understanding of classroom discourse… Vygotsky <u>suggests</u> how cultural knowledge.
(2) The term 'appropriation' <u>was</u> first <u>used</u> by Vygotsky's colleague Leontev (1981). Brown and Wragg's functional view of 'responding' <u>provided</u> an initial perspective on what teachers' responses may do.
*(3) They are here highlighting another concept we <u>have found</u> relevant in Vygotsky's work.**

As illustrated by sentence (1), the <u>present simple</u> may be used to claim the generality and relevance of the previous literature. It may also be used when the information is a generally accepted fact, or a part of the current knowledge. The <u>past simple</u> (2) can be used to claim non-generality about the previous literature; to refer to the previous research that does not bear directly on the current (the writer distances himself from it) or to refer to the research done at a point in the past. The <u>present perfect</u> (3) may be used to claim generality about the previous literature; to refer to the previous literature that is directly related to the current work.

* Jarvis, J. and M. Robinson (1997) 'Analysing Educational Discourse: An Exploratory Study of Teacher Response and Support to Pupils' Learning', *Applied Linguistics, 18(2):* 212-22

3.5 Model of Linguo-Functional Research Competence

The author of this paper proposes a competence-based multipurpose framework for the specification of the language that is required to conduct and write up research. As it can be seen from Figure 3.7 below, the LFRC consists of preparatory linguistic functions for research demonstrated through skills, which are mechanisms for sub-dividing the competence into manageable parts for development. Each preparatory linguistic function is undertaken to fulfil one or two resultant linguistic functions leading to the end product. The framework is multipurpose since it can be adapted to the requirements of other fields, e.g. the functions marked with * in Figure 3.7 may not be relevant for the students doing research in literature or linguistics; nevertheless, the fulfillment of the relevant functions leads to the end product acceptable by international research community in the given field.

Having entered the university, the students are immersed into listening to lectures, which may be their first encounter with academic spoken discourse in the target language, and they are expected to take notes to aid learning, understanding and recalling. While listening to lectures, the students take an interest in the topics and may decide to investigate them more thoroughly by reading relevant literature.

Moreover, they start applying the acquired subject knowledge and language in situations different from the original learning context (e.g. lectures). Reading takes place at different stages of research since there will be different purposes for it. For example, preliminary reading or reading at the beginning of research is done in order to identify a research topic, to find information and to see what other research has been done in the area in which the students intend to do research. Any topic the students choose to research must be manageable, i.e. it must suit the scope, length, and time limits set for working on their RPs, which often requires narrowing it. While reading the relevant literature, the students take notes from the material and compile a working bibliography.

A necessary prerequisite to primary research is secondary research, which consists of reviewing the literature in the given area. It entails critical reading of the research carried out by others in order to examine key theories, a range of views on the topic, interpreting of graphs and charts, evaluating and synthesizing claims and citations, distinguishing

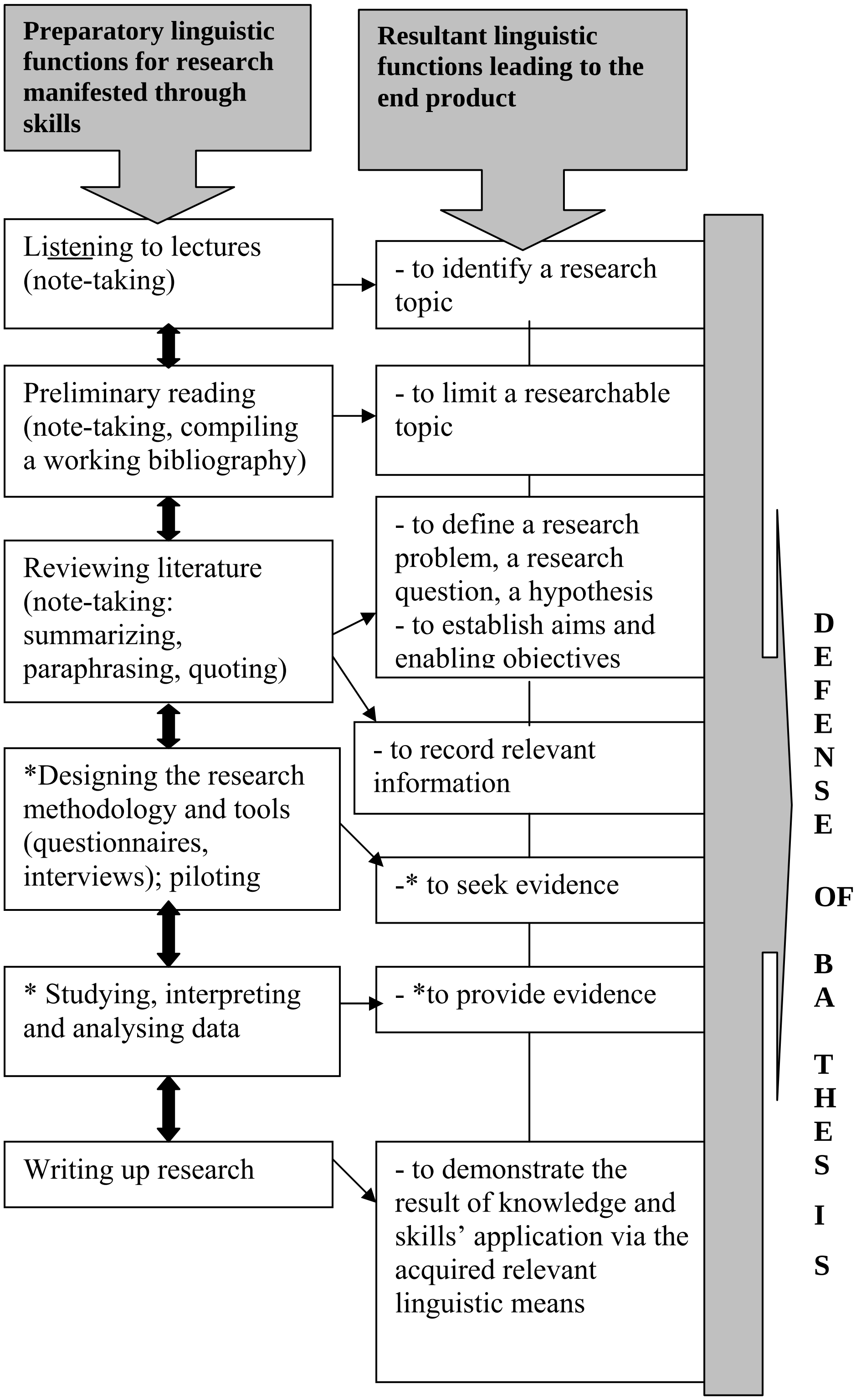


Figure 3.7 **Linguo-Functional Research Competence Manifested via Graduation Paper Leading to Relevant Degree**

facts from opinions. At this stage, the students take notes using summaries, paraphrases, and direct quotations, which is linguistically very demanding.

Limiting a researchable topic could be often achieved by formulating research questions to guide the research, which can be answered or considered through research data. The research questions may be tentatively answered by a hypothesis, a statement of what the students anticipate their research might show, which must be an arguable, a debatable proposition that can be proved or disproved by the research evidence. This stage entails the ability to state the aim and enabling objectives of research, word a hypothesis, discover important variables relevant to the topic. The author's seven-year experience of academic advisor reveals that understanding and wording a hypothesis cause problems to the students; therefore, it is paramount that they should be introduced with the concepts: *hypothesis*, *aims* and *objectives* of research already in the first year of their studies so that they can refine their understanding in the coming academic years.

The next stage involves the ability to design research methodology, the understanding of theory and research design, the ability to put the major concepts and methodological assumptions into practice by choosing an appropriate research method and tools to collect data and the ability to know how to collate results.

The next function entails comparing, ordering, classifying and analysing the information using appropriate linguistic means. When interpreting, the students examine a range of views on the topic in order to draw their own conclusions. When analyzing, they try to find a solution through the analysis of the received data and relevant sources. Interpreting and analyzing may serve either an explanatory or a persuasive purpose; however, they may also overlap.

Piloting, gathering, studying, interpreting, and analysing data result in conclusions using appropriate linguistic means of the target language. It would involve presenting the results of the empirical research graphically, describing and commenting on them. It would also entail knowing how to write a Bachelor thesis taking into consideration the generic peculiarities of this research genre. In the last stage, the undergraduate students demonstrate the result of knowledge and skills' application in discourse via relevant linguistic means acquired.

As it can be seen from above, the proposed multipurpose LFRC framework includes inter-related preparatory linguistic functions and resultant linguistic functions, which the students select, activate and coordinate in order to achieve a pragmatic result. The framework also embraces support activities realized at two levels: institutional and international contexts (see Figure 3.8 below).

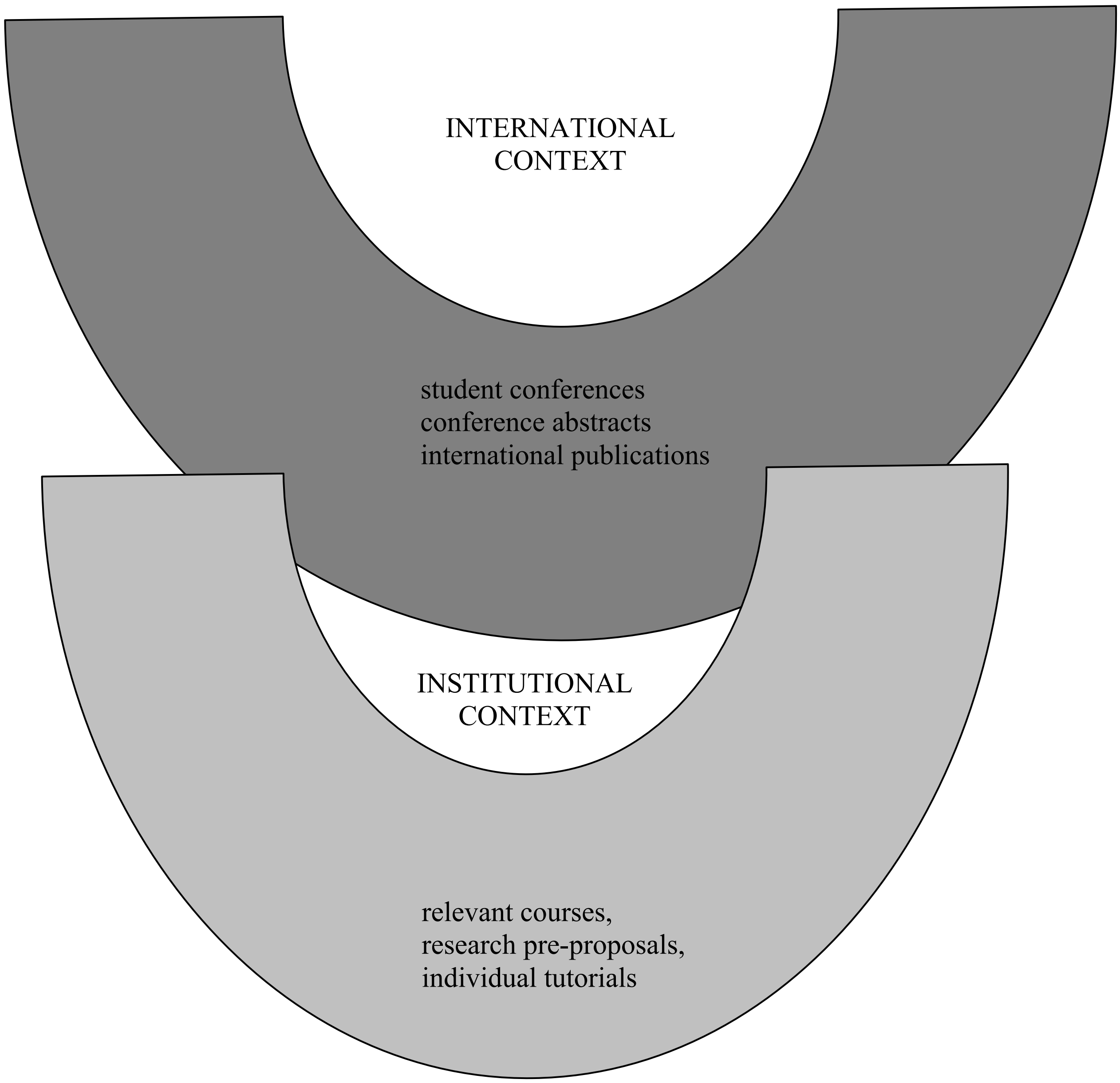


Figure 3.8 **Support Activities at Different Levels Embodied in Institutional and International Contexts Aimed at Linguo-Functional Research Competence Development**

Therefore, the relevant competence is developed throughout the academic studies with the help of support activities at different levels targeted at a LFRC development.

During the studies, the students perform a number of support activities, which are embodied in international context through the students' international publications, conference abstracts and participation in student conferences and in institutional context through a number of support activities, e.g. relevant courses, research pre-proposals, and individual tutorials. Term papers can also be viewed as research pre-proposals for their RPs since very often they result in comprehensive Bachelor papers. Moreover, the students further develop the relevant competence with the help of individual tutorials with their academic advisors. During these support activities, the students can focus on the written product, the social context and the subject matter. The advisors act as knowledgeable experts who can help a student successfully deal with formal linguistic choices and guide the students' performance of the preparatory and resultant linguistic functions in order to become independent researchers.

Consequently, by becoming familiar with the expectations of the target discourse community, the students are able to shape their domain-specific knowledge.

To conclude, a command of the LFRC involves the acquisition of the language needed to carry out specific functions for research purposes. Having fulfilled all the relevant functions, the students are expected to be able to write a RP and give an oral presentation on the results of their research. A successful result of the research, i.e. a research paper complying with the relevant conventions may differ since it is connected with a number of interrelated factors arising from the students' general communicative language competences and individual characteristics of a cognitive and linguistic nature that need to be taken into account in selecting the linguistic phenomena and sequencing the content of the study programme.

Interim summary

The theoretical foundation of this chapter has been grounded in the Prague school's concept of language as a functional system and the London school's Systemic Functional Linguistics theory that have made an important contribution into the ways in which information is structured within texts to accomplish coherent prose. The theories have been explored as resources for the analysis of texts in the context of English for research purposes, which has allowed us to analyse linguistic phenomena with regard to their communicative functions. It has been argued in the chapter that information structuring is applied to oral and written sentences alike.

1. Metadiscourse is integral to the spoken and written discourse as it performs two language functions:

   1) the textual function, which helps to form a cohesive and coherent text thus facilitating its production and comprehension;
   2) the interpersonal function, which helps to convey the addressor's attitude towards the propositional content.

2. Adverbial modifiers perform an important textual function in the spoken and written discourse by contributing to the cohesion and coherence of texts.

3.The avoidance of the first person singular pronoun *I* to refer to the author of the written text contributes to objectivity.

4. Hedging has been analysed taking into consideration the interpersonal function of the language with an emphasis on a communicative situation:

- Hedging is a pragmatic phenomenon, the use and functions of which are only discernible by analyzing the strategy in a particular context. It is a useful linguistic tool for research writing, which is also linked to politeness phenomena.

Thus, being a member of the same discourse community, a student should be aware of the addressees' expectations in terms of disciplinary knowledge and the LFRC and has to apply metadiscourse elements by making use of the necessary changes to the information flow.

This chapter has also focused on the work arising from the genre theories and has viewed genres as text types that are defined by recurrent formal structural and linguistic properties and communicative purposes. The move-based models (the ESP School of Genre) of the genre of the research paper and its sub-genres: the abstract and the introduction have been used as the prototypes and have been adopted for the purposes of this research since they are common to all academic disciplines, and they allow certain variations in the patterns in order to suit rhetorical purposes of a particular discourse community.

It has been argued that the students should produce RPs that comply with the academic conventions of the relevant discourse community in the institutional and international contexts in order to communicate their research more successfully. The students need both a rhetorical awareness of the research genre and a linguistic awareness of the range of relevant linguistic forms that can be used to express the rhetoric of the RPs they write. However, in order to achieve it, they have to be aware of the generic conventions of the genre and its sub-genres in the wider sense of the communicative events. This is paramount to the understanding and production of RPs since it clarifies the communicative goals of the relevant disciplinary discourse community.

The chapter has shown that the literature review helps to find out the key sources, the major issues and debates on the topic, the key theories, concepts and ideas, the main questions and problems that have been addressed to date. The reader of the thesis expects to see the literature review as representing the sum of the current knowledge on the researched topic. Moreover, it provides a particular support for the writer, as it helps define a research question, to develop a hypothesis. Hence, the relevance of the preparatory linguistic functions for research manifested through the skill of reading.

Research into the recent theories developed by Thompson and Tribble 2001, Hyland 2000, Swales 2000 on the issue of source attribution has helped us reveal the types of citations, the categories of verbs and their functions in the students' research papers used in the relevant discipline in order to meet the epistemological and social criteria of the discipline.

Different types of citations have to be acknowledged with correct reference conventions in the body of the text and listed at the end of the text. Reporting verbs are to be used in order to indicate the status of the proposition reported and the writer's attitude towards that information. They signal assessment of the evidential status of the reported proposition and show the writer's range of commitment to its truth value from neutral to accepting and to criticism. Moreover, the studies of tense usage for reporting verbs indicate that tense choice is connected with the writer's stance towards a particular source, and also the degree of generality. Thus, it has been asserted that the students need to show a stance on the evidence referred to in their papers, which can be achieved by varying the reporting verbs.

It can be concluded that by performing preparatory linguistic functions through reading in order to fulfil relevant resultant linguistic functions, the students are engaged in a social interaction, as they aim at achieving ratification by the disciplinary research community of the claims contained in their research papers by making a rhetorically determined choice of the citation type and the reporting verb used to introduce it.

The fulfillment of the preparatory linguistic functions and resultant linguistic functions with the assistance of support activities at different levels result in the acquisition of the LFRC leading to the end product (BA thesis).

Chapter 4 Exploring Research Methodology and Institutional Context of This Research

This chapter starts with explaining the methodology used for this study: research perspective and methods, type and techniques. Further, we study the institutional context, which has influenced the research genre construction, including the conventions that govern the use of the research language at the FML, the UL by exploring the data received from the interviews and the focus group interviews with the academic advisors at the Department of English Studies, thus providing context to this study.

Next, it deals with gathering and analyzing the data statistically and qualitatively by reporting on the results of the questionnaires administered to the students enrolled on the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* and by comparing them with the results obtained from the analysis of the students' reports in relation to the LFRC.

4.1 Choice of Methodology

Since there are many research traditions available to scholars, it is important to outline the research approach employed in this study. The discussion on the methodology of this study is based on Brown and Rodgers, 2002; Brown, 2001; Geske and Grīnfelds, 2001; Beļickis et al, 2000; Burns, 2000; Glatthorn, 1998; Stake, 1998; Nunan, 1992.

The functional contexts in which research is conducted may influence the framework within which the study is undertaken (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 12-13). The choice of this research design was largely influenced by the institutional context since the need for this study originated from the necessity to conduct evaluation research, which is 'all the practices and instruments involved in gathering and compiling the data necessary to make judgements about the value of a language course' (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 227). It is emphasized that evaluation research is necessary to assess the effectiveness of the programme, the course (Geske and Grīnfelds, 2001: 29) as well as the participants' attitudes within the context of the institution involved (Brown, 1989 in Brown and Rodgers, ibid. 228). The formative evaluation (Nunan, 1992: 190, Beļickis et al., 2000: 163) of the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research*, which was primarily quantitative in nature (Glatthorn, 1998; Bell, et al.2002), was performed during the delivery of the course and, therefore, provided a mechanism for making changes to it. More specifically, the researcher sought to find out whether the course had succeeded in improving the students' knowledge and/or raising their awareness of certain aspects of the LFRC, and whether the acquisition of the competence could be evidenced in the students' reports.

The researcher used both secondary research, i.e. other researchers' books and articles in the form of the literature review (see Chapters 1, 2, 3) and *primary research,* i.e. quantitative and qualitative research, the results of which are presented in Chapters 4 and 5 and also in Chapters 1, 2 and 3 by providing the examples from the corpus of the RPs and authentic texts, by commenting on the results of the administered questionnaires, reports, and oral presentations.

The research perspective used was mixed: qualitative primary, quantitative first (McMillan, 1996 in Glatthorn, 1998: 34), which implies that the researcher commenced with collecting quantitative preliminary data (as the secondary method) as a basis for collecting and interpreting the qualitative data (the primary method). Descriptive research, which is primarily quantitative in nature, was used to report on the frequencies and percentages of the acquired competence, whereas the qualitative analysis allowed us to understand the communicative functions of linguistic features. The quantitative analysis employed, enabled us to see the extent of similarity and variation in texts, and to examine interactions among linguistic features. The research type employed was the case study. Although Brown and Rodgers' (ibid.) included the case study under a qualitative research technique, we shall refer to it as a research type (Burns, 2000; Glatthorn, 1998) since it itself employs various research techniques: interviews, questionnaires, observation, and focus group interviews in order to ascertain the perceptions of individuals about some particular research problems. Although the case study belongs to the qualitative type of research methodology, it can use multiple techniques for collecting data, which may be both qualitative and quantitative (e.g. Brown and Rodgers, 2002; Burns, 2000; Glatthorn, 1998).

The case study was chosen as the research type since it is undertaken in order to 'obtain in-depth knowledge about the unit of analysis to understand a particular case…' (Karapetjana, Rozina, 2001: 264), and the present empirical research can be defined as a longitudinal study since it lasted from the academic year 1998/1999 to 2003/2004 including. Besides, the case study implies a single unit of analysis, e.g. the implementation of a particular academic programme and investigates the way this unit functions in context (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 21; Beļickis et al., 2000; Burns, 2000: 460; Stake, 1998: 2). This research views the students' language material as a support for their LFRC development, which is the subject of this research, and which the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* and other relevant courses of the English philology programme aim to facilitate, as a case or a unit of analysis.

Since the case study research is a developmental research (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 21), we followed the development of the students' LFRC, the developmental findings of which were based on the analysis of the students' oral presentations and reports for the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* and the students' graduation papers in the long run.

Quantitative and qualitative research is traditionally evaluated in terms of *validity* and *reliability*. By clearly describing and documenting the research procedures, we have ensured reliability of the study, which would enable others to replicate it. The results and conclusions of the study are valid since they accurately and truthfully represent the academic and research processes investigated. This research also employed triangulation (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 243-244; Burns, 2000: 476), which is the use of different research approaches, methods and techniques in the same study:

- data triangulation, i.e. the data were collected at different times and from different sources (e.g. students, academic advisors);
- methodological triangulation, i.e. qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection were applied. Such multiple sources of evidence as interviewing, observation, analyzing questionnaires and documents (e.g. English Philology programme, *Noteikumi par valsts akadēmiskās izglītības standartu* (the Ministry of Education and Science), The Statute of the Study Programmes of the UL, the students' BA papers) ensured the reliability and validity of the data and findings;
- theory triangulation, i.e. several theoretical frameworks were used. This research drew on Bühler's (1934) proposed system of communicative functions, Jakobson's (1950) (the Prague School) communication model, the Prague School's Functional Sentence Perspective Theory, the London School's Systemic

Functional Linguistics Theory, the European Framework of Communicative Competence, lecture discourse and academic listening comprehension approbational theories (Flowerdew, 2002; Richards, 1983), Schema theory (Bartlett, 1932), written discourse approbational theories Bhatia, 1998; Dudley-Evans, 1998; Swales, 1981); the ESP Genre (Bhatia, 1998; Swales, 1981) and the Systemic Functional Linguistics (e.g. Christie and Rothery, 1989; Martin and Rothery, 1981) genre theories provided a firm grounding in the theoretical issue paramount to the object and subject of this research;

- time triangulation: the data were gathered at different times from the academic year 1998/1999 to 2003/2004 including.

The findings of the investigation are generalisable to what extent the reader can relate the findings of the case study to his situation. The proposed LFRC framework, which includes inter-related preparatory linguistic functions and resultant linguistic functions, is multipurpose since it serves as a foundation for research activities in other fields and at other academic levels.

Thus, we employed quantitative and qualitative methods at different stages, using the result of the one to inform and refine the other, and hence producing conclusions that were both precise and representative.

The research was conducted at the FML, the UL and it focused on the students studying English Philology. In total, 485 students attending the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* were involved in the study from the academic year 1998/1999 to 2003/2004 (i.e. eighty-three (83) students in 1998/1999; 107 students in 1999/2000; 92 students in 2000/2001; 79 students in 2001/2002; 84 students in 2002/2003; 40 students in 2003/2004). In addition, questionnaires on taking notes were administered to 128 students, and a thorough analysis of randomly selected one hundred and forty-five reports written by the students in the academic years 2001/2002, 2002/2003 and 2003/2004 was performed in order to follow the students' acquisition of the research language as a result of the relevant LFRC development.

As it can be seen from above, the number of the students differed each year, which is connected with the number of students matriculated. There was a substantial decrease in the number of students enrolled on the programme in the academic year 2003/2004 (40 part-time students taking the examination at the end of the course), which might be explained by the fact that it was the first year when the students were matriculated according to the centralized ‘Year 12 English Examination’ results.

Moreover, the comparative analysis of RP writing conventions: the macro-structure and the constituent parts of the BA thesis was conducted, involving the RP writing conventions of the Faculty of History and Psychology (UL); the English Philology Department, Daugavpils University; the Faculty of Philology, the University of Vilnius. Besides, a diachronic study of the abstracts (12 618 words in total) written in the academic years 1999/2000 and 2003/2004 was undertaken to compare the students' acquisition of the sub-genre knowledge. Using probability sampling, 5 academic advisors from the Department of English Studies were selected and interviewed, and 5 lecturers were involved in a set of focus group discussions. They all provided valuable data in the course of the research. Finally, a corpus of 50 randomly selected bachelor papers, (totalling 2 225 000 words) of 162 RPs was analysed, employing quantitative and qualitative analysis. A corpus has been defined as ‘a large and principled collection of natural texts (Biber, Conrad and Reppen, 1998: 12). It enabled us to see the extent of similarity and variation in the genre of thesis and its sub-genres, and to examine interactions between linguistic features. The corpus of BA theses is representative of the language since it

1) utilized a large collection of texts as the basis for analysis;
2) was empirical, analyzing the actual patterns of use in those texts;
3) found the typical patterns for the register and saw how a particular RP conformed to the expected pattern of its register;
4) went beyond the quantitative patterns to propose functional interpretations explaining why the patterns existed.

4.2 Analysis of Interviews with Academic Advisors and Focus Groups

Since interviews are one of the major techniques in qualitative research (Burns, 2000: 423), the context of situation within the Faculty of Modern Languages was explored through the <u>exploratory semi-structured interviews</u> (Oppenhaim, 1992: 67), which had a <u>heuristic purpose</u>: to develop a research hypothesis rather than to gather facts. The purpose of the interviews, which took place in September and October 2000, was to set up a framework in which the analysis of BA papers could be placed and which would contribute to the understanding of the LFRC required to achieve the communicative purposes of the BA thesis. Each interview lasted about an hour (60 minutes). Procedures for drawing a random sample are described below.

A population was identified by directly examining samples of the population. A representative sample was counted in order to be able to ask a carefully selected sample of individuals a set of questions so that their answers could be used to make inferences about the population as a whole. A sampling frame, i.e. the population of interest was developed. It consisted of 30 academic advisors working in the Department of English Studies. A subset of the population, i.e. 5 supervisors was drawn.

Since the ability to generalize from a sample to the population depends on the representativeness of the sample, this research used <u>probability sampling,</u> which ensured that each element of the population had an equal chance of being included in the sample. Appendix 18 contains a sampling frame.

First, the researcher excluded herself from the list. Further, each element in the sampling frame was numbered, e.g. Solveiga Ozoliņa would be number 1. Next, a table of random numbers was made up. By applying <u>systemic sampling,</u> the sample size was divided into the size of the sampling frame to obtain the value *k.* Then every *kth* element was selected going down the table after choosing the first one randomly. It was decided that a sample size of 5 would be used from a sampling frame of 30, so *k* was 6. A starting point was chosen by a finger stab with the researcher's eyes closed – the stab came down at the following entry: 7. Finally, the names corresponding to the selected numbers were listed: Rasma Mozere, Rota Bankava, Mudīte Upmale, Zigrīda Vinčela, and Vineta Apse.

Thus, by applying <u>probability sampling,</u> we have ensured that the selected sample was representative to the extent that it exhibited the same distribution of characteristics as the population from which it was selected.

The <u>discursive</u> model of interviewing was applied, which was a conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee with a connection between the previous, current and next issue (Burns, 2000: 428). Using <u>semi-structured interviewing</u> limited the effect of the researcher's biases and beliefs in directing the line of interviewing, and it also permitted greater flexibility and a more valid response from the informants than it would have been in case of structured interviewing. The interviewer tried to reduce her role in order to avoid guiding the interviewees. Besides, the fact that there were repeated interviews between the researcher and the informants, and that the informants had equal status to the researcher (the informants' opinions were provided rather than the researcher's point of view being imposed) in the interview increased rapport with them. Besides, an interview guide (the outline) was developed in which, without fixed ordering of questions, a direction was given to the interview so that the content focused on the issues relevant to the study, which increased the comprehensiveness of the data. The interviews were recorded on the condition that the tapes would not be made public; therefore, the transcripts for the interviews are not included in this paper. However, tape-recording allowed the interviewer to take part in the conversation in a natural way and to take notes. The interviews were closed by summarizing them, which ensured that the interviewer had recorded the data without any bias. The data received from the interviews are summarized below as narrative. The questions reported on in this sub-chapter are the following:

- How long have you been supervising students' research papers?
- What appears to be the communicative purpose of the BA paper?
- What is the rhetorical organization of the Bachelor thesis at the macro-level?
- What is the rhetorical organization of the constituent parts of the Bachelor thesis?
- What are the components of the linguo-functional competence needed for conducting and writing up research and have the students acquired the competence upon graduation?

Before the interview, the researcher explained the purpose of the interview to the interviewees, which included telling them how the data were to be used. Then the researcher gradually guided the direction of the interview by commencing with general questions and then using a funelling technique (Burns, 2000: 429): the questions became more specific. Thus, the first question asked was a descriptive one, requesting the informants to describe their experiences as academic advisors.

Question 1 How long have you been supervising students' research papers?

Two selected academic advisors: Rasma Mozere and Mudīte Upmale had an extensive experience of more than 20 years of supervising research papers, whereas three others: Rota Bankava, Zigrīda Vinčela and Vineta Apse had relatively little experience: four, three and one year respectively.

Question 2 What appears to be the communicative purpose of the BA paper?

The advisors generally agreed that a Bachelor thesis shows the students' knowledge of the subject and the ability to conduct research on a selected topic independently, using the language appropriate to the genre.

Question 3 What is the rhetorical organization of the thesis at the macro-level?

The question was asked in order to find out what their perception of the structure of the thesis was and their opinion about the necessity of standardizing it. Some of the responses received were: *If a student uses clear structure, the Bachelor thesis becomes reader-friendly* and *A good research paper has a clear structure*.

Thus, there was unanimity in the answers provided since all the respondents referred to the importance of having a logical structure, and they seemed to agree that the BA paper should have a conventionalized macro-structure. They described the structure as having:

- Title Page,
- Declaration of Academic Integrity,
- Abstract,
- Table of Contents,
- Introduction,
- Literature Review,
- Methods, Results and Discussion Section,
- Conclusions,
- Bibliography,
- Theses
- and/or Appendix.

One of the interviewees raised the question about writing summaries at the end of each chapter, which was related to structuring a piece of writing. This seemed to be a relevant point; therefore, it was included in the interviews with other respondents as well. Only one of the respondents argued that chapter summaries should be optional, but agreed that using them could assist comprehension of the paper and increase reader-friendliness.

Question 4 What is the rhetorical organization of the constituent parts of the bachelor thesis?

The advisors admitted that they did not have a clear idea about the structure of some parts of the dissertation. For example, although acknowledging the importance of the communicative function of the abstract, the advisors were unaware of what constitutes a good research paper abstract. However, the informants seemed to agree that the introduction should have a clearly defined aim of the research, objectives and hypothesis, and they expressed concern that not all students observed that, especially in other departments of the FML. It was also discussed that one of the major problems that the students had was the lack of knowledge of research methodology.

Question 5 What are the components of the linguo-functional competence needed for conducting and writing up research and have the students acquired the competence upon graduation?

The question aimed at finding out the respondents' views of the LFRC the students should acquire in order to write successful research papers. They agreed that the students should have advanced communicative language competence. However, they should also have a well developed research competence. For example, they should be able to read texts on the selected research topic and apply a reading strategy depending on the reading purpose, e.g. skimming, scanning texts, which would enable them to conduct literature review. While reading they should be able to make notes, and then incorporate the materials from the texts into writing by means of paraphrasing, summarizing, and quoting. Last but not least, the students should write up the research, which includes the knowledge of the genre: the ability to structure the RP at its macro-level and micro-levels, as well as using the appropriate register.

It has to be mentioned that sometimes the interviews led to new questions, as it was in Question 3, and the interview was allowed to develop in a new direction. For example, one of the interviewees asked about the incorporation of citations in the text. Thus, the next question addressed the issue of referencing and citations.

The interviews revealed that the students did not seem to be aware of the purposes paraphrasing, quoting and acknowledging sources serve in their papers. For instance, since more than one referencing system exists (e.g. Harvard and Vancouver systems), the students often used both of them in one paper or did not use them correctly.

In view of the fact that the students might be interested in writing for different journals and conference proceedings in the field of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, where Harvard system seems to be widely accepted, it was agreed that Harvard system must be used at the FML.

In general, the respondents agreed that the students writing a graduation paper had acquired an advanced level of the communicative language competence; however, they stressed that not all the students had acquired the necessary LFRC. For example, the wording of a hypothesis; paraphrasing/ summarizing and quoting correctly in order to avoid plagiarism; selecting reporting verbs that would match the intended purpose were mentioned as some of the problems the students were observed to have.

The difference of opinion became more marked when the use of personal pronouns in research papers was discussed. Several advisors emphasized that the focus of BA papers should be the research, thus no usage of the 1st person singular pronoun *I* should be allowed. One advisor pointed out that in the methods, results and discussion section of the paper, where the students report on their conducted empirical research, they should be allowed to use the first person pronouns, which would help them communicate the results of their research to the reader. Generally, the advisors agreed that the students had to use the formal style, including the use of the 3rd person pronoun to refer to the author of the research paper.

The following is a brief summary of other issues discussed with some of the informants:

1. The respondents agreed that the LFRC was not easy to acquire, and it was argued that the students' familiarization with it at the very beginning of the academic studies was of a paramount importance. However, the competence should be advanced throughout their studies.

2. The respondents voiced the necessity of designing BA paper writing conventions, which would be accessible to the students since it was important that the students met the expectations of the discourse community.

Next, the researcher undertook the task of developing BA paper writing conventions, which were designed after a comprehensive study of theoretical literature on the issue and available demands for writing research papers.

A <u>focus group</u> (Gillham, 2000: 20) was set up in order to address a specific issue, i.e. the conventions for BA paper writing. This particular qualitative research method was selected since it relied on group discussion where the participants were able to talk to each other about the topic of interest. This allowed the participants to agree or disagree with each other, thus providing insight into what a group thought about an issue.

The purposive sampling method was used for selecting participants for the focus group, i.e. those members of the discourse community were selected who were thought to provide the moderator with the most useful information. Eight participants were invited for the focus group; however, only five participants arrived.

The focus group consisted of the group members sharing a common characteristic: the experience of academic advisors. The participants of the group were guided by a moderator, who introduced topics for discussion. The moderator was aided by a pre-prepared question guide to ask the questions to the group, which was flexible enough to allow the group to take the discussion in any way they chose, while providing enough structure and direction to stop the discussion moving away from the original topic. The moderator also recorded the key issues raised in the discussion, which involved noting down the responses from the group. It entailed jotting down key words and writing down verbatim any important comments. At the end of the focus group meeting, a debrief took place, in which the moderator summarized the discussion, and which enabled her to check the responses. Immediately after the group discussion, the moderator went back over the notes and added further detail in order to give a full and clear account of the session.

The focus group interviews were longitudinal since the same sample of the respondents was retained and interviewed more than once. This particular design was chosen since it allowed assessing the effect of experimental manipulation: to test the aspects of the proposed BA paper writing conventions designed by the author of this research. It has to be mentioned that before the focus group's meeting, the conventions were reviewed by two more colleagues whose comments had been very valuable.

The following is the summary of the focus group's discussions on the macro-structure and micro-features of the thesis.

It was agreed that a Bachelor thesis should have the following parts: Title Page, Declaration of Academic Integrity, Acknowledgements (optional), Abstract in Latvian and English, Table of Contents, Introduction, Literature Review, Methods, Results and Discussion Section, Conclusions, Bibliography, and/or Appendix.

The following rhetorical structure of the Abstract was suggested and approved: 1. Background /topic; 2. Purpose; 3. Methods; 4. Results; 5. Conclusions. The Introduction should start with a general statement of the problem that would enable the reader to gain an idea of the importance of the issue under investigation. A very brief review of previous work that had been done and theories related to the topic should follow. The aims and objectives of the research and the hypothesis should be made very clear. There should be reference to research methods: why a particular method has been chosen, what are the characteristics of the population, sample or experiment and what research tools are used. At the end of the introduction, a brief summary of chapters should follow. <u>Review of the main literature</u> testifies to the students' theoretical understanding of the problem and the acquisition of the relevant language. <u>The empirical part of the research</u> should be reported next. The <u>methodology</u> component should begin with a clear and precise description of the research questions or hypotheses and of the different variables of the study. It then should detail the specific methods that the student has selected to investigate the research problem or topic and specify the design of the study, and discuss the data collection procedures that are used to investigate the variables. Then the description of the sample and subjects of the study, the procedures used to select them, and finally, the type and form of the data collected should follow. <u>Data analysis</u> describes the quantitative and qualitative analyses undertaken. The <u>results</u> must be summarized and related to the hypothesis or research questions, and they should be presented in tables or diagrams with headings. The <u>discussion/conclusion</u> section should restate the major hypotheses and findings and relate the results to previous research and theory. This section should be rounded up by summarising the major conclusions and results of the study. It should be also pointed out whether the proposed hypothesis was supported. Finally, the students might give methodological implications and directions for future research.

Other issues such as the referencing system, bibliography, technicalities, e.g. fonts, spacing, etc were discussed, and taken into consideration when writing the final variant of the BA paper writing conventions.

4.3 Analysis of Support Course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* in Development of Linguo-Functional Research Competence

In 1998, the researcher was entrusted with a task of reading the course *Introduction to Academic Studies and Research* to the first year part-time students. Since she had no experience of giving lectures to a large audience of students, she observed lectures delivered by a professor to full-time students. In the evenings, the author of this paper read lectures to the part-time students.

The course was delivered in the lecture mode; however, it involved a fair amount of interaction, e.g. the students had to relate new information to their previous knowledge, apply the theoretical knowledge and the acquired language in practice by using group and pair mode. Initially, informal classroom observation (we use the concept *classroom observation* to cover a wide range of learning contexts) was made to gain experience. The researcher was a participant observer or more precisely a complete observer (Burns, 2000: 405), i.e. she was removed from interaction with those under observation. Thus, the research commenced largely unstructured in the beginning. However, as the course proceeded, the observations enabled the researcher to probe deeply and analyse the classroom interaction, spoken academic discourse and other elements of the course, which generated rich data that brought to light variables, i.e. the LFRC that deserved more intensive investigation.

Thus the research topic, i.e. a general area of study was identified: the LFRC. Further, a research issue was specified: the role of the course in the development of the undergraduate students' LFRC, which would serve the students as a support for their research activities during their academic studies with a resultant aim - to enable them to write successful research papers. The observations and experience gained by the researcher during the delivery of the course to the part-time students helped her to advance the following exploratory research questions:

1. What components of the LFRC did the students develop as a result of the instruction?
2. What were the students' views on the aspects of the LFRC presented in the course?
3. What was the correlation between the course content and delivery, and classroom activities aimed at the development of the competence?

In order to find answers to the posed research questions, the analysis of the questionnaires administered to the first year students was undertaken. To exemplify the analysis of the data obtained, we have selected the academic years 2002/2003 and 2003/2004 for a more thorough study, whereas the analysis of the data received from the questionnaires in other academic years can be found in the Appendix: 1998/1999 (Appendix 19), 1999/2000

(Appendix 20), 2000/2001 (Appendix 21), 2001/2002 (Appendix 22). This sub-chapter also provides a comparative analysis of the LFRC developed in all academic years.

A test-questionnaire was designed and piloted by the author of the course. It was a group-administered questionnaire (Brown, 2001: 6), and it allowed the researcher to administer it to the groups of students at one time and place, which ensured a high return rate and an opportunity for her to explain any questions that could arise. The questionnaire served several purposes: its primary purpose was to test the students' acquisition of the LFRC, and its secondary aim was to find out the students' perception of the course in terms of the content of the course and its delivery, and the correlation between the content of the course and classroom activities aimed at the development of the competence. Personal characteristics of the groups (e.g. gender, nationality, age) were not surveyed because it was not important for this research. Since the students had been matriculated according to the entrance examination results at the FML, and in 2003/2004 according to the centralized Year 12 English Examination results, we assumed that the majority of them had an intermediate or upper-intermediate level of the knowledge of English, which was necessary to be enrolled on the studies at the FML.

When administering the questionnaire, the researcher always followed the same procedure: she explained the purpose of the questionnaire to the students and answered any questions that arose. It was stressed that the first part of the questionnaire would be evaluated with a mark, but their answers to the part of the questionnaire that asked for the self-assessment of the students' competence and their perception of the course would not influence it. Some students did not answer all the questions; therefore, the replies did not seem to add up to 100 per cent. Descriptive statistics research was applied in order to describe the obtained data in terms of frequencies or percentages, or to show them in graphs.

In the academic year 2002/2003, the questionnaire was administered to 84 students. In order to yield worthwhile data for this research, the original questionnaire was slightly redesigned: the preparatory linguistic functions for research were listed in one question. The aim was to measure the variables identified in the hypothesis: to investigate whether the performed preparatory linguistic functions during the course had enabled the students to develop the relevant competence and to compare the results as exhibited in the course reports with the students' self-perceived evaluation of the acquired LFRC.

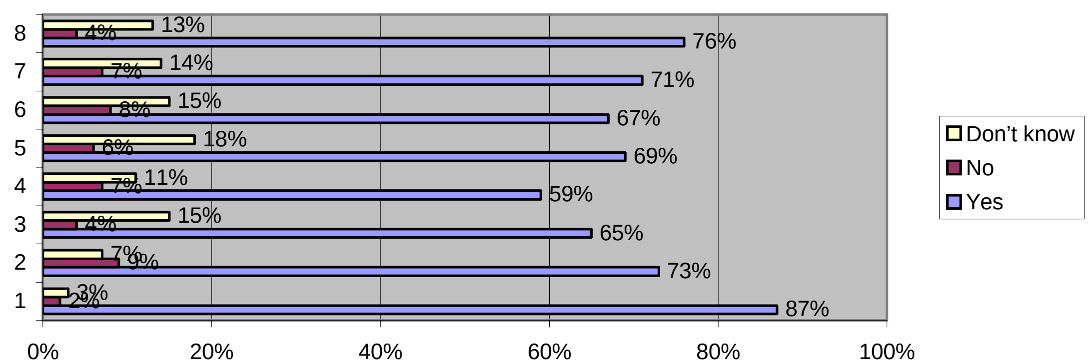
It was decided to use a group-administered questionnaire again, as it ensured a high response rate and accurate sampling: all the students were asked to complete it. Thus the questionnaire was a representative sample of the population, as it included all the students taking the course in question. It also ensured that all the respondents had the same amount of time to answer the questions. The questionnaire was semi-structured (Gillham, 2000: 3), which had both closed and open questions. A closed question was selected because it was useful for testing the hypothesis and the research questions (Oppenheim, 1999: 115, Gillham, 2000: 7-8). In addition to the information about what the students could do in the target language, it was important to obtain data about the learning and teaching process itself. Therefore, the last question enquired about the relevance of the content of the course under investigation. It is said (e.g. Oppenhaim, Gillham) that an open question is more difficult to analyse; nevertheless, it was decided to have one in the questionnaire since we hoped that it would enable the respondents to give their opinions as precisely as possible in their own words. We also added instructions to the respondents necessary to complete the questionnaire, e.g. *tick (v) the appropriate answer(s), please circle your answers.*

Question: The course has helped you to develop the following: Yes No Don't know

a) academic presentation skills;
b) note-taking skills;
c) research skills:
d) wording a hypothesis;
e) reading for academic and research purposes;
f) writing for academic and research purposes;
g) using paraphrases and quotations;
h) dealing with references and bibliography.

The graph (see Figure 4.1) below shows the students' acquisition of the LFRC in the academic year 2002/2003. The horizontal axis shows the percentages of the acquired component of the competence, and the vertical axis compares the components of the competence listed. It can be seen from the chart that 87 per cent of the students had developed their academic presentation skills. Seventy-six per cent (76%) had learnt how to give references and write bibliography. A very slight difference can be observed in their ability to take notes (73%), writing paraphrases and quotations (71%) and reading for research (69%). From the graph it can be seen that only 59 per cent had learnt how to word a hypothesis, which was a great deal less than, e.g. presentation skills. Some students added that the course had increased their vocabulary and communication skills, had enabled them to write academic and research papers, and even increased their concentration ability.

Figure 4.1 **Percentage of Acquired Components of Competence**



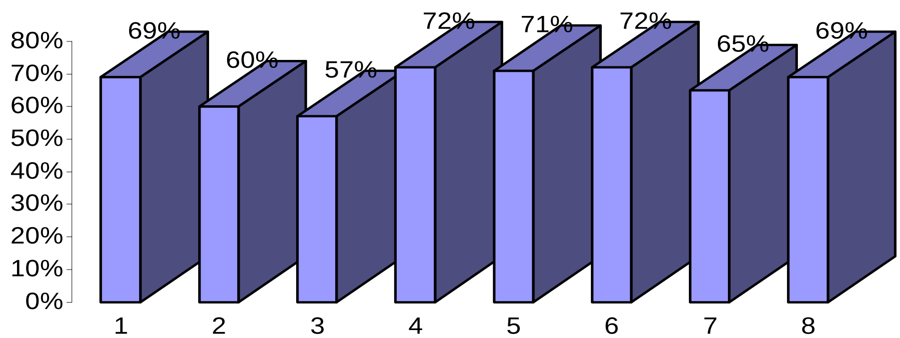
1. academic presentations 2. taking notes 3. research competence 4. wording a hypothesis 5. reading for academic and research purposes 6. writing for academic and research purposes 7. using paraphrases and quotations 8. dealing with references and bibliography

<u>Question What are your suggestions for the improvement of the course?</u>

In general, the students considered that the components of the LFRC that they were made aware of during the course were relevant for their current and future studies; therefore, even more lectures would be needed to provide a more extensive practice. Their suggestions seemed to indicate that despite a likely development of, e.g. presentation skills (87%) they would have liked more practice, apparently, to gain confidence. Although the course provided both theoretical knowledge and an opportunity to develop practical skills, some students mentioned the need for more practice and work in smaller groups. Overall, their responses and comments emphasized the relevance of the course since it had met the academic and research needs of the students; moreover, the mode of the delivery had ensured the acquisition of theoretical knowledge and the development of some practical skills, which had facilitated the development of the LFRC.

In order to see the general tendency in the students' development of the competence, a comparative analysis was conducted to find out what components of the LFRC the students had acquired as a result of the instruction in the academic years 1998/1999, 1999/2000, 2000/2001, 2001/2002, 2002/2003, and 2003/2004.

Figure 4.2 **Comparison of Acquired Components of Competence 1998/1999-2003/2004**

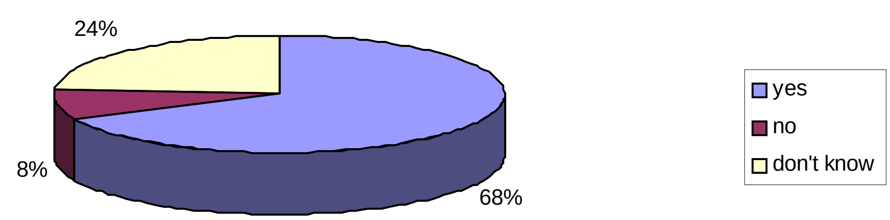


1. taking notes 2. hypothesis 3. presentations 4. paraphrasing 5. referencing 6. writing 7. research skills 8. reading

Figure 4.2 above shows the acquired components of the LFRC as perceived by the students. The vertical axis shows the percentage of the elements of the competence acquired, and the horizontal axis compares the 8 components listed. As it can be seen from the bar chart, the largest percentage of the students, i.e. 72 per cent had acquired paraphrasing, summarizing and writing for research purposes. As much as seventy-one per cent had learnt how to give references and write bibliographies. It can be seen from the bar chart that sixty-five per cent considered that their general ability to do research had improved, which was a good indicator for the first year students. A rather surprising result was the evaluation of their skill to give presentations. Only 57 per cent of them had marked it as acquired, which is not a high result if compared with 87 per cent in 2002/2003 and other components of the relevant competence. It is interesting to compare that 70 per cent liked the part of the course that dealt with giving presentations or considered it to be useful. This might indicate that they still needed practice in speaking in front of a large audience. Since the mode of the course does not envisage much practice, presentation skills are being further developed in the support courses of the BA programme, e.g. Functional Communication.

In view of the importance of the ability to formulate a hypothesis, it is necessary to comment on a relatively low percentage of those students who claimed that they had learnt how to write a hypothesis, i.e. 60 per cent. The pie chart below (Figure 4.3) shows the distribution of the students' responses in the academic years 2002/2003 and 2003/2004. The students had to choose from the responses *yes*, *no*, and *don't know*. Although the number of those students who answered *yes*, i.e. 68 per cent was somewhat higher than in the previous years (see Figure 4.2 above), those who claimed that they had not acquired it were not many-only 8 per cent. A relatively large number of the students were not sure about their answers, which seemed to be understandable taking into consideration the complexity of this linguistic phenomenon, which had also been voiced by the interviewed academic advisors, who considered the competence of wording a hypothesis as one of the major difficulties for the students writing a BA thesis.

Figure 4.3 **Percentage of Acquired Components of Competence: Hypothesis**



In general, the completed self-evaluation questions showed that the students had developed the components of the relevant competence.

During the course, the students were involved in small-scale research projects, and it was expected that the topics chosen for the investigation might lead to further research activities manifested in term and bachelor papers. In this section of the chapter, we report on the students' oral presentations and written reports submitted in the academic years 1999/2000 and 2003/2004. At the beginning of the course, the students were instructed to work in research teams in order to investigate a topic chosen from the course syllabus. At the end of the course, the students submitted individual reports and reported on the results of their research in oral group presentations, in which they were expected to demonstrate the acquisition of the LFRC. When observing and evaluating the students' linguistic products, a particular attention was paid to our presupposition (Chapter 2) that explicit instruction and discussion on various elements of the formal style increase the students' awareness of the functionality of the linguistic devices and result in their efficient usage in the spoken and written discourse.

The research presentations were evaluated by the students themselves and the lecturer. We were interested in the students' ability to apply linguistic forms at the macro and micro levels. The students followed the guidelines of successful academic presentations, as they had well-structured presentations at the macro level. We were particularly interested in the usage of discourse markers in view of their role in the academic discourse. The presentations revealed that 65 per cent of the students had gained the appreciation of the pragmatic and rhetoric roles of discourse markers, which was a good indicator. As to the written reports, we were primarily interested in finding out the application of the formal style of writing reports, which entailed both macro and micro features of the language, e.g. the usage of personal pronouns, appropriate references, quotations, paraphrases and bibliography according to the given conventions.

The following is a selective analysis of one hundred and forty-five students' reports. In order to draw representative samples from which we could make valid generalisations to the population, we selected all the reports written in the academic years 1999/2000 and 2003/2004. In 1999/2000, 107 students enrolled on the course; however, two reports were not submitted. In 2003/2004, forty reports were submitted. Sampling frames were made up: the reports were listed and given code numbers, e.g. the first report in the academic year 1999/2000 was given a code: 1999-1, and the first report in 2003/2004 was given a code 2003-1. Since all the reports were analysed, it ensured that each member of the target population had an equal chance of being selected. The analysis of 145 reports revealed that not all the students were able to apply the LFRC. The main flaws observed were:

- bibliographies flouting the conventions or their absence (28%);
- wrong referencing in texts (23%);
- absence of in-text citations (14%);
- failure to comply with the formal style of writing (e.g. the usage of the first person pronoun *I* (35%) and the second person pronoun you (48%), the usage of contractions);
- lack of linguistic competence (grammar and spelling errors).

The examples that follow illustrate the mentioned flaws. Thus, we can see in the sentence below that the student had paraphrased the source text and made a reference to its author; however, she had not indicated the year when the source was published and a page number, e.g. *K. Nelke claims that there are a few mistakes which are made in unsuccessful presentations. (1999-26)*. There were no in-text citations in report 2003-9; the student had only written the source used in the bibliography. In general, not all the students had understood the necessity of giving a reference to the source used in the body of their text as well as at the end of the report, as it was evidenced in their reports. Some other flaws and inconsistencies, e.g. misused quotation marks, were observed. In the sentence below, we can see that the student had used the first person pronoun *I* repeatedly in one sentence, e.g. *<u>I</u> hope after <u>I</u> end this report <u>I</u> will develop <u>my</u> confidence in <u>my</u> letter-writing activities. (1999-29).* Frequently, the students had used the generic personal pronoun *you*, which is typical of spoken English, e.g. *<u>You</u> can use the Internet and send e-mails. (1999-29).* Contracted forms, which are not allowed in formal reports, were found only in a small sample of the analysed reports, e.g. *...but I <u>can't</u> enjoy it.(2003-15).* Some students had grammatical and spelling errors, e.g. *That's why translator have to learn many branches and then more he will know than better translator he will be.* [sic] (2003-15).The data received also demonstrated the need to include more extensive practice in paraphrasing: using the students' own words and structures, and writing citations and references to master these components of the LFRC. Since the flaws were discussed with each student individually, it was expected that they would avoid making such mistakes when writing other academic and research papers.

In general, the students succeeded in using the linguistic entities pertaining to the formal style of the language in written and spoken discourse alike. Thus, the course objectives were met, and the course was claimed to be successful as a means of raising awareness of the relevant competence; however, it did not suffice to cater for all the research needs of the students.

Interim Summary

This chapter dealt with the methodology of this research. The empirical data were gathered in various ways to learn about the issue under study. The conducted interviews with the members of the relevant discourse community allowed us to conclude that the performance of the relevant linguistic functions in the first year of the students' academic studies will raise their awareness of the LFRC, which would contribute to the development of the their overall academic and research mastery. We performed the analysis of the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research*, which was viewed as a support course for the development of the LFRC. Despite the obvious flaws in the students' reports, the course could be evaluated as successful since its main aim - to inform the students about academic, professional studies and research and to make them aware of the LFRC had been achieved. Moreover, it had fostered the acquisition of some components of the competence as evidenced by their self-evaluation, research presentations and reports.

It is expected that the awareness of the LFRC necessary for the students' academic studies and research developed at the beginning of the academic studies, would enable the students to perform preparatory linguistic functions for research purposes more easily and more efficiently. Obviously, the development of the LFRC is further facilitated by support activities within the institutional context, e.g. Academic Writing, Systematic and Functional Grammar, Functional Communication, Hermeneutics. Important support activities are also writing term papers, which often can be seen as pre-proposals of BA papers, and the interaction with the academic advisors and other members of the relevant community. Moreover, the increasing student mobility, participation in conferences and writing publications are other relevant support activities performed in the international context. Successful fulfilment of the preparatory linguistic functions and resultant linguistic functions for research purposes by using relevant linguistic means may lead a student to a successful end product: defence of a Bachelor thesis.

As a result of the interviews, observations and administered questionnaires, the **hypothesis** of this research was advanced. Thus, the initial research undertaken was largely heuristic or hypothesis –generating research (Seliger and Shohamy, 1995: 29). The next step in the research process is deductive or hypothesis-testing research since it commenced with a hypothesis suggested by the heuristic research, which allowed systematic investigation of BA papers.

Chapter 5 Selective Analysis of Linguistic Entities in the Corpus of Bachelor Papers and Commentary on Main Points Emerging

The main aim of Chapter 5 is to offer the analysis of the linguistic constituents of written discourse - how they construe, produce and disseminate scientific meaning.

The chapter reviews the data received from the analysis of the macro-structure of the Bachelor papers in the corpus (comprising 2 225 000 words). It also reports on the diachronic examination of abstracts (in the academic years 1999/2000 to 2003/2004) comprising 12 518 words in total. The analysis of the abstracts in the academic year 1999/2000 was undertaken to find out the existing practice of abstract writing at the FML, but the qualitative and interpretive analysis of the abstracts written in the academic year 2003/2004 aimed at finding out the compliance of their rhetorical organization and the use of recurrent linguistic phenomena with the established writing conventions at the FML. Further, this chapter comments on the data received from the interpretive analysis of the introductions of the BA papers, comprising 41 525 words, written by the undergraduate students in the academic year 2003/2004.

The chapter investigates the ways the students position themselves within their texts with relation to recognized researchers in the field by finding out the types of citation, their density, and the prevailing categories of reporting verbs in the corpus. Further, it examines the identified patterns of the theme/rheme structures developed by Daneš in three randomly chosen BA papers, followed by the analysis of the selected metadiscourse rather than a general study of all types of the cohesive devices discussed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 5 also offers the discussion of hedges used in the context of the relevant discourse, by providing a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the results concerning the incidence and functions of hedging phenomena in the BA paper corpus.

5.1 Analysis of Macro-Level Structures of Bachelor Papers and Diachronic Analysis of Macro- and Micro-Level Structures of Abstracts

It has been argued (see Chapter 3) that texts within a genre are likely to share certain internal features in terms of their language and structure. Moreover, the content and style of written genres are determined according to the expectations of a particular discourse community, of which the students studying at the FML are preparing to become part.

Thus, the genre establishes constraints on what one is expected to write about, in what form, for what audience. It is assumed that the RPs written by the students at the FML, the UL belong to the same genre due to the perceived similarities in their communicative purpose and social function. For the purposes of this research, we have adapted Bhatia's (1998: 13-39) framework of genre analysis, and applied it to our research. It has been implemented in the following stages:

1. the given genre has been placed in the institutional context;
2. the survey of the relevant literature has been conducted;
3. an appropriate corpus has been selected;
4. the institutional context has been studied;
5. the levels of analysis have been selected;
6. the results have been checked with specialist informants.

The analysis of the RPs in the corpus followed the same pattern. First, recurring rhetorical patterns were identified by examining each BA paper, abstract and introduction. The identified parts and moves were marked. Then, two informants were asked to categorize the functions of each part and move in 10 per cent of the BA papers, abstracts and introductions randomly taken from the corpus of twenty abstracts (1999/2000), fifty BA papers, abstracts, and introductions (2003/2004). The results were compared, and they showed an agreement in 96 per cent of cases.

The macro-structure of the examined BA papers displayed certain observable patters and complied with the conventions adopted at the FML. The vast majority of papers had all the necessary structural elements: the title page, acknowledgements, the abstract (in Latvian and English), the table of contents, the introduction, the body of the paper (review of the literature, methodology, results and discussion of the study), the conclusions, the bibliography, and the theses. A number of RPs contained such optional elements as the appendix and the glossary. Thus, the students' RPs conformed to the expected macro-structure of the thesis as specified in the conventions (see Appendix 16). On the contrary, there was not always consistency in separate parts of the theses. Sometimes, the part of the thesis in which we would expect to find the review of literature was combined with some practical analysis, whereas the second part was mostly a methods/ results/ discussion section, in which the students reported on their empirical research. A minority of theses contained long discussions of theory and a relatively much shorter empirical part.

Inconsistency was observed in the abstracts and introductions. It has been already discussed (see Chapter 3) that the two sub-genres of the research paper seem to be very similar in terms of the contextual design since they are connected with a research setting, they use the same written mode and formal style. However, their communicative purposes are different, which as it turned out was not always recognized by the writers.

After the title, an abstract is the readers' first encounter with the RP; in which they are informed about the research and the main claims made in the RP to gain their attention, which can be largely achieved by replicating the generic pattern and certain formal features of the abstract. Therefore, the analysis of the abstracts written in the academic year 1999/2000 was undertaken with an aim to seek recurrent features, i.e. lexico-grammatical patterns and schematic structure that were prototypically present in this sub-genre of thesis.

Although the abstract as a sub-genre may differ from one subject-discipline to another in terms of *field, tenor* and *mode*, the abstract has identifiable stages or moves that correlate with patterns of tense, aspect and voice, which help to distinguish it from other sub-genres irrespective of the subject-discipline. The analysis and discussion that follows on the abstracts written in 1999/2000 is based on the research conducted by the author of this paper and Gunta Rozina (Karapetjana, Rozina, 2004: 158-165).

First, the students' abstracts from the point of view of their schematic structure were analysed in order to find out whether they could be considered to belong to the sub-genre of abstracts. Moves form the units of analysis in this research. The sample abstract below gives a concise knowledge of the complete RP, as it contains information on the purpose of the research conducted, the methodology used and the data obtained from the study and the indication of likely implications of the findings:

Move 1The present paper investigates the best means of developing learners' reading comprehension skills. (2) The theoretical part deals with the role and aims of reading in foreign language teaching and the reading processes and discusses the problem of difficulty in selecting appropriate materials for a reading classroom. Move 2 (3) The research paper aims at proving the importance and usefulness of the three stages of intensive reading. Move 3 (4) It relates theory to practice by observing reading lessons and analyzing reading comprehension activities and tasks. (5) The conclusions drawn are based on ethnography, during which classroom observations and analyses of questionnaires were used as the means of data gathering. Move 4 (6) The data obtained indicate that development of reading skills can be fostered by exposing students to relevant pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading tasks. Move 5 (7) The results and conclusions of this research can be used in the English language classroom in order to make the teaching/learning process more effective. *(*A20)

Sentences 1-2 introduce the topic of the research (Move 1). In sentence 3, we find the research objectives (Move 2). Sentences 4-5 provide information on the methods employed (Move 3). Sentence 6 informs us about the findings of the research (Move 4). In the last sentence (7), the author indicates possible applications of the findings (Move 5). Thus from the analysis of the moves, it can be concluded that the sample abstract might match the textual organization of the abstract. However, not all the abstracts met the expectations of the researchers. In many abstracts, some moves were missing, or if the moves existed, they were muddled. For example, since rhetorical purposes of the abstract and introduction are different, we did not expect to find the outline of chapters in the surveyed abstracts. Contrary to our expectations, we found brief information on the structural elements of the paper in one abstract and the contents of each chapter in 5 papers out of 20, which constitutes 25 per cent of all the abstracts. To exemplify:

The present research paper intends to discuss the role of fun and games in teaching language to children at the age of 6 to 9.
The theme has been reflected in five chapters.
Chapter1 discusses main characteristics of the target age group.
Chapter 2 reviews several peculiarities of teaching language to young children.
Chapter 3 offers to focus the attention on speaking skills while teaching language to children at the age of 6 to 9.
Chapter 4 discusses the role of games and fun elements in the process of language teaching.
Chapter 5 represents the practical part of the present research paper focusing the attention on the results of questionnaire and classroom observations.
The research paper is rounded up by conclusions and theses. The bibliography contains 25 sources of reference. The research is supported by materials reflected in annexes. (BA1)

Besides, we could only find an indirect reference to the methods of the research, and the student neither mentioned the results of research nor the conclusions made. The sentence *The research paper is rounded up by conclusions and theses* is unnecessary since the genre of RPs presupposes the existence of conclusions at the end of the RP. Instead, the student should have informed the reader about the conclusions she had drawn from her research. Obviously, the schematic structure of the analysed abstracts did not meet our expectations as the readers.

Second, we examined tense and voice aspects in the moves. In Table 5.1 below, we can see the rhetorical moves and tense/voice aspects as compared with the ones found in the abstracts under discussion. The first column shows the rhetorical moves of the abstract, and the second column shows the tense and voice aspects of each move. The third column has tense and voice samples from the BA paper abstracts, and the fourth column provides examples of tense/voice choices from them.

Rhetorical moves	Tense/voice aspects (Kramina)	Tense/voice aspects (in sample abstracts)	Examples
1.Background /topic	Present Simple	Present Simple, Active voice, Passive voice	The present paper discusses the topic of extensive reading…
2. Purpose or scope	Past Simple, Passive voice	Past Simple, Present Simple, the Infinitive of purpose;	The present research paper intends to discuss the functional use of the target language…
3. Methods	Past Simple, Passive voice	Past Simple, Present Simple, Active voice, Passive voice;	…the experimental research was carried out…
4. Results	Past Simple	Past Simple, Present Simple, Present Perfect	The author has proved the necessity of integrating language skills in the process of foreign language acquisition
5. Conclusions	Present Simple, modal verbs (could, may, might); adverbs indicating tentativeness (possibility)	Present Simple, modal verbs (could, may, can) to state conclusions in a more cautious way.	The content of the work could be captivating for English teachers working with creative writing at the primary level.

Table 5.1 **Comparison of Rhetorical Moves and Linguistic Patterns of Abstracts**

In Move 1 and Move 5, the writers are expected to use the present tense, which is used to show that a proposition is true regardless of time, whereas in Moves 2, 3 and 4 they should use the past tense in order to refer to the purpose, methods and results of the past research. We can see that the usage of the tense and voice does not always correspond to the conventionalized patterns in the moves. Overall, the students had chosen the simple present to inform the readers about their RPs. In the following sample, the student used the present simple active in the move on methods:

In the theoretical part the author investigates and analyses the potency of information that can be held in memory. (A7)

It is obvious that the usage of the agent *the author* is not necessary since the reader knows who the author of the research is, as the agent is predictable by general knowledge. Therefore, the passive voice should be preferred at least in Moves 3 and 4 in order to reduce the importance of the agent noun phrase, which can be achieved by the passive voice. McCarthy argues that all the verbs must be in the simple past, except the concluding sentence if it speaks about future research. However, we agree with Kramina (2000), who considers that the usage of the present tense in Moves 1 and 4 is allowable, which seems logical in view of their functions.

Next, we analysed the abstracts in terms of the register. The *field*, which refers to the subject matter of the field of study, determines the choice of the lexical items used in the abstract. The following words indicating that the abstracts dealt with the methodology of teaching English as a foreign language were encountered: *English language acquisition, language teaching/learning, English as a foreign language, extensive/intensive reading, etc.* Such nouns as *research paper, observation, piloting, hypothesis, questionnaires, results, conclusions, methodology* were found, which indicated that the abstracts belonged to the genre of research paper writing. Moreover, some lexical items, e.g. *the pilot teaching* as in *<u>The pilot teaching</u> proved the fact that the children of young age …(A5)*, which is a research technique used in a particular study, signalled the beginning of Move 3 (Method) explicitly. For example, the nouns used at the beginning of the following sentence: *The results and conclusions of this research can be used* … indicated Moves 4 and 5. The most frequently met research act verbs were: *to investigate, to analyse, to prove, to demonstrate, to show,* which were used to describe past research activities, and discourse act verbs: *to discuss, to deal with, to argue*, which were used to refer to the students' research paper. Although all the verbs mentioned above can be found in other parts of RPs as well, they may also help identify the moves.

Other impersonal uses of language, such as *non-animate agents* (e.g. research demonstrates) and *nominalizations* (e.g. there is a common belief that) were found, which indicated that the texts were of the scientific register. The *tenor* influences the formality of the language, and such aspects as lack of contractions and the personal pronoun *I* contribute to it. There were no contractions found in the analysed abstracts. Only one abstract contained the first person pronoun *I,* and two abstracts had one accusative personal pronoun *me* and one possessive determiner *my* used in a noun phrase to refer to the author of the text, e.g.

> *Sometimes I noticed that my students were distracted, sometimes they were quite concentrated and interested, in such cases I had no problem with the discipline* (A2)

In the majority of the abstracts (15 per cent), the students had referred to themselves as *the author* or used such forms as *the present research paper/ bachelor paper/ paper/ research/ work; this/the research paper, this/the work, the bachelor paper* (70 per cent). Thus, the students had employed the formal style of writing by distancing themselves from the text either by using the definite article *the*, which indicates the assumed shared knowledge between the writer and reader about the author of the RP; or the demonstrative determiner *this,* which is used as an anaphoric reference; or the adjective *present*, which is a restrictive classifier whose semantic role is to limit the referent of a noun in relation to other referents. For instance,

> *The author researched the ability of the teacher…(*A13)
> *The Bachelor's paper includes the summative analysis of the relevant literature*. (A18)
> *This study is devoted to the theoretical approval of the significant role and use of the Internet aids in teaching foreign languages.* (A18)
> *The present research paper is focused on the problem…(*A13)

Written scientific discourse envisages not only the usage of the passive voice (70%), but also extensive usage of logical connectors, which ensure cohesion between units of discourse. However, in the studied abstracts, only the frame markers *first* and *second* were used to enumerate pieces of information in one abstract.

Interim conclusions on the abstracts from the academic year 1999/2000

It was observed that not all the abstracts contained the expected moves and lexico-grammatical features. In view of the schematic structure, the main problems encountered were muddled or missing moves, and in case of 6 abstracts inadequacy of their rhetorical function, i.e. 25 per cent of them contained an outline of chapters, which is expected to be a rhetorical move of the introduction, and one abstract had information on its structural elements. Moreover, not all the lexico-grammatical features ensured the functionality of the rhetorical moves. Therefore, it was concluded that the schematic structure of the RP abstract and its lexico-grammatical features of the moves must be conventionalized.

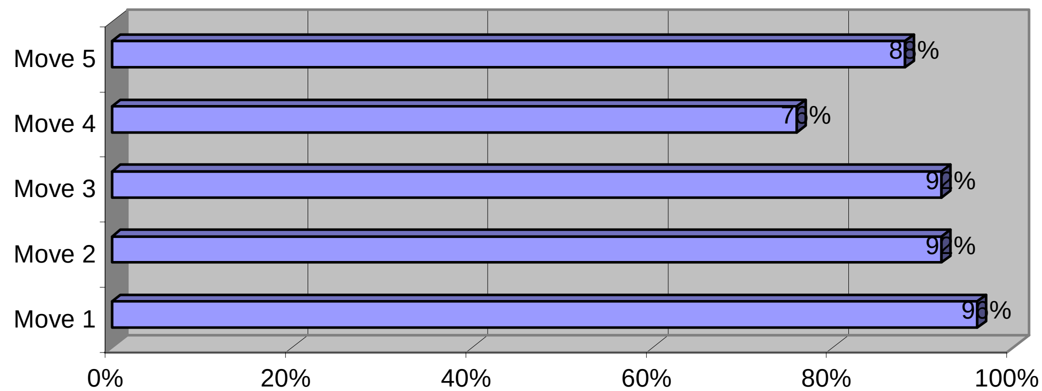
Having worked out BA paper writing conventions, approved in 2003, it was necessary to conduct a diachronic study in order to follow any changes in the students' linguo-functional research competence of writing abstracts. Therefore, this part of the chapter is based on a qualitative and interpretive analysis of fifty abstracts, comprising 8 905 words in the academic year **2003/2004**, the aim of which was to see whether the students had framed their abstracts within an appropriate rhetorical structure as specified in the BA paper writing conventions and whether the moves correlated with patterns of tense, aspect and voice. Let us look at a randomly selected abstract (BA20) and analyse its rhetorical moves:

Move 1 (1) *The paper is concerned with the development of cultural awareness in the English language teaching in connection with Canada.* **Move 2 (2)** *The main purpose of the research was to highlight the lack of activities at Primary School that would promote cultural understanding of Canada as one of the English speaking countries, as well as show that teaching culture (Canada) alongside with language is not only possible, but also necessary and valuable for learners.* **Move 3 (3)** *In order to build learners' cultural understanding of Canada, several activities were designed and tried out during the pilot teaching in an EFL classroom in school***. (4)** *The lack and later the improvement of learners' knowledge on Canada was tested and evaluated.* **(5)** *Their interest and attitude towards the research was checked with the help of interviews and questionnaires before and after the pilot teaching***. Move 4 (6)** *The outcome of the research turned out to be positive***. Move 3 (7)** *Questionnaires and test results serve as proof of that.* **Move 5 (8)** *This leads to an understanding that teaching about Canada alongside with other English speaking countries could easily be united with teaching the English language.*

Sentence 1 introduces the topic of the research and provides background to the paper (Move 1). Sentence 2 outlines the purposes of the research paper (Move 2) by giving explicitly the purpose statement (i.e. *the main purpose of the research*) and using the infinitive (*to highlight)*. Thus, the student gives an indication of her intention. Sentences 3, 4, 5 and 7 provide information on the methods employed, i.e. the pilot teaching (Move 3). Sentence 6 says *the outcome of the research turned out to be positive***,** which does not state explicitly the results of the research, but the reader can assume that it would mean that the students' interest about the issue under discussion had improved. However, a more direct summary of results was needed. In the last sentence (8), the author extends the results beyond the scope of the paper and as such could be considered to serve the purpose of giving conclusions (Move 5). Hence, from the analysis of the moves, it can be concluded that the sample abstract might correspond to the formal rhetorical structure of the abstract.

In general, the abstracts largely conformed to the generic structure of the abstract as specified in BA writing conventions (see Figure 5.1). It was found that 96 per cent of the abstracts contained Move 1, thus only 4 per cent of the writers omitted explicit introduction. In those cases, they started with Move 2: giving the aim of their research. In total, Move 2 was present in 92 per cent of the abstracts. In about 92 per cent of the abstracts, the students mentioned research methods; however, only 76 per cent informed the readers about the results of their conducted research. Eighty-eight per cent of the students informed the reader about the conclusions drawn.

Figure 5.1 **Percentage of Moves in Abstracts**



Thus, moves were missing, muddled or merged with other moves only in some abstracts, and sometimes moves were realized in the same sentence. For example:

(1) The conclusions drawn are based on the analysis of a questionnaire on the learners' needs and the pilot study. (2) The data obtained indicate that teaching of intercultural communication skills can be promoted by providing students with authentic materials and relevant reading, speaking, listening and writing activities. (BA28)

In sentence (1), one move is embedded within the other move: the student informs the reader about the research methods (Move 3) within the move on conclusions (Move 5). Although English syntax allows embedding one move within the other, the explicit mentioning of the conclusions might create false expectations about the content of the sentence. Moreover, the next sentence (2) indicates the results of the research (Move 4), but it does not say anything about the conclusions.

Since one of the major violations of the moves in the diachronic study was observed to be the presence of the summary of chapters, it was necessary to observe any improvement that could be traced. The summary of chapters, which was found to be present in 25 per cent of the analysed abstracts in the diachronic study (see above), were found only in 4 per cent of the papers, which is a very good indicator. For example, BA1 contained a brief summary of the RP not only in the abstract, but also a more detailed one in the introduction, which is a clearly unnecessary repetition and violates the communicative function of the abstract. BA14 failed to fulfil the communicative purpose of the sub-genre, as it has reproduced the Table of Contents, as we can see in the sample sentence below.

The given paper consists of 4 chapters: Chapter 1 "Basic Features of Written Business Communication", Chapter 2 "Business Letters", Chapter 3 "Contracts", Chapter 4 "Lexical Peculiarities of Business Language".

Second, we analysed the abstracts in terms of *field, tenor* and *mode*. In Table 5.2 below, we can see the rhetorical moves and tense, voice, aspect, and modality features as compared with the ones found in the abstracts under discussion:

Rhetorical moves	Tense/voice aspects	Tense/voice aspects (in sample abstracts)	Examples
1.Background /topic	Present Simple	Present Simple, Active voice	The present work deals with …The paper is concerned with…
2. Purpose or scope	Past Simple, Passive voice	Present Simple, the Infinitive of purpose; Past Simple,	The research paper aims at proving…The main purpose of the research was to…
3. Methods	Past Simple, Passive voice	Past Simple, Passive voice, Present Simple	Practical methods were used…Methods of research used…The empirical research consisted of…
4. Results	Past Simple Passive voice	Past Simple, Present Simple, Present Perfect tense	The results of the research showed…
5.Conclusions	Present Simple, modal verbs (could, may, might) to state conclusions in a more cautious way.	Present Simple, modal verbs (could, can)	The results and insights gained in this research can be valuable… The results and conclusions of this research can be used in …

Table 5.2 **Comparison of Rhetorical Moves and Verb Phrase Patterns**

The first column shows the rhetorical moves of the abstract, and the second column shows the tense, modals, voice, and aspect of each move. The third column indicates the general preference for the tense, voice, aspect and modal patterns in sample abstracts, and the fourth column provides lexico-grammatical examples from them. The usage of tense and voice does not always correspond to the conventionalized grammatical patterns in the moves. Although the past simple is preferred in moves 2, 3, and 4, there is a frequent usage of the present simple. The students had chosen the present simple to inform the readers about their RPs, which seems to be wrong in view of the communicative function of the abstract. It has been also argued earlier that the passive voice except in Move 1 and Move 2 should be preferred.

Not only the presence of the passive voice, but also the linking adverbials assign a written mode to the text, which can serve the same purpose. Moreover, they attribute to the cohesion of the text. Since linking adverbials are common in research genres, the abstracts were analysed to see what devices were used in order to show the connections between parts of the texts. A few sentence adverbials were found, e.g. adverbials of comparison and contrast: *in comparison with…; on the one hand…on the other hand;* an adverbial of result: *thus* and conjunctions of addition: *not only…but also, as well as and* a conjunction of reason: *because of*, conjunctions of concession: *although..*

The *field* largely determines the writers' specialization and the topic of the study. Since the BA papers dealt with the fields of linguistics and applied linguistics, we expected to find words reflecting the propositional content of the texts. The ideational meaning was expressed through the use of such vocabulary as *language learning motivation, tense-aspect forms, untraditional methods of memorization,* etc. The usage of such concrete nouns and their attributive adjectives as *the present paper, the theoretical part, the research, the conclusions, the investigation, the present study* indicated the research genre. Moreover, some lexical items helped the reader to identify a move. For example, the noun phrase used at the beginning of the following sentence: *The results of the research showed that* Canadian English *vocabulary…* . (BA13) explicitly indicated Move 3: Results. The selection of research act verbs indicated a research genre: *to show, to apply, to investigate, to analyse, etc.* Impersonal uses of the language, such as *non-animate agents* (e.g. the paper investigates) and *nominalizations* (e.g. there is a common belief that) showed that the texts were of the formal style. A frequent usage of noun phrases, e.g. *Conclusions drawn from the analysis* and prepositional phrases, e.g. *the summative analysis of theoretical literature* showed that the abstracts belonged to the scientific discourse.

The *tenor* of discourse was realized by the interpersonal function of the text. The abstracts were searched for the pronouns *I, me, my, we, us*, and *our* and each case examined to ensure it was an exclusive first person use, i.e. that it referred only to the writer of the RP. The usage of the first person pronoun *I* was observed in the case study reported on in the diachronic study; however, there were no instances of the first person singular or plural pronouns used to refer to the writer himself, which showed the writer's stance with regard to the audience. Instead, some students used the noun *author* with the definite article *the*, which indicated the assumed shared knowledge between the writer and reader about the author of the abstract; or the noun phrases, e.g. *the author of this paper/ the author of the Bachelor paper,* where the demonstrative determiner *this* was used as an anaphoric reference. Thus, the students probably had chosen to highlight the researched topic and had adopted a less personal style; presumably this had been done to help reinforce an impression of objectivity. The interviews with undergraduate students suggested that the main reason for avoiding *I* was the belief that its usage was inappropriate in academic and research writing conventions that existed at the FML.

5.2 Synchronic Analysis of Macro-Level Structures of Introductions

The analysis of a written corpus of fifty introductions (40 351 words), which is based on the examination of the constituent parts or moves of introductions and the recurrent linguistic features, showed slight discrepancies from the conventions. The first finding was that the introductions were variable in length: from 411 words in BA 43 to 2333 words in BA 33. The second one referred to the schematic structure of the introductions, the results of which are discussed below.

We view the sub-genre of the introduction as a piece of discourse that introduces a longer piece of discourse, i.e. the BA paper. Thus, the function of RP introductions is to show the reader what the writer is doing in the thesis (general background of the study and significance of the problem); why he/she is doing it (stating a goal and enabling objectives) and how he/she is doing it (proposing a hypothesis, informing about subjects/ participants / population; research context or site; methods of the research); also to get the reader into the research somewhat gradually (outlining the chapters of a research paper). Therefore, we expected the students to claim the relevance of the investigation undertaken and to inform the reader about the aim, enabling objectives, hypothesis, the research methodology, and a brief outline of the body of the RP.

	Swales model	**Faculty of Modern Languages model**
Move 1	**Establishing a territory**	**Move 1** General background of the study Significance of the problem
Step 1	Claiming centrality and/or	
Step 2	Making topic generalizations 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**	**Move 2**
Step 1	Outlining purposes or	Stating goal and enabling objectives
Step 1b	Announcing present research	Proposing a hypothesis Informing about subjects/ participants/population; research context or site; methods of the research;
Step 2	Announcing principal findings	
Step 3	Indicating research article structure	Outlining the chapters of research paper

Table 5.3 **CARS Model for Article Introductions (Swales, 1990) Compared with FML Model for RP Introductions**

As it was argued in Chapter 3, the introduction has conventions about layout and register that are important to acquire for non-native English students to use English appropriately, which is necessary for membership into a particular discourse community. Nevertheless, variations within the introductions as to its schematic structure are allowed since the choice of certain moves can be affected by the requirements of a discourse community.

Thus, the FML model has been based on the practices followed at the FML and those of Latvian research traditions, and the model proposed by Swales. Table 5.3 compares Swales model and the conventions of writing RP introductions at the FML. It can be seen from Table 5.3 above that the FML has specified only two moves. A number of factors have accounted for it. According to UL Regulations (www4), a Bachelor Paper is 'research conducted by a student, which testifies to the acquisition of theoretical, practical knowledge and methodology in a particular research field or within the scope of a study programme.' Thus at this level, it does not really envisage the students to conduct a novel research. Therefore, we cannot expect them to counter claim or indicate a gap, but if they do, it should be evaluated accordingly. In his later work on introductions, Swales (2004: 230-231) argues that 'the options of "counterclaiming" or "question-raising" may not *functionally* be very different from gap-indication' and that it is not always easy to separate the steps.

According to Swales, Move 2 should raise questions or continue a tradition; however, it seemed to us that the rhetorical purposes of Move 1 and Move 2 should merge since by having given the background of the study and stated the significance of the problem, the student as if continues a tradition and raises research questions, which are reflected in Move 2 Step 1: the goal of the research paper and hypothesis or research questions. We also do not expect our students to review items of previous research thoroughly in Step 3 of Move 1;however, they should be encouraged to put their research into context, i.e. they should mention the researchers or theories they base their research on, but a detailed literature review is reported on in the chapters following the introduction.

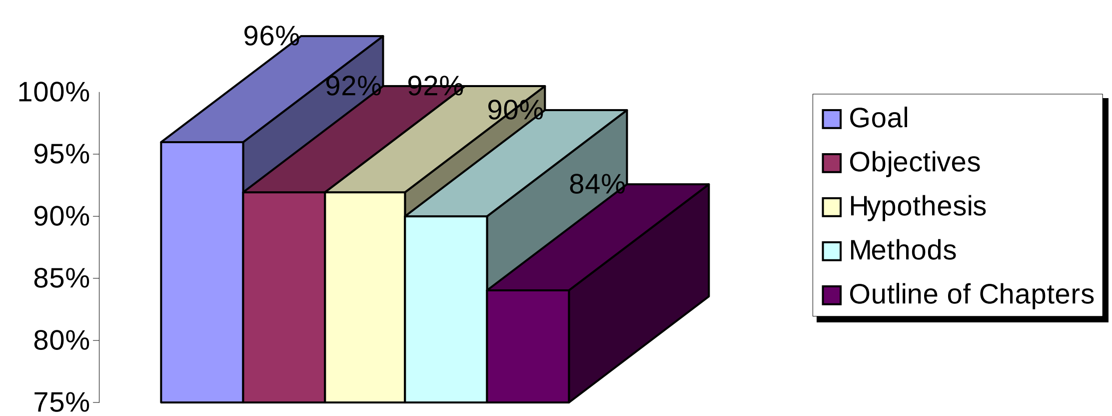
The BA papers' introductions analysed below were written in direct response to the conventions approved at the FML. Therefore, we were interested in finding out whether the communicative functionality of the introductions corresponded to that of introducing the reader with a longer piece of discourse and whether their move structure complied with the one outlined in the conventions.

The data received from the analysis of the corpus of introductions enabled us to conclude that almost all the papers complied with the communicative function of the introduction; however, a few variations were observed. For example, BA 50 informed about the results of the research at the end of the introduction (see below); however, BA 48 did not meet the expectations of the readership at all since only Move 1 was present.

In general, they all started with Move 1: establishing a field by giving a general background of the study and proving the significance of the problem. Having analysed Move 2 (see Figure 5.2 below), it was observed that out of 50 introductions the enabling objectives were stated in 92 per cent, methods in 90 per cent, hypotheses in 92 per cent, and the goal of the papers was stated in 96 per cent of the BA papers. However, sometimes the goal was implicitly stated as in BA3 where we found it integrated in the analysis of chapters. Moreover, it was not clear whether the aim referred to the whole research conducted or only to its practical part, e.g.

Chapter V *is a practical one. There is a discussion and analysis of the survey among students at school and students at the university. The aim of the research was to prove that reading types do promote students' achievements in reading skills as well as find out learners' awareness and usage of RT according to definite purposes. It is also significant to find out students' ability to state a purpose.*

Figure 5.2 **Percentage of Steps in Move 2 in 50 Introductions**



We may conclude that the rhetorical sequencing of the elements of Move 2 in the introductions has achieved the intended purpose of the move.

We have selected one introduction for a detailed analysis in order to illustrate its schematic structure:

Move 1 Step 1 General background of the study

Language is the means of communication among people, and it stays alive through speaking; thus speaking is the most significant and the most common way of communication. As regards foreign language learning, speaking skills can be considered as one of the most significant matters, which deserves much attention.

Learning a foreign language is hard work because a young learner should understand and use unfamiliar language in order to communicate. Besides, communication is not only an exchange of facts, but it also conveys a speaker's opinion, feelings and attitude towards the message produced, thus the learner should be taught even to think in a foreign language in order to succeed in communication.

Contemporary education system in conformity with the education standard sets a task not only to get good results, but also pays much attention to the process itself and methods used. In the course of time various methods and approaches have been used emphasizing different language points and techniques for teaching foreign languages. However, nowadays the Communicative Approach has become very popular, which focuses on pupils' meaningful communication in a target language, since it aims at making pupils be able to communicate outside the classroom in the real world.

Move 1 Step 2 Significance of the problem

Nowadays it is very topical to make a teaching process more enjoyable. The use of games in a study process is a very useful help in this case. Games can be used to facilitate the complicated language learning process and even make it exciting.

However, many teachers are precarious about their frequent usage in a classroom; they have not discovered the importance of using this method yet and use it only as a compensation for good work or as a time filler. Even worse, some teachers use games as a time waster. Though, children accept games as entertaining activities practised in a playground. Thus they lose their anxiety and feel encouraged to interact and communicate. Games possess not only entertaining but also educational character since they provide language practice for steadying the obtained knowledge and give a possibility for learning something new in a pleasant and unconstrained atmosphere. Games deserve the most of recognition for their ability to create a meaningful context for language use. Realistic language environment is one of the main conditions for successful study process.

The theme "Games as an Effective Means of Developing Primary School Learners' Speaking Skills" was chosen to show the importance of active and creative action in a foreign language lesson, which arouses interest in cognition and deliberate pleasure.

Move 2 Step 1 Goal of the research paper

Therefore, the goal of the research paper is to prove that games are the most effective means of developing primary school learners' speaking skills.

Step 2 Enabling objectives

The enabling objectives of the present research are:

1) *to read and analyse pedagogical, methodological and also psychological literature on developing learners' speaking skills,*
2) *to read and analyse the theory on communication games for developing speaking skills in the English lesson,*
3) *to adapt the theories to the present research to be used with the primary school learners,*
4) *to carry out the necessary research activities: pilot teaching, student observation, spreading and analysing the results of the questionnaire on the game usage in a classroom,*
5) *to draw relevant conclusions on the advantages of using games in teaching speaking skills to primary school learners.*

Step 3 Hypothesis ***Hypothesis of the present paper is the following: if primary school learners are provided with an opportunity to learn the English language through games, their interest and enjoyment of learning the language would increase; as a result, fostering the development of their speaking skills.***

Step 4 Subjects/participants/population; research context or site; methods of the research

The empirical research was conducted in Tukums Secondary School Nr 2 with two 3rd Forms during the first term of school year 2002 – 2003. It was done in the form of an experiment and a questionnaire. The experiment consisted of pilot teaching, during which one form was taught by the help of supplementary games, and pupils' observation.

Step 6 Outline of the chapters

The research paper consists of four main parts. Chapter 1 discusses the characteristic features, functions, techniques and types of activities of the Communicative Approach. Chapter 2 deals with the development of speaking skills in primary classes. Chapter 3 discusses pedagogical value of games by clarifying the advantages of using games in the English language lessons and analyses the usage of games for teaching speaking skills to primary school learners. Chapter 4 reports on the results of the experiment. First, it discusses the results of the experiment during which English language lessons of two Forms were observed and compared. The Form that was taught by the help of supplementary games comprises the experimental group of 15 participants. The other form, consisting of 14 pupils, comprises the control group. A game is also used as a post-test for evaluating and comparing pupils' progress. Finally, the chapter deals with the results of the questionnaire of both groups.

The research proved that the English language could be successfully taught by integrating communication games in the study process. They provided the necessary atmosphere for successful communication and increased the pupils' motivation, leading to a qualitative development of the pupils' speaking skills and the English language knowledge on the whole. *(BA 50)*

In this introduction, we find a two-move structure. The first two paragraphs give a general background of the study and establish the field (Move 1, Step 1). The student achieves the communicative function of Move 1 by introducing the research field. She shows that the particular research area is relevant, interesting and problematic. Move I also provides a context for the study, as it focuses on the developments in the relevant field: English language teaching methodology that makes the problem seem worth studying and the method worth testing. The paragraph beginning with *Nowadays…* marks the beginning of Step 2 - significance of the problem, which is continued in the next paragraph: *The theme…* Move 2 - preparing for the present research begins with *Therefore, the goal…,* which is Step 1- goal of the research paper. The student announces explicitly Step 2: *The enabling objectives*, and Step 3: *Hypothesis of the paper …* . The sentence beginning with *The empirical research* introduces Step 4 - population; research context as well as the methods of the research. However, the last paragraph beginning with *The research proved…*violates the communicative purpose of the introduction since it informs the readers about the results of the research. As it was argued in Chapter 3, the introduction has to introduce the research paper by placing the issue in a wider context thus making it relevant; however, its task is not to inform about the end result of the research, which is the function of the abstract and the conclusions of the RP.

If we compare the introduction above with the one below, we find clear differences. The analysed introduction was the only one, which clearly flouted not only the established conventions regarding the macro-structure, but did not meet the expected level of linguistic competence either.

Move 1 Step 1 General background of the study

The world is big and wide; the world is stable. Two poles – North pole and South pole – are irreconcilable, but at the same time the world changes and sometimes it seems that the world has become very small: North and South poles have joined. The world together with its society changes century after century, year by year. People and cultures during centuries and years mix; languages mix. Probably nowadays it is even impossible to find a country where only one language is spoken. The world and society have become multicultural and multilingual.

All countries in Europe are faced with the gradual evaluation towards multilingual societies. This trend is reflected in the schools. The way in which countries deal with the growing numbers of bilingual pupils and the changing environment of all pupils, differs from country to country with respect to curriculum aspects, not only explicit language teaching.

Move 1 Step 2 Significance of the problem

Bilingual education is becoming increasingly important in language policy in education throughout Europe. Bilingual education, i.e. teaching non-language subjects through a foreign language is perceived as an efficient way to increase the level of proficiency in the students' foreign language and to prepare them for European citizenship. Another advantage of bilingual education is that it will make students (and workers) mobility across European countries easier to effect.

Problems and advantages of bilingual education have reached Latvia, too. Bilingual education is social offer. Schools in Latvia should work according to the enrichment model which aim is to develop Latvian and Russian languages and cultural pluralism. Conditions of this model are equality of both languages in information and usage competence.

Minority primary education programmes provide new functions for Latvian language: to be able to use it in studying process and to promote integration of the society. Language is not only an aid of communication it is an aid of knowledge.

In the bilingual education Latvian language from the individual subject becomes an aid of education that enlarges environment of Latvian language usage in minority schools. By introduction of bilingual education in minority schools, great attention is paid to languages and cultures of minorities in the relation with Latvia.

Bilingual education is a new way that makes education more varied. Bilingual education helps to make relation between languages and cultures providing students with great opportunities in the further life and actions.

Education in nowadays should meet requirements of the society of the current century and it should non-stop develop in relations with needs and requirements of this society.

In the education system it is important not to stick to the existing values but research society and find out its needs and establish new methods, and introduce these methods in education system. It is really important to remember that what was new yesterday probably is quite old today. Education system should develop together with its society hand in hand.

In <u>my</u> bachelor paper <u>I</u> want to find out how does the multilingual society effects work in schools? How do different countries approach these developments in their respective societies? How do these approaches influence students, teachers and parents thinking, how do they solve these problems in school and family? In <u>my</u> bachelor paper <u>I</u> want also to present needs of pupils, problem areas in schools, different aspects of educating bilingual pupils and teachers, students and parents different points of view about bilingual education. <u>I</u> also want to find out which competencies do teachers need in order to meet pupils 'needs? (BAI 49)

Thirdly, we explored the <u>lexical patterns</u> of the moves found in the analysed introductions. The students provided a context for the study and introduced the research field by means of the following lexical patterns in <u>Move 1 Step 1</u>:….*has become especially important in recent years; Recently, there has been growing interest in…; The role of…has changed significantly in the last decades. Many recent studies have focused on…; The problems of…. have a long history and have been interpreted in many ways. The problem of introducing one or several foreign languages to young learners encouraged researchers to investigate the peculiarities of …*

<u>Step 2</u> *The applied linguists (…) have come to the conclusion that… .*

Some sentences in Move 1 served as links between what had been done and what the present research would do.

Consequently, it is the responsibility of the teacher to introduce a new language to children in the most comprehensive and interesting way.

The language indicates that Move 1 has come to an end, sometimes a negative comment is used, e.g. *However, little information ... However, few researchers ...*

A contrastive statement was used, *the previous research …has concentrated on…;*

Move 2 outlines the purpose or states the nature of the research and indicates the structure of the thesis. The research problems and their significance are stated. A general statement of the research method used, the population of the research and its context are given as well.

The aim of this paper is to discuss/to show…
This paper reports on the results obtained…
The present research aims at showing the effectiveness of
The hypothesis of this investigation is as follows…
The paper suggests the following enabling objectives…
The enabling objectives of the Bachelor Paper are the following…
The following hypotheses are formulated…
The author hypothesizes that…

Step 3

Chapter deals with/ presents/ discusses/ proposes...

In general, the analysis of the students' BA papers in applied linguistics revealed their compliance with the principles controlling effective textual communication. The style adopted in the papers tends to make the authors' personal involvement less visible.

5.2.1 Interpersonal Metadiscourse: Hedges

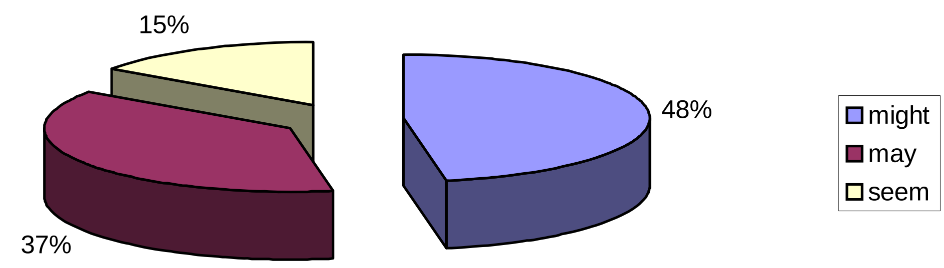
The analysed RPs in applied linguistics, mostly reported on the research of a qualitative nature: case studies, pilot studies, and surveys. The empirical research was often based on research tools: classroom observations, interviews, questionnaires; therefore, the information obtained from the respondents and the analysis and interpretation of documents were often treated as subjective. Generally, the issues being investigated depend on the behaviour of learners in classroom settings, and researchers may not be able to fully investigate the reasons underlying opinions of their target research population; hence, their inability of providing precise analysis of the observed phenomena. In order to ensure validity and reliability of the research, the data were also analysed statistically. Moreover, the undergraduate students often preferred to express their findings and resulting conclusions somewhat cautiously, using interpersonal metadiscourse: hedges. Therefore, the focus of the next part of the paper is devoted to the frequency and functions of hedging in the corpus. However, the analysis that follows is not exhaustive due to the large quantities of data in the corpus.

As it was argued earlier (see Chapter 3), the frequency of hedges in different sections of RPs is varied. Since the introduction is a hypothesis-making section in a RP, we expected to detect hedges there. Indeed, hedges occurred frequently in the presentation of research hypotheses – the ideas validity of which the students proceeded to consider in other sections of their RPs. The explicit formulation of a research hypothesis is mandatory for the students at the FM, and indeed forty-five (45) out of fifty (50) analysed RPs contained clearly formulated research hypotheses. In most cases, these hypotheses were marked as tentative by a variety of hedging devices. Thus, we may say that RPs in applied linguistics at the FML is a hypothetico-deductive model of research, empirical evidence being used to weigh the validity and reliability of the hypotheses.

The aim of this study was to examine the incidence of the key hedges in the introductions of the corpus of 50 BA papers comprising 40 351 words, the range of functions they fulfil and to offer interpretation of these functions that the most frequently used hedges perform in the context.

In order to identify hedging phenomena, we applied the surface level analysis and a reader-based pragmatic interpretation of the identified hedges (Hyland, 1998: 98-99). The RPs were scrutinized for the instances of those linguistic devices, and the selected items were coded <H> indicating the source RP. Due to the fact that hedging is a multi-faceted phenomenon, it was hardly possible to analyse them with an absolute degree of reliability. Therefore, the primary aim was to provide information as to the incidence of a variety of devices that can be perceived as hedges. Then, the context for each identified item and corresponding functions were analysed. The figures presented below are aggregated figures (instances per 1 000 words) as this allows comparison between RPs. First, we searched for the <u>modal auxiliary verbs</u>: *may, might, must, can, could, would, should, will.* The most widely used hedging categories that can be interpreted to express epistemic meaning in the corpus were modal auxiliaries *can, could, may, might*. As the modal verbs *shall*, *will, must, should* occurred rarely, we omitted them from the analysis of the data. Next, we sought <u>modal lexical verbs</u> *to seem, to appear; to believe, to assume, to suggest, to tend, to argue, to propose.* It turned out that the modal lexical verb *to seem* is the most recurrently used hedge in this group of verbs. Figure 5.9 below shows the comparative frequency of hedges in the corpus.

Figure 5.3 **Usage of Hedges per 1 000 Words**



<u>*Might*</u>, which is a more hypothetical alternative to *may*, was the most common hedge accounting for 48% (the incidence of 3.05 per 1 000 words).

> *If introduction of writing is postponed, it <u>might</u> be boring for the pupils to write printing letters, by that time they will be able to write lots of words (after visualizing them) and will want to do it using cursive script. (BA9)*
>
> *…to find ways that <u>might</u> be effective in the development of speaking skills in one-to-one teaching (BA14)*

The predominance of <u>*may*</u> was expected, granted that studies into modality have illustrated that *may* is the most typical modal hedge. In our RP corpus, *may* was indeed one of the most frequent hedging devices, the incidence of the auxiliary *may* was 2.41 per 1 000 words or 37%. For instance,

> *Students <u>may</u> know the rules of linguistic usage, but are unable to use the language itself. (BA11)*

The usage of *may* clearly shows toning down the degree of confidence invested in the accuracy of what is stated. Although we contended earlier (See Chapter 3) that it might be sometimes difficult to distinguish between epistemic and deontic modality, the cases with *might* and *may* in this corpus were not problematic. However, not all instances of *can* could be considered to be used as hedging devices. For instance, in example (1) below the negative form of *can*: *cannot* is used in the meaning of ability (i.e. the inherent capability of the subject to perform an action), whereas in sentence (2), it is used to express general possibility of the action to take place given the possibility:

(1) *Elementary school pupils are children of 7-10 years old and they cannot complete even very primitive tasks designed for an adult beginner of studying English. (BA19)*
(2) *Knowledge of the ways of teaching ESP one-to-one, the cross-cultural aspects of Business English in particular, can help a novice teacher to provide learners with activities preparing them for successful negotiations in four different cultures.*

The usage of *could* seems to indicate quite a high degree of tentativeness if compared with *may* and *might*, which can be illustrated as follows:

It also contains recommendations, which could be appreciated by any person interested in the course of business documentation writing. (BA17)

The usage of *could* involves a judgement on the part of the writer as to the truth of a proposition.

The third most often (0.99 per 1 000 words or 15%) used hedge was the modal lexical verb *to seem*, which is used to perform such acts as doubting, evaluating and avoiding a categorical statement as it can be seen in the example utterance below:

[...] the solution of setting up bilingualism in education seems to be the wisest. (BA33)

Thus, students' research writing is not only a collection of facts, which is revealed using an impersonal style. It is also is characterized by the usage of hedges, which are relevant linguistic elements in scientific discourse.

5.3 Analysis of Micro-Level Structures: Citation Practices

As it was argued in Chapter 3, accurate and balanced usage of citations and reporting verbs is a relevant indicator of the acquisition of LFRC, which indicates the students' ability to engage authoritatively with the knowledge gained from researching the available literature on the problem. Moreover, the citations not only tell the reader where the information comes from, but also indicate the student's and author's attitude to the particular issue. For the analysis of citation practices, we have selected the part of the identified RPs where we would expect the students to refer to previous research in the field, i.e. the first chapters of their RPs since they are expected to contain references to other research by relating what is known in the field to the study undertaken. The figures presented below are aggregated figures (instances per 1 000 words) as this allows comparison between RPs. The study aimed at finding answers to the following research questions:

1. Were there differences in the quantities of integral, non-integral, direct quotations, block quotations, paraphrases/summaries and generalizations?

2. What reporting verbs were used? Was there variation in the choice of voice and tense in different BA papers?

3. How were the obtained data similar or different from other research in the field?

In order to analyse the uses of citations in the BA papers in the corpus, the texts were skim-read and the located citations tagged, then quantified, and examined. First, they were tagged for citation type as an integral <I> or non-integral <NI> citation, a direct quotation<Q>, a block quotation <BQ>, a paraphrase/summary <P/S>, and a generalization <G>. The criteria, what counts as an integral or non-integral citation, a quotation, a block quotation, a paraphrase/summary, and a generalization, were first agreed on and then given to two experts. Each person was given two chapters to tag. The tagged texts were then analysed and compared, and the final version of the tagged citations was agreed on. Following Swales (1990), the citations were divided into integral and non-integral ones. Let us consider the following sample citations:

(*1) Introducing English to children at primary level also reflects the need to expose them from an early age to an understanding of foreign cultures (Brumfit, 1991:vi) and thus broaden their cultural horizons (Rixon, 1999:vi). (BA11)*

(2) Byrnes (1984:16) points out that pitch is not very subtle, conveying only the most basic information about mood and emotion. (BA11)

It was agreed that citation (1) is an example of a non-integral citation since the reference to the authors is in parentheses, and it does not have an explicit grammatical role in the sentence. Whereas sentence (2) is an integral citation, which is a part of the syntax of the sentence, and the citation appears in the form of a name followed by a year and page numbers.

Following Hyland (2000), the citations were also divided into direct quotations, paraphrases/summaries, block quotations, and generalizations. It was agreed that sample (1) below is an integral citation and a direct quotation. Although it is indented, it cannot qualify as a block quotation since it has 18 words. According to the BA writing conventions at the FML, a quotation has to have more than 40 words in order to qualify as a block quotation.

(1) *Eugene I. Taylor (Harvard University) (1999:91) defines creativity slightly more explicitly and states that it is:*

"A general trait of personality in which the person shows manifest ability to produce and develop original ideas;… ."(BA9)

Thus, the direct speech should have appeared within the sentence, preceded by a comma. Sentence (2) below is a non-integral citation and a paraphrase since it is a brief summary of the authors' idea in the writer's own words and has a reference to a concrete page.

(2) *Creativity focuses on a large unit of analysis, more on a totality rather than a specific answer. (LeoNora M. Cohen, Don Ambrose, 1999:11)* (BA1)

Sample (3) is an integral citation, a paraphrase and generalization since it refers to several authors.

(3) *A. Koskina from the University of Keele (Koskina, 2000:24), Taylor A., Turner J. from the University of Reading (Taylor and Turner, 2002:30) point out that definite font style…*(BA10)

Sentence (4) is an integral citation and a direct quotation since it is integrated within the text.

(4) *Registers, "refer to styles, which vary considerably, within a single user's idiolect." (Brown, 1997:208)* (BA13)

Sample (5) is an example of a non-integral citation, a paraphrase and a generalization.

(5) *…characteristics of Young Learners that is stressed by the experts of this field, … (Cameron, 2001; Moon, 2000; Brumfit, 1991; Satchwell, de Silva, 1995).* (BA13)

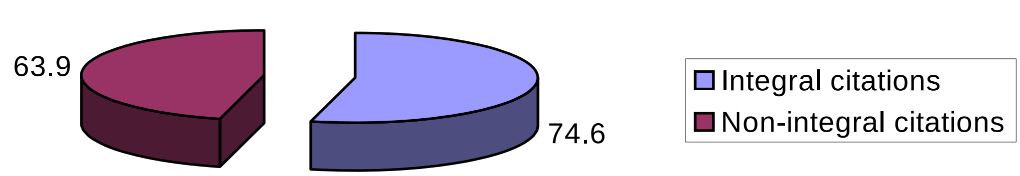
The last sample (6) is a non-integral citation, as it seems that the student has chosen to de-emphasize the role of the authors.

(6) *These assumptions are still not fully been proved (Cameron, 2001: 13-14; Brumfit, 1991: vi-ii) and they basically refer to second language learning situation, …*(BA13)

The tagged citations were counted, and the numbers were entered into Excel spreadsheets. The figures then were converted into aggregate figures per 1 000 words, which was done by multiplying the figure by 1 000 and dividing by the number of words in the chapter. Thus, if there were 42 <I> tags in a chapter of 3417 words, 42 was multiplied by 1 000, to produce 42 000, and then divided by 3 417 to produce a final figure of 12.3 meaning that the <I> tag for that particular chapter occurred on average 12.3 times in every 1 000 words.

Linguistic entities in the Bachelor papers are viewed as interdependent units that can be examined in terms of the three macro-functions (ideational, interpersonal and textual) and the support function (argumentative). The analysis of the text corpora revealed different forms and functions of citations in RPs. The pie chart below (Figure 5.4) shows the ratio of integral to non-integral citations per 1 000 words in 50 RPs. It appears that the authors have given greater emphasis to the reported author rather than the reported message: 74.6 instances of integral citations if compared to 63.9 instances of non-integral citations. The distinction between integral and non-integral citations can be viewed as a formal one; however, it also has a functional aspect. The choice between using a non-integral citation instead of an integral one is often governed by decisions as to how much prominence to give to people referred to. If a writer has chosen an integral citation by including the citation source in the sentence, he/she might have wished to place focus on the researcher, who becomes the subject of the clause. This might be explained by the novice researchers' respect for the authorities in the field. On the other hand, the usage of non-integral citations might indicate that the writer has wanted to emphasize the proposition (e.g. the finding, the data) and de-emphasize the researcher by placing the author in parentheses.

Figure 5.4 **Ratios of Integral Citations to Non-Integral Citations per 1 000 Words**



The pie chart above gives us a general tendency towards using surface forms of citations; however, the analysis of individual texts revealed that the ratio of integral and non-integral citations in them is completely unbalanced.

The bar chart below (Figure 5.5) shows the relative frequency of use of integral and non-integral citations per 1 000 words of text in ten sample RPs. The density of integral and non-integral citations varies, e.g. from 7.8 instances of integral citations per 1 000 words

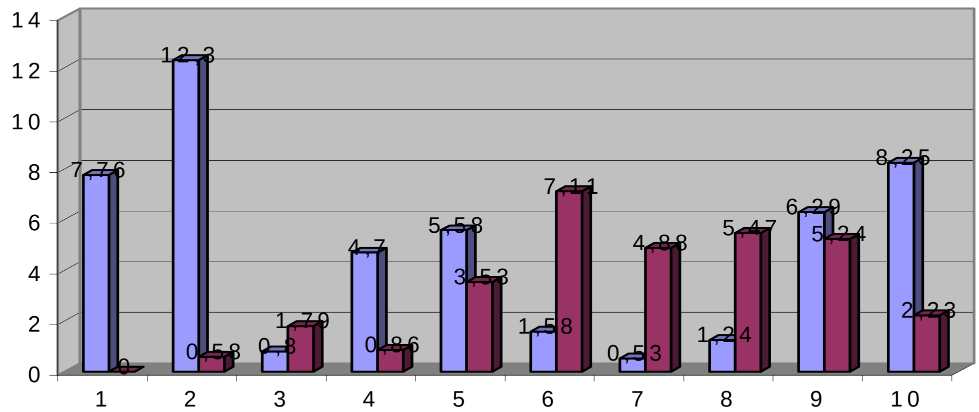
(BA1) to 0 instances of non-integral citations per 1 000 words. By contrast, BA6 uses non-integral citations (7.1) far more often than any other paper. Integral citations make up 1.6 instances. Only BA9 seems to have a more or less balanced usage of citation forms: 6.3 integral citations to 5.2 non-integral citations.

In order to investigate the likely reasons for selecting one or another citation form, we analysed BA1 more closely. Seven point eight (7.8) instances of integral citations seemed to indicate that the rhetorical preference of integral citations had been facilitated by the author's intention to give greater prominence to the cited authors. The analysed chapter dealt with the origin of English, which seemed to suggest that the propositional content was more important than the cited authors unless there was a difference of opinion. In the sample extract below, we can see that the author had showed the source of information in the first paragraph; therefore, it seems that further the author should have selected non-integral citations by indicating the cited source in parentheses. Moreover, it seems to be widely acknowledged that English belongs to the Indo-European language family, and that historically the development of the English language is divided into 4 stages: as such a reference to the source in parenthesis would have been enough. Moreover, this information seems to be common knowledge available in a wide variety of sources such as encyclopedias and textbooks; therefore, it does not need acknowledgement at all. Thus, the wrong usage of citation type might indicate that although the student had acquired the mechanics of writing quotations, she was not aware of the pragmatic aspects of quotations.

> *The origin of English will be standardized according to Myers and Montague's (1972:95-99), and Fennell's (2001:1-2) analysis. Parallel with these sources in the area of history of the English language, additional information will also be taken from D. Wilton's (2003) article A Brief History of the English Language [Online]. …*
> *Authors Myers and Montague (1972:95) provide information that English belongs to the Indo-European family, and the three branches with which English is most concerned are the Greek, Latin, and Germanic, particularly the last. ... Fennell (2001:1) divides the process of the historical development of English into four stages: Old English, Middle English, Early Modern English and Modern or Present Day English.*

It is interesting to compare the data from Hyland's (2000) research discussed in Chapter 3 since in his study, overall preference in applied linguistics was given to non-integral citations, thus giving prominence to the proposition rather than the researchers.

Figure 5.5 **Ratios of Integral and Non-Integral Citations per 1 000 Words in 10 BA Papers**



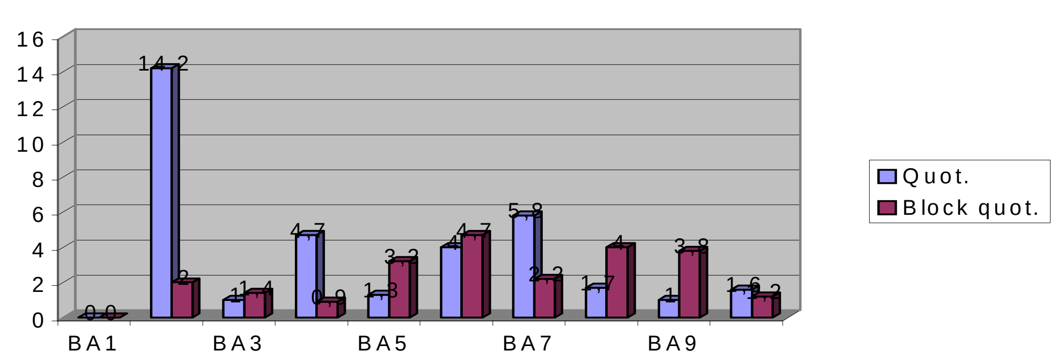
However, as this research has proved, different students take varied approaches to research, and their rhetorical choices may be determined by the nature of their research. Since research in applied linguistics is often qualitative and discursive, it was expected that writers would use more integral citations, which was confirmed by the data received from this research. If we compare our data with Hyland's research, we see a substantial difference: writers in applied linguistics tend to display a distinct preference for non-integral citations, i.e. 65.6 per cent if compared to 34.4 per cent of integral citations as reported in Hyland (ibid). To compare with the data received from the present research: fifty-four (54) per cent integral citations if compared to 46 per cent non-integral citations. Hyland (ibid.) reports that only writers in philosophy tend to prefer non-integral citations (35.4 per cent) to integral citations (64.6 per cent) since the texts are long narratives that integrate the arguments of other writers.

Next, a comparative study of quotations and block quotations in BA papers was made in order to find out what the students' rhetorical choices were. However, at this point a retrospective study into the course *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research* is necessary .Given appropriate instruction on referencing and an opportunity to practise it, and taking into consideration their self-evaluation of the elements of the acquired competence (see Chapter 4), it was expected that the first year undergraduate students should have well-developed research competence of dealing with quotations and paraphrases. However, the analysis of their course reports indicated the lack of accuracy and variety of citation types within single texts. The students frequently overused direct quotations; they were often too long and were not indented or used with quotation marks when indented. Another problem observed was the wrong usage of quotation marks, i.e. using the lower case instead of the upper case; mixed usage of single and double quotation marks. The absence of certain types of citations, e.g. generalisations was observed. The students exhibited lack of linguistic variety in terms of reporting verbs, and such generic reporting verb as *say* tended to be overused in their reports.

In view of the observed deficiencies that were in contradiction to their claimed acquisition of the elements of the linguo-functional competence, it was necessary to find out whether their acquisition had taken place with the help of support activities in the students' subsequent academic studies in the relevant programme.

As it can be seen from the bar chart below (Figure 5.6), which shows sample ratios of direct and block quotations per 1 000 words of text in ten sample theses, the density of direct and block quotations varies, e.g. from 14.22 instances of direct quotations per 1 000 words (BA2) to 2.05 instances of block quotations. BA9 has 3.84 instances of block quotations if compared to 1.05 cases of direct quotations. For example, BA1 does not have any direct or block quotation.

Figure 5.6 **Ratios of Quotations to Block Quotations per 1000 Words**



It was decided to review the cases of direct and block quotations of BA2 since it had the largest number of direct quotations and see whether the student had followed the conventions for BA paper writing at the FML, which state that short quotations (i.e. direct quotations) are incorporated within the text. When quoting, double quotation marks should be used. When the material the students quote contains yet another quotation, the second quotation should be enclosed in single quotation marks. Longer quotations (more than three lines in length) are set out separately; they must be single-spaced, and indented from the left and the right hand margins by 5 characters.

Having reviewed instances of quotations in BA7, it can be concluded that the student had several flaws: she had used direct quotations instead of block quotations in several cases. For instance, the sample below has more than three lines (59 words); therefore, the student had to use a block quotation:

e.g. The human brain has several systems of memory that all work together to form a coherent picture of past experiences. "Student's memory contains more than just the sounds, words, and structures of language plus their meanings. [..] students retain information about time, about their past emotions and purposes, about what things can do in the world, and about what they themselves have done within their own minds. They even remember that they know certain things about their own knowing…"(Stevick, 1996:17)

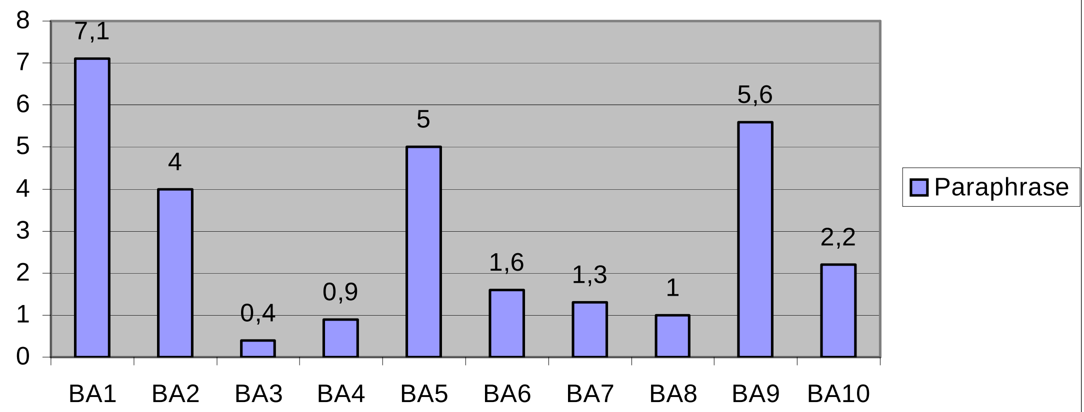
In another example, although the student used a block quotation, several deficiencies were observed, e.g. the quotation was not indented (only the first line of the quotation was); the quotation marks were not needed; the quotation was not single spaced.

Another author, Yantis (2001:94), defines memory in the following way:
"We assume that memory is the bridge between the past and the present. We assume that memories accumulate and are stored somewhere, that they are images, or pictures, or representations of the past; or that memory is actually psychological, non mental [..] that memory is the basis of all learning; that memory is the basis of habit; that memories live on the unconscious."

It was found that seven instances identified as direct quotations had to be block quotations. Thus, it would have been 4.39 instances of direct quotations per 1 000 words compared to 4.1 instances of block quotations per 1 000. However, it should also be stated that in three cases the student had failed to write block quotations correctly. The same and similar flaws, i.e. a direct quotation indented, were found in other BA papers as well, which makes us conclude that not all the students have acquired this research competence.

Next, we studied the instances of paraphrases in the theses. As it can be seen in Figure 8.4 below, the density of paraphrases varies from just 0.4 per 1 000 words (BA3) to 7.1 (BA1), which seems to be unequal distribution.

Figure 5.7 **Instances of Paraphrases per 1 000 Words**



For instance, the student in the sample below had paraphrased a text and indicated the source in the parentheses. We cannot comment on the accuracy of the paraphrase since we would have had to compare it with the original, which due to the large amount of texts in the corpus was impossible.

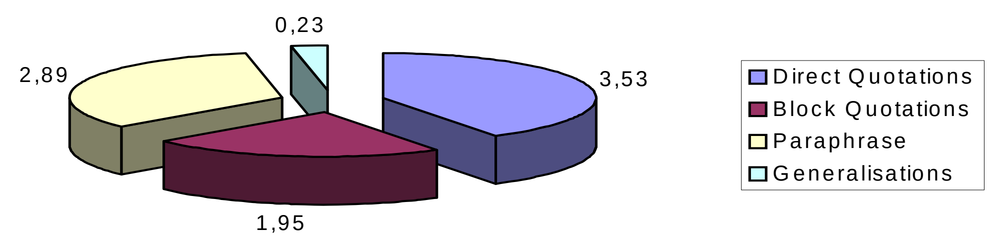
> *Many learners attend EGBP courses at a language school and groups will usually be formed on the basis of the students' language level rather than on their occupation. There is a range of good published materials for students and teachers to choose from, with the input in the text, audio and video format plus CD-ROM (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998:55). (BA17)*

Next, we compared the frequency of different types of citations in the RPs. As it is shown in Figure 5.8, the majority of citations were expressed as direct quotations (3.53), with paraphrases comprising 2.89 instances per 1 000 words. Block quotations accounted for 1.95 cases, whereas generalisations were found only in three BA papers out of ten. For example:

> *To continue, the type of EAP situation may categorize the complex notion of EAP into English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (EASAP). (Blue, 1988, Dudley-Evans T.& St John M., 1998:41) (BA10)*

There were 0.66 (BA7), 1.05 (BA9), 0.58 (BA10) instances of occurrences per 1 000 words. Thus, in seven RPs there were no generalization type citations at all.

Figure 5.8 **Ratios of Direct Quotations, Block Quotations, Paraphrases and Generalisations per 1000 Words**



Overall, in the corpus of 50 Bachelor papers, the same preferences in terms of citation type were observed.

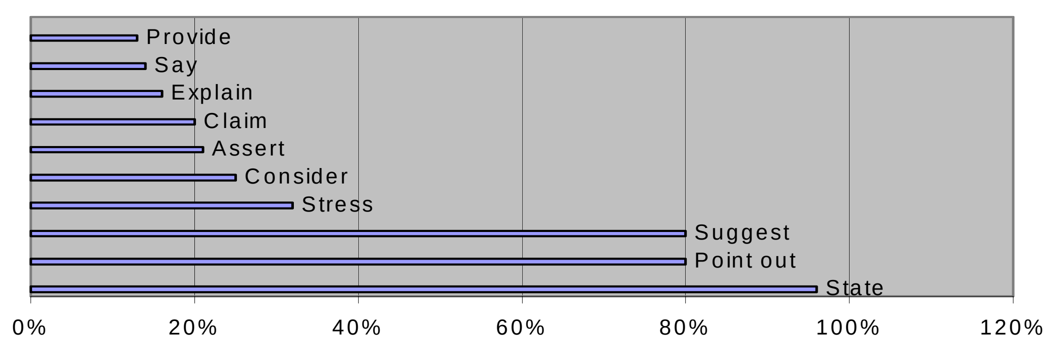
We followed the same pattern of tagging system and data processing procedure as with the types of quotations in order to identify the categories of evidentials or reporting verbs, which are used to refer to the source of information from other texts, and tense choice used to attribute sources in the RPs. The text files for each corpus were opened, and skim-read on the screen. The reporting verbs were searched for and whenever one was located, it was tagged: a tag <v> was added after the verb so that the reporting verbs could later be identified, by searching all the texts for the <v> tag. Then the theses were skim-read on the screen. In order to find out about preferred uses of tense in the reporting verbs in the citations, verbs were also tagged for tense and voice: the present simple active <PrA>, the present simple passive <PrP>, the past simple active <PA>, the past simple passive <PP>, the present perfect active <PPA>, the present perfect passive <PPP>. Once all the files had been tagged, five of them selected randomly were tagged for a second time, and then checked against the first tagging. The accuracy rate was 94%, which was considered satisfactory. The following extract taken from BA1 is an example of what a tagged file looks like.

Allen (1983)<I> states<v><PrA> that not all classroom time should be spent pronouncing words; interactive activities related to vocabulary are important and even essential. Allen (1983)<I> posits<v> <PrA> that although the foreign language instructor is responsible for helping to expand and enrich students' vocabulary knowledge, it is not his responsibility to entertain the students while teaching.

As it can be seen from the extract above, <I> was used here to indicate that it is an integral citation because the citation attributes the whole proposition to Allen (1983); the <v> tags appear after the reporting verbs *states* and *posits*. Tense and voice, the present simple active, are shown in tags appearing after the reporting verb tags. For example, the discourse verb *states* is used in the present simple active, and it may indicate that the student wanted to make a general claim and show that the ideas suggested by her are supportive of the writer's work. Next, the numbers were entered into Excel spreadsheets. The figures then were converted into aggregate figures per 1 000 words, which was done by multiplying the figure by 1 000 and dividing by the number of words in the chapter. Thus, if there were 4 <v> tags in a chapter of 2 666 words, 4 was multiplied by 1 000, to produce 4 000, and then divided by 2 666 to produce a final figure of 1.5 – meaning that the <v> tag for that particular chapter occurred on average 1.5 times in every 1 000 words.

The students used a wide variety and a more argumentative type reporting verbs, which might be explained by their wish to elaborate a shared context in order to demonstrate the relevance and reliability of prior studies. The most frequently used verbs are shown in Figure 5.9 below.

Figure 5.9 **Most Frequently Used Reporting Verbs**



Among the higher frequency reporting verbs were *suggest, explain,* and *point out,* which are the most often used reporting verbs also in Hyland's reported research on applied linguistics texts. The most common verbs used in the examined BA papers were *state* (96 per cent), *point out* (80 per cent), *suggest* (80 per cent) and *stress* (32 per cent), which are discourse act verbs because they involve verbal activity. For instance, the discourse act verbs *state* and *point out* are factive verbs since one can *state* or *point out* something only if he/she knows it:

> *Ur (1983:45) states that it is also very important for a teacher to provide listening material that presents the features of spontaneous speech. (BA12)*
> *Byrnes (1984:16) points out that pitch is not very subtle, conveying only the most basic information about mood and emotion. (BA12)*

Suggest is a tentative non-factive verb, which is used to say something that is likely to be true or exist, e.g.

> *Hutchinson and Waters suggest that ESP is an approach to English language teaching that determines upon the learning context and relevant methodology by means of assessing the learner's needs. (Hutchinson T., and Waters A., 1987:19) (BA37)*

Stress *is a factive knowledge verb, which is used to emphasize the proposition as in the example below:*

> *Anita Jakobsone, chairperson of Latvian Adult Education Association, stresses that the formation of lifelong learning in Latvia has been difficult and slow.(BA5)*

The fifth most frequently used verb was the non-factive cognition verb consider (25 percent):

> *Underwood (1989:97) considers that the role of a "technical operator" is an important one as the smoothness that a teacher uses the equipment with will significantly influence the atmosphere in which the students listen, and how easy or difficult it will be for them to concentrate. (BA12)*

In general, as it was expected, research verbs were not preferred in the chapter on literature review. Although the non-factive verb claim was not among the five most frequent reporting verbs, some BA papers employed it extensively. The word is used where we cannot speak of knowledge yet; therefore, it seems that it was often misused. For example, the paraphrase below is introduced with the non-factive reporting verb claim, which is used 'to say that something is true, even though there is no definite proof' (Macmillan Publishers Ltd. 2002).

> *Underwood (1989:32) claims that by "learning to listen" it is meant that we want our students to attend to what they hear, to process it, to understand it, to interpret it, to evaluate it, to respond to it. (BA12)*

Thus, the majority of students preferred factive verbs to non-factive verbs, which suggests that they selected mostly those authors and propositions they had agreed with. It was important to find out the students' opinion about the reasons for selecting a particular reporting verb. The interviewed students answered that they did not pay attention to the functions of the reporting verbs, as they were primarily interested in using as many different reporting verbs as possible.

Since the selected tense can indicate a writer's stance towards the cited work (Swales, 1990: 154), we shall hypothesise about the likely reasons for the choice of the reporting verbs used in the literature review. Thus, we would expect the students to use the present simple to claim generality and relevance of previous literature to their current research. They may also use it to show that the proposition expressed is true regardless of time: it is a generally accepted fact or a part of current knowledge. We would expect them to use the past simple to claim non-generality about previous literature and to refer to past research that does not support their research directly or to refer to the research done at a point in the past. The student would use the present perfect to claim generality about previous literature and to indicate a continued discussion or to refer to previous literature that is directly related to their current research.

Having tagged and analysed the tense and voice used in the corpus of theses, we can conclude that the reporting verbs were overwhelmingly expressed using the present simple active (83%). There was an occasional usage of the present perfect active (48%) and the past simple active (64%). However, sometimes it seemed that not all the students were really aware of the functional meaning of tenses in reporting verbs. Thus, speaking about the communicative competence, the student in BA36 used the present simple active and the past simple active on the same page:

(1)…which Richards (2001:36) defined as " the capacity to use language appropriately in communication based on the setting…"
(2) Savington (2001:17) also singles out the concepts of text coherence and text cohesion in the discourse competence.

The first extract (1) uses the past simple active, which could mean that Richard's statement was not of relevance to her research, or that it could not be generalised. However, the opposite seems to be true, as the student had researched communicative approach in her paper and Richards is a recognized applied linguist. However, in the second extract (2) the student used the present simple active when referring to another linguist. To illustrate the usage of the present perfect, let us look at the following sample extracts:

(1) *Several applied linguists have proposed their definitions of ESP as a discipline.*
(2) *…Hutchinson and Waters suggest that…* (BA37)

In (1), the student used the present perfect active to refer to available definitions of ESP that seem to be important for her research, and she used the present simple active to claim relevance of the previous literature in extract (2). In general, either the present simple or the present perfect can be used to claim generality and relevance of previous literature to the current work. In the following sentences, the verb choices seem to be wrong. The student (BA13) occasionally used the reporting verbs in the past simple.

(1) *Four years later, in 1952 the diversity in definitions of culture <u>was provided</u> by the anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn…*
(2) *Hofstede (1991:8), who <u>characterized</u> culture as…*

Example (1) above is in the past simple passive since the student referred to the research done in the past, and the reference to Hofstede (2) was made in the past simple active. Since Hofstede is considered to be one of the key persons in the field, we might speak about generality of Hofstede's research and use either the present simple or the present perfect. Although the student's choice does not seem to be well grounded, we should respect her choice. However, in the same paragraph, continuing the idea, the student used the simple present, e.g. *He indicates that…*Next, the student argued that the concept [culture] became very popular in the late 20th century and referred to Britannica Concise Encyclopedia using the present simple passive: *...where it is defined as.* Thus, it seems that the student might not be aware of the functionality of the reporting verbs.

5.4 Evaluation of Constitutive Principles of Textual Communication in Literature Review

When representing the knowledge of the academic meaning system, a particular way of organizing this knowledge is preferred. The key factor in understanding the students' competence of language use for research purposes has been the analysis of the texts. As a result of the analysis, we have arrived at a deeper understanding of the ideational meaning of the texts in the corpus.

According to the ideas developed in Chapter 3, an utterance was analysed into two parts: one of which carried the theme and the other carried the rheme. The methodological system used to analyse the presentation of the propositional content in the corpus of the Bachelor papers was drawn from the principles of the Systemic Functional Linguistics theory, which take the text as the unit of analysis, and which determine the structure of an utterance by its use in the context. We perceived linguistic features as interdependent units and analysed them in terms of the three metafunctions: ideational, interpersonal and textual, and one support function: argumentative and at different levels: context, text, clause, lexico-grammatical patterns.

As it was argued in Chapter 3, an important feature of scientific discourse is the organization of propositions in utterances; therefore, we examined the textual metafunction and evaluated the student research writing by evaluating the location of important information in utterances and testing the applicability of Halliday's theme/rheme construct and the thematic patterning in the research texts.

It was expected that the theme (the given information) in an utterance would normally precede the rheme (the new information). The theme is the element that has been mentioned prior to a particular point in the text, and that can be recoverable from the text itself (linguistic context) or from the extra-linguistic situation (context of situation). For example, by saying that '*Several applied linguists have proposed their definitions of ESP…' (BA37*), the student assumes that the information is inferable from the context of knowledge by the reader; thus, it cannot be treated as new information. The rheme is the element that has not been mentioned prior to that point in the text and that is not recoverable from the extra-linguistic context. We analysed the theme-rheme structures in the corpus of RPs, by applying the progression patterns proposed by Daneš (see Chapter 3) to three randomly selected BA papers. The analysis has revealed the following schemes of thematic progression: 1) simple linear progression:

T1 ⟶ R1

T2 (=R1) ⟶ R2

T3 (=R2) ⟶ R3

> *(1)Another problem that a student might meet is that he is not always in a position to get the speaker to repeat an utterance. (2)This particularly happens when a student is having a conversation outside the classroom. (3)During the conversation a listener has to do his best to follow a speaker, although in some circumstances it is possible to stop the speaker and ask for clarification.(BA12)*

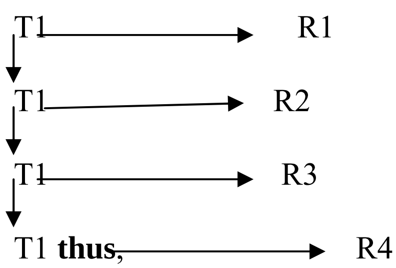
In the foregoing sample extract, the theme is identical to the rheme of the preceding sentence. The rheme of the first clause *to repeat an utterance* is taken up by sentence (2) and becomes its theme, using spatial deixis *this*. The rheme of sentence (2) *a conversation* is expressed again in sentence (3) with the help of an opening prepositional phrase and the definite article *during the conversation.*

This pattern was evident in the introductions and discussion sections (70%) of the analysed BA papers, in which the students dealt with the explanation or exposition of ideas or research results.

2) The second pattern that has been identified is the continuous theme progression, which can be seen in the sample below:

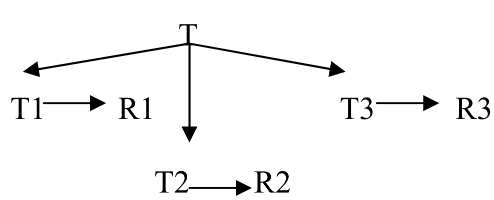
> *(1)Placement tests help a teacher to determine the level of students' knowledge. (2) They are useful when placing students in groups of a proper language level, or preparing university entrance exams. (3) These tests are made according to the wordlists, e.g. AWL, and thus, (4) they give information about the number of words known by students and the words' frequency level. (BA 25)*

The underlined words indicate given information. The elements that convey given information in all four utterances make reference to the preceding entity *placement tests*, which is the grammatical subject in sentence 1. Cohesion is achieved with the help of the anaphoric reference, which is realized by deictic expressions: the person deixis *they* in sentences 2 and 4, demonstrative pronoun *these* in sentence 3. Sentence 4 is preceded by the logical connective of result *thus*. The theme and rheme relationship in the paragraph above can be represented schematically in the following way:



In general, this type of patterning was the most widely adopted (80%) and appeared extensively in Move 3, Step 3 in the introductory part of the RPs, the methods/results section in the descriptions of state and procedure of the research conducted.

3) The third pattern found in the corpus of BA papers was that of a hypertheme. The pattern can be represented schematically as follows:



(1)Chapter 6 was divided into three parts each of which served a unique purpose. (2)The first part of the research represented the beginning of the learning process of a foreign language in tertiary settings. (3)The second part of the present research was related to the observation of a lecture. (4)The third and the last part corresponded to the studying progress and results. (BA25)

The hypertheme is a full utterance (1). Subsequent utterances (2), (3) and (4) express subthemes derived from the hypertheme. The endophoric marker *Chapter 6* and its subthemes *the first part of the research, the second part of the present research, the third and the last part* are entities of review metadiscourse that refer to the preceding chapter of the RP. This pattern was observed in the discussion part of the analysed BA papers (50%); however, not as frequently as the preceding two patterns.

It can be seen from the sample extracts above that the themes are the subjects of the clauses, which can be realized by nominal groups, prepositional phrases and which fulfil an ideational function; and the rheme or the new information is a complete predicate.

However, information in the texts was not always organized effectively. For instance, the students frequently expressed the rheme before the theme. Sometimes, there were not any progression patterns observed, as it can be seen in the sample extract below:

Observation implies shadowing specialists at work for the purpose of analyzing the target situation.
Analysis of authentic texts may be a very valuable source for designing classroom activities and the course design in general.
The purpose of assessment is to analyze students' performance with the help of different classroom assignments and tests. (BA 35)

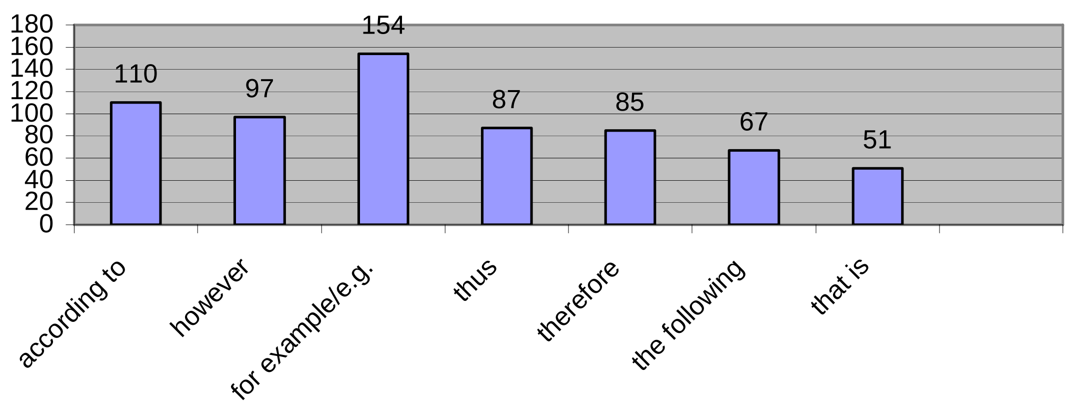
Apparently, the organization of the content depends on the rhetorical purpose of the writer. The thematic progression in the text can be evaluated in relation to cohesion, as it allows the analysis of the key features of scientific discourse at the lexico-grammatical level. In some of the foregoing samples and from the extract below, the students have employed explicit signals, i.e. textual metadiscourse in order to assist the reader to understand the connections between the parts of the text.

(1)The focus of this research is on developing learners' speaking skills in ESP; therefore,(2) it seems very essential to gain an insight into ESP as a discipline. Thus, (3) this chapter is going to consider various definitions of ESP and its classification.…(BA37)

In the example above, the first sentence can be analysed in two parts, the one starting with the noun phrase *the focus of this research* bears given information, which is inferable from the context of situation, and the other introduced by the logical connective, expressing the semantic relation of result *therefore,* which bears new information, i.e. *ESP as a discipline*. The linear text reference *the focus of this research* gives the overview of the BA paper as a whole. The next sentence introduced by *thus* serves as a linear preview of the chapter.

As it was argued earlier in the paper (see Chapter 3), the macro-structural analysis of the text cannot be properly understood without the analysis of the effect of cohesion, which plays a core role in creating genres and registers; therefore, this dissertation aims at finding out the formal and functional properties of the metadiscourse used in students' Bachelor papers and analysing the results of their relative frequency distribution in the RPs. In order to obtain their relative frequency, we used the method of quantitative data analysis and followed the same pattern of tagging system and data processing procedure as with the types of quotations and reporting verbs in order to identify the incidence of these linguistic entities. The average occurrence of the metadiscourse per 1 000 words of text was calculated so that comparisons could be made between the texts of differing lengths. The research showed us the frequency of metadiscourse, allowing us to identify particularly common and uncommon words. The analysed BA papers revealed the performance of an array of the functions of metadiscourse dealt with in Chapter 3.

Figure 5.10 **Instances of Metadiscourse**



According to Figure 5.10, the students have preferred the code glosses: *for example* and the abbreviation *e.g.* (154 instances), *the following* (67 instances) and *that is* (51 instance), which are used to help the readers understand the meanings of ideational material; the evidential *according to* (110 instances) in order to refer to the source of information from other texts; the logical connector *however* (97 instances) used to express contrast and the logical connectors *thus* (87 instances) and *therefore* (85 instances) to show result/inference.

It appears that the students' RPs are not only ideational in function, i.e. reporting on the results of the research, but also argumentative, which is demonstrated in the following passage. The parts of the passage that have a clear argumentative function have been underlined.

> *The analysis of the theory on language games in ESP and the application of the theory to the study of the role of language games in the research have <u>given rise to several crucial conclusions</u>. ...For instance, the task may require the learners to function as leaders of a group, informers, participants, etc. <u>Furthermore,</u> assuming a role, the students have to determine upon the relevant strategy to accomplish the task and their key behavior. <u>Evidently</u>, the learners' skills of analyzing the situation properly and making a decision turn to be very crucial. (BA37)*

The student has used the evidential *evidently*, the logical connector *to give rise to conclusions*, which expresses summation. The noun *conclusions* is used with the adjective *crucial*, emphasizing the persuasive character of the conclusions. The connector *furthermore* has the function of addition linking. Although in the majority of cases, the conjunction links were used when interdependency was not obvious or should be emphasized, in some instances metadiscourse elements, especially logical connectors were overused, as it is shown by the sample paragraph below:

> *Since ESP is concerned with the learner-centered approach to teaching, the learners'influence on the teaching/learning process is very valuable. <u>Firstly</u>, the learner's subject knowledge is of great importance. <u>To continue</u>, learners may take part in devising teaching materials. <u>Moreover</u>, learners should provide feedback for the teacher regarding the course design and materials and methodology. <u>To summarise</u>, the teacher in ESP has the role of a practitioner who performs several functions. (BA37)*

The analysed research texts did not construe information only as general, well-established knowledge held to be objectively true, they also questioned the proposition presented. Explaining research results scientifically refers to the way science constructs explanations on the basis of experiments, case studies, observation or other research methodology applied. It is the relationship between theoretical studies and application of the student's research activities in a particular context that influences the choices of the linguistic constituents in the language.

Interim summary

The macro-structure of the BA papers was fairly homogeneous in terms of the generic structure of the genre, conforming to the patterns characteristic and appropriate to the communicative purpose of the genre. The differing rhetoric structuring of the abstracts and introductions, which was achieved by means of rhetorical moves, succeeded to accomplish its communicative purposes.

The results of the analysed research papers have revealed that the undergraduate students have adopted an impersonal style to help reinforce the objectivity and reliability of the results of the research, and probably they are afraid of promoting the impression of personal contribution and confidence. The micro-level structures: the tense and aspect choices of the moves in the abstracts and introductions matched the textual organization and helped to accomplish their communicative purposes.

It has been argued that the students are expected to undertake a review of the literature in their field in order to show familiarity with the topic they are researching. Besides, they are required to cite references in a standard format recognized by their disciplinary discourse community and a broader research context of the relevant discipline. Having produced statistical information on preferences among the undergraduate students for integral or non-integral citation forms, direct quotations, paraphrases, block quotations, generalisations and different reporting verbs and tenses, we seem to be able to draw conclusions:

a) although on the surface level the students have acquired the skill of referencing, a deeper analysis reveals that not all the RPs conform to the conventions, and that the students are not always aware of the pragmatics of source attribution;

b) the students used a wide variety and a more argumentative type reporting verbs, which might be explained by their wish to elaborate a shared context in order to demonstrate the relevance and reliability of prior studies;

c) the proper choice of reporting verb contributes to the accuracy. The linguistic aspects of reported speech are dealt with in Normative Grammar II and III; however, it seems that too little attention is being paid to the semantics of specific reporting verbs that can be used in writing up research.

Next, we intended to uncover the ordering of information in written discourse and concluded that in general the authors have adopted the theme-rheme perspective in the organization of propositions. The models propounded by Daneš appear to be applicable in helping to reveal the internal organization of the Bachelor papers.

a) Cohesive links were formed across the majority of sentences and texts forming complete arguments. The most frequently occurring linguistic constituents contributing to cohesion were the code glosses, the evidentials and the logical connectors used to express contrast and result/ inference..b) Logical connectors were identified as the mechanisms for indicating the information structure.

The argumentative function allows the students to advocate their propositions. Hedges are seen as interactive elements between the proposition in the students' RPs and the student-writer interpretation. Modal auxiliary verbs were the most typical means of making epistemic comment in the corpus and were used to:

1) reduce the risk of opposition and avoid personal responsibility for statements;
2) avoid absolute statements if contradictory findings arise;
3) comment on the accuracy of propositions made;
4) present finding pending acceptance by the discourse community (politeness strategy).

Hedging is one of the core rhetorical devices that can be used as a means of modifying the style of writing; and therefore, should be practiced in the support courses of the relevant programme.

Conclusions

The creation of the theoretical foundation for the development of the LFRC leading to a BA thesis and the analysis and assessment of the students' competence level as manifested in their independent research were the key aims in undertaking the research.

1. We have come to the conclusion that the linguo-functional research competence is preconditioned by a number of linguistic principles:

1) the speakers/writers' awareness and application of Cooperative Principles in spoken and written discourse allows them to convey a purpose beyond that signalled by a genre form. The particular inferences that may be drawn from the amount of relevance, clarity, accuracy and being informative communicate much additional information;

2) the communicative purpose of conducting research, writing and defending a BA thesis draws the students' attention to its social aspects and the addressees' expectations in terms of the register and the functions of the language.

The students' LFRC as demonstrated in their RPs is socially contextualized. It entails the students' knowledge of the context of knowledge: the written and spoken discourse, the subject matter being investigated, BA paper writing conventions of a particular discourse community; the knowledge of the context of situation: the domain determining the register of the language to be used, and the ability to use the above knowledge to accomplish the preparatory linguistic functions and the resultant linguistic functions in the institutional and international contexts for research purposes, which lead to the end product: a BA thesis (the linguistic context).

2. The analysis of the spoken and written discourse has enabled us to conclude that the written mode and the spoken mode used for academic and research purposes differ on a number of dimensions; however, the spoken and written language coexist in many complex patterns of use. Such more formal contexts such as university lectures, academic presentations of research papers have elements of the written mode, which interact and reinforce each other. Thus,

1) the use of spoken and written English for research purposes does not depend on exclusive particular features of each mode rather on the particular uses of these modes. The awareness of similarity between the modes proves to enhance the students' LFRC than the assumptions of distinct categories of language use;

2) the ability to recognize a rhetorical structure achieved by the usage of metadiscourse and other linguistic entities employed in the academic spoken discourse would allow a student to reproduce these linguistic elements in written discourse for research purposes. Thus, frequent activation of formal schema in one mode has an impact on its use in the other mode.

3. The results of the analysis of linguistic theories have enabled us to characterize the language functions and to pinpoint the language phenomena in the spoken and written discourse necessary to be research competent in English in the relevant context. From this perspective, we investigated how the language users exploit the resources of the English language for research purposes in the international context in order to uncover the typical patterns of the language used in the students' BA papers in the context of the FML. The applied theoretical framework of discourse analysis comprised the analysis of the formal and functional aspects of the scientific discourse since the acquisition of the register characteristics is fundamentally important for the development of the LFRC.

4. The analysis of the genre theory has allowed us to see a BA thesis not only as a product of an individual student, but also

1) as a social act since a RP is produced and defended in the institutional context considering the international context of the relevant disciplinary discourse community in order to accomplish the communicative purpose of research: to inform the addressees of the results of the conducted study. Meeting the expectations of the relevant discourse community is viewed as a commitment to representing the discipline specific issues to it as a member of this community. The choice of linguistic elements for research purposes made by language users is determined by their functional properties. These functional properties can be described in relation to the three macro-functions and the support function underlying a BA thesis.

A BA thesis as a metafunctional construct fulfils the following linguistic macro-functions**:** the ideational function, by communicating the research knowledge; the interpersonal function, by interacting between the addressor and the addressee; the textual function, by organizing the ideational and interpersonal meaning into a text. Moreover, a BA thesis performs a support function: the argumentative function, by using adequate linguistic means to advocate a proposition and to argue its feasibility by trying to persuade the addressee about the validity and reliability of the findings of the research;

2) the macro-structure of a BA thesis is divided into relevant constituent parts, reflecting major shifts in a communicative purpose within the macro-text;

3) the variation in the rhetorical structuring of the abstract and the introduction is accounted for in terms of variations in their communicative purposes. The sub-genres have their own integrity, which is identified with reference to text-internal and text-external factors. The contextual text-external factors include such characteristics as the communicative purpose(s) and institutionalised disciplinary community aims; the relationships that exist between the reader and the writer in the relevant discourse community, which have implications on text-internal linguistic features, i.e. the tense and voice aspects, lexical choice, organization, etc.

5. The information that we received from the analysis of the corpus of authentic linguistic data was about the relative frequency of the tokens of different types of linguistic elements and their functional usage at two structural levels: at the macro-level and at the micro-level:

1) the macro-level analysis of the corpus of BA papers revealed a fixed system of structural organization and the co-occurrence patterns of the groups of text-external and text-internal linguistic features along with their functional dimensions;

2) the communicative purpose of the abstract written at the FML is achieved through five rhetorical moves, which are communicative acts designed to achieve the communicative aims;

3) the communicative purpose of the introduction is accomplished through two rhetorical moves and several key steps. The moves give the sub-genres a typical structure, and the linguistic realization of the moves is determined by the communicative purposes of those moves;

4) the genre of the BA papers requires the usage of a number of text-internal linguistic entities (the linguistic context) characteristic of the scientific discourse:

a) the avoidance of the second person singular pronoun. The avoidance or the restricted usage of the first person singular pronoun, which is substituted for by the first person plural pronoun or the third person singular pronoun. The pronouns used as explicit reference to the author of the paper generally do not have a textual referent; they act as interpersonal metadiscourse and do not have any influence on the cohesion of the text. The first person plural pronoun loses the number distinction;

b) the third person singular pronoun used to refer to the author of the paper often loses the gender distinction. This person deixis acts as an anaphoric entity as it refers back to a previously mentioned noun phrase *the author*. The anaphoric third person pronoun becomes the *theme* of the sentence, ensuring the information structuring of the text; it has a direct influence on the cohesion of the text;

c) the formal style is ensured by the usage of the noun phrase *the author* to refer to the writer of the paper. The determiner *the* does not act as an anaphoric reference. It indicates the assumed shared knowledge between the writer and the reader about the author of the RP, which is determined by text-external factors (the context of situation).

d) the passive voice (70%) is common in the students' RP papers, which is used to give a sense of objective detachment from the presented facts;

e) the restricted use of logical connectors in abstracts is connected with its communicative purpose: to inform the addressee about the results of the research, taking into account the principles of effective communication;

f) the linguistic constituents of textual metadiscourse are used to indicate a relationship between the preceding and the subsequent sentence. The students' RPs are not only ideational in function, as the increased deployment of contrast/concession and result/inference logical connectors indicates a movement towards more abstract scientific discourse with an argumentative function. The connectors placed in the initial position ensure the information structure of discourse: the given information preceding the new information;

g) hedging performs both an interpersonal and argumentative function in a discourse for research purposes. The interpersonal function 1) contributes to the conventionalised style of research discourse. It builds the addressors' and the addressees' relationships in the institutional discourse community;2) assists in avoiding personal responsibility for statements and prepares oneself for a likely critical response from the addressees. It also helps avoid overstating an assertion that supports the student's position. The argumentative function of hedging assists in presenting an argument by establishing a niche. The students make a claim to the institutional discourse community while trying to argue the proposition and convince the addressees of the relevance of their research and findings;

h) the relationship between propositions is established through citations and reporting verbs, which establish coherence of a text. They signal assessment of the evidential status of the reported proposition and show the writer's range of commitment to the truth value of the reported proposition. The tense usage for reporting verbs indicates that tense choice is connected with the writer's stance towards a particular source and the degree of generality. The types of citations, which are used to persuade the readers of the validity of the arguments, can impart meanings to RPs, as they show the writer's attitude to his propositions, by establishing an appropriate interactional tenor.

Taking into account the above conclusions, the hypothesis of the present doctoral thesis advanced at the beginning of the research has been confirmed. The students' ability to fulfil the preparatory linguistic functions and the resultant linguistic functions is preconditioned by the relationships between the language and the context. Fostering the acquisition of the linguistic system underlying English for research purposes from the sole communicative language competence towards the genre-specific LFRC helps the students use the language more effectively for research purposes as it is manifested in their independent research.

The results of the research we have presented in this paper have dealt with several key linguistic issues. In helping the students acquire the LFRC, the focus should be on the development of the understanding of the core theories and empirical studies pertaining to the spoken and written discourse for research purposes. It can be best achieved through a critical reading and discussion of theoretical and empirical studies, lecture input, advisors' monitoring of the research process and product as well as through students' active participation in international conferences.

The findings of this research document the manifestation of the acquisition of the relevant LFRC necessary to be able to conduct, write and defend a BA thesis.

The detailed analysis of the students' RPs has provided the ways of making the tacit knowledge of students explicit for lecturers and students. Moreover, the identification of differing patterns of language use has helped us understand the differences among the students’ levels of acquisition of the LFRC. It is hoped that the conclusions drawn as a result of the conducted theoretical and empirical research would contribute to a richer understanding of the relevant language phenomena that the students have to acquire to be research-competent and would also enhance improved quality of tuition for the students studying at the FML.

Bibliography

1. Alderson, J.C. and Urquhart, A.H. (1984) *Reading in a Foreign Language*. New York: Longman.
2. Anderson J.R. (1985) *Cognitive Psychology and its Implications*. New York: Freeman.
3. Anderson, J. and Poole, M. (1994) *Thesis and Assignment Writing.* Brisbane: John Wiley and Sons.
4. Austin, J.L. (1962) *How to do things with words*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
5. Bachman, L.F. (1995) *Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
6. Bailey, S. (2003) *Academic Writing. A Practical Guide for Students.* Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes Ltd.
7. Baker, M. (1992) *In Other Words: A Coursebook on Translation.* London: Routledge.
8. Baltiņš, M. (2003) *Zinātniskā raksta struktūrelementi.* Konferences *Zinātnes valoda* materiāli. M. Baltiņš un D. Markus red. Rīga: Rasa ABC.
9. Bartlett, F.C. (1932) *Rememberring: a Study in Experimental and Social Psychology*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
10. Basturkmen, H. (2002) 'Clause Relations and Macro Patterns: Cohesion, Coherence and the Writing of Advanced ESOL Students', *English Teaching Forum*, 40(1):50-56.
11. Bazerman, C. (1988) *Shaping Written Knowledge*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.
12. Beard R. M. and Hartley, J. (1984) *Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.* London: Harper & Row.
13. Bell, J. and Opie, C. (2002) *Learning from Research.* Buckingham: Open University Press.
14. Beļickis, I., Blūma, D., Koķe, T., Markus, D., Skujiņa, V., Šalme, A. (2000) Pedagoģijas terminu skaidrojošā vārdnīca. Rīga: Zvaigzne ABC.
15. Bhatia, V.K. (2004) Worlds of Written Discourse. A Genre-Based View. Cornwall: Continuum.
16. Bhatia, V.K. (2002) 'A Generic View of Academic Discourse'. in J. Flowerdew *Academic Discourse.* London: Pearson Education.
17. Bhatia, V.K. (1997) 'Applied Genre Analysis and ESP' in T. Miller (ed), *Functional Approaches to Written Text: Classroom Applications*. Washington, DC: USIA: 134-49.
18. Bhatia, V.K. (1998) *Analysing Genre: Language Use in Professional Settings.* Harlow: Longman.
19. Biber, D., Conrad, S. and Leech, G. (2003) *Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English.* London: Longman.
20. Biber, D., Conrad, S. and Reppen, R. (1998) *Corpus Linguistics. Investigating Language Structure and Use.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
21. Biber, D. (1988) *Variation Across Speech and Writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
22. Blakemore, D. (2002) *Relevance and Linguistic Meaning: The Semantics and Pragmatics of Discourse Markers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
23. Blaxter, L., Hughes, C., Tight, M. (2001) *How to Research.* Buckingham: Open University Press.

24. Blūma, D., Grīnfelds, A., Kalnbērziņa, V., Kangro, A., Skujiņa, V. (2004) *Valodas prasmes pārbaudes terminu vārdnīca.* Rīga: LR Naturalizācijas pārvalde.
25. Brown, J.D. and Rodgers, T.S. (2002) *Doing Second Language Research*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
26. Brown, J.D. (2001) *Using Surveys in Language Programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
27. Brown, G., Yule, G. (1989) *Discourse Analysis.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
28. Brown, P. and Levinson, S. (1978) 'Universals in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomena', in E. N.Goody (ed), *Questions and Politeness: Strategies in Social Interaction*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
29. Brown, P. & Levinson, S. (1987) *Politeness*. *Some Universals in Language Usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
30. Bunton, D. (2005) 'The structure of PhD conclusion chapters.' *Journal of English for Academic Purposes,* 4(3): 207-224.
31. Bühler, K. (1934) *Sprachtheorie*. Gustav Fischer: Jena.
32. Burns, R.B (2000) *Introduction to Research Methods.* London: SAGE Publications.
33. Bussmann, H. (1996) *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*. London: Routledge.
34. Canale, M. (1983) 'From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy', in J. C. Richards and R. W. Schmidt (eds), *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.
35. Canale., M. and Swain., M. (1980) 'Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing', *Applied Linguistics* 1(1): 1-47.
36. Candlin, C., Mercer, N. (eds) (2001) *English Language Teaching in its Social Context. A Reader.* London: Routledge.
37. Carrell, P. L., Devine, J., Eskey, D.E. (1990) *Interactive Approaches to Second Language Reading*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
38. Carrell, P.L.(1990) *'Cohesion is not Coherence*', *TESOL Quarterly* 16(4): 479-488.
39. Carrell, P.L (1983) 'Background Knowledge in Second Language Comprehension', *Language Learning and Communication*, 2(1): 25-34.
40. Carrell, P.L., and J.C.Eisterhold. (1983) 'Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy', *TESOL Quarterly,* 17(4): 553-573.
41. Carrell, P.L. (1981) 'Culture-Specific Schemata in L2 Comprehension', in R.Orem and J.Haskell (eds) *Selected papers from the ninth Illinois TESOL/BE annual convention*, Chicago: Illinois TESOL/BE: 123-132.
42. Carter, M. (1990) 'The idea of expertise: an exploration of cognitive and social dimensions of writing', *College Composition and Communication,* 41(3): 265-86.
43. Chang, Y.Y. and Swales, J., (2005) 'Disciplinary variation in the use of theme in undergraduate essays', North *Applied Linguistics,* 26: 431-452.
44. Chaudron, C., Loschky, L. and Cook, J. (1994) 'Second Language Listening Comprehension and Lecture Note-Taking', in J. Flowerdew (ed) *Academic Listening: Research Perspectives*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
45. Chaudron, C. and Richards, J. (1986) 'The effect of discourse markers on the comprehension of lectures', *Applied Linguistics*, 7: 113-127.
46. Chomsky, N. (1965) *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

47. Christie, F. and Martin, J.R. (eds) (2000) *Genre and Institutions*. London: Continuum.
48. Christie, F. Rothery, J. (1989) ‘Genre and Writing: A Response to Michael Rosen', *English in Australia*, 9: 3-12.
49. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. (2001) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
50. Chung, T.M. and Nation, P. (2003) ‘Technical Vocabulary in Specialised Texts’, [Online] *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 15(2) Available from http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/ October2003/chung/chung.html Accessed 17.10.2004.
51. Coady, J. (1979) ‘A Psycholinguistic Model of the ESL Reader’, in R. Mackay, B. Barkman, and R.R. Jordan (eds), *Reading in a second language,* Rowley, Mass: Newberry House.
52. Coffin, C., Curry, M.J., Goodman, Sh., Hewings, A., Lillis, Th.M., Swann, J. (2003) *Teaching Academic Writing. A Toolkit for Higher Education.* London: Routledge.
53. Cook, G. (1990) *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
54. Cory, H. (2000) *Advanced Writing with English in Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
55. Cottrell, S. (1999) *The Study Skills Handbook.* Basingstoke: Palgrave.
56. Coulthard, M. (1991) *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis*. London: Longman.
57. Crème, P., and Lea, M.R. (1997) *Writing for University*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
58. Crystal, D. (1997) *English as a Global Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
59. Cummins, J. (1994) ‘Implementing the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach’ in A.U.Chamot and J.M. Malley *The CALLA Handbook.* New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
60. Daneš, F. (1974) ‘Functional Sentence Perspective and the Organization of the Text’, in F. Daneš (ed) *Papers on Functional Sentence Perspective*. Prague: Academia.
61. Day, R.A. (1998) *How to Write and Publish a Scientific Paper.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
62. de Beaugrande, R.A, and Dressler, W.U. (1981) *Introduction to Text Linguistics.* London: Longman.
63. de Beaugrande, R.A. (1991) *Linguistic Theory. The Discourse of Fundamental Works.* London: Longman.
64. De Carrico, J. and Nattinger, J.R. (1988) ‘Lexical phrases for the comprehension of academic lectures’, *ESP Journal,* 7: 91-102.
65. Dudley-Evans, T. (1999) *Genre Models for the Teaching of Academic Writing to Second Language Speakers: Advantages and Disadavntages.* [Online] Available at exchanges.state.gov/ education/engteaching/pubs/BR/functionalsec4_11.htm Accessed 24.08.2003.
66. Dudley-Evans, T. and St. John M.J. (1998) *Developments in ESP: a Multidisciplinary Approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
67. Dudley-Evans, T. (1994) ‘Variations in the discourse patterns favoured by different disciplines and their pedagogical implications’, in J. Flowerdew (ed) *Academic Listening: Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: CUP.
68. Dudley-Evans, T. (1993) ‘The Debate over Milton Friedman’s Theoretical Framework: An Applied Linguist’s View’, *in* W. Henderson, T. Dudley-Evans, and R. Backhouse (ed) *Economics and Language*, London: Routledge.

69. Dudley-Evans, T. (1987) ‘Genre analysis and ESP’, *ELR Journal,* 1: 1-9.
70. Dunkel, P.A. and Davis, J.N. (1994) ‘The effects of rhetorical signaling cues on the recall of English lecture information by speakers of English as a native or second language’, in J. Flowerdew (ed) *Academic Listening: Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
71. Dunkel, P. A. and Pialorsi, F. (1982) *Advanced Listening Comprehension*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
72. Eskey, D. (1973) ‘A Model Program for Teaching Advanced Reading to Students of English as a Foreign Language’. *Language Learning*, 23: 169-184.
73. Firth, J. R. (1957) *Papers in Linguistics 1934– 1951*. London: Oxford University Press.
74. Firbas, J. (1974) ‘Some Aspects of the Czechoslovak Approach to Problems of FSP’, in Danes (ed) *Papers on Functional Sentence Perspective*. Prague: Academia: 11-37.
75. Flowerdew, L. (2002) ‘Corpus-Based Analyses in EAP’, in L. Flowerdew, *Academic Discourse*. Harlow: Longman: 95-115.
76. Flowerdew, L. (2000) ‘Using a genre-based framework to each organizational structure in academic writing’. *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 369-377.
77. Flowerdew, J. (1995) ‘Designing CALL courseware for an ESP situation: a report on a case study.’ *English for Specific Purposes,* 14(1): 19-35.
78. Flowerdew, J. (1994) *Academic Listening: Research Perspectives*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
79. Fowler, H.R., Aaron, J.E. (1989) *The Little, Brown Handbook*. Boston: Scott, Foresman and Company.
80. Freadman, A. and Medway, P. (1994) *Genre and the New Rhetoric*. London: Taylor & Francis.
81. Geske, A., Grīnfelds, A. (2001) *Izglītības pētījumu metodoloģija un metodes*. Rīga: RaKa.
82. Gibbs, G., Habeshaw, T. (2001) *Preparing to Teach. An Introduction to Effective Teaching in Higher Education.* Wiltshire: The Cromwell Press.
83. Gillham, B. (2000) *Developing a Questionnaire*. London: Continuum.
84. Glatthorn, A.A. (1998) *Writing the Winning Dissertation.* California: Corwin Press, Inc.
85. Goodman, K.S. (1973) *Theoretically Based Studies of Patterns of Miscues in Oral Reading Performance.* Washington, D.C.: Department of HEW, Office of Education.
86. Goodman, K.S. (1967) ‘Reading: a Psycholinguistic Guessing Game’. *Journal of the reading specialist, 6 (1): 126-135.*
87. Grabe, W., Kaplan, R.B. (1996) *Theory and Practice of Writing.* London: Longman.
88. Grabe, W., Stoller, F.L. (2002) *Teaching and Researching Reading*. London: Longman.
89. Graetz, N. (1985) ‘Teaching EFL Students to Extract Structural Information from Abstracts’, in J. M. Ulign and A. K. Pugh (eds) *Reading for Professional Purposes: Methods and Materials in Teaching Languages*, Leuven: Acco.
90. Grasmane, I. (1997) *Kursa darbu, bakalaura darbu un maģistra darbu izstrāde*. Riga.
91. Green, S. (ed) (2000) *New Perspectives on Teaching and Learning Modern Languages.* Clevedon: Cromwell Press Ltd.
92. Grellet, F. (1991) *Developing Reading Skills*. Cambridge: CUP.

93. Grice, H.P. (1975) ‘Logic and Conversation’, in P. Cole and J. Morgan (eds), *Syntax and Semantics*, vol.3: Speech Acts, New York.
94. Gunawardena, C.N. (1989) ‘The Present Perfect in the Rhetorical Divisions in Biology and Biochemistry Journal Articles’, *English for Specific Purposes*, 8(3): 265-273.
95. Halliday, M.A.K. and Hasan R. (1991) *Language, Context, and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social Semiotic Perspective.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
96. Halliday, M.A.K. (1990) *Spoken and Written Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
97. Halliday, M.A.K. (1985) *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Kent: St Edmundsbury Press Ltd.
98. Halliday, M.A.K. and Hasan, R. (1985) *Language, Context and Text: Aspects of Language in a Social-Semiotic Perspective,* Victoria: Deakin University Press.
99. Halliday, M.A.K. (1978) *Language as Social Semiotic: the Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.
100. Halliday, M., and Hasan, R. (1976) *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
101. Halliday, M.A.K. (1973) *Exploration in the Functions of Language*. London: Edward Arnold.
102. Halliday, M.A.K., McIntosh, A. and Strevens, P. (1964) *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching.* London: Longman.
103. Harris, Z. (1952) *Methods in Structural Linguistics*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
104. Hart, C. (2002) *Doing Literature Review.* London: SAGE Publications.
105. Harwood, N., Hadley, G. (2004) ‘Demystifying institutional practices: critical pragmatism and the teaching of academic writing’, [Online]. *English for Specific Purposes 23: 355-377Available from* privatewww.essex.ac.uk/~nharwood/ Critical%20Pragmatism%20Article%20Final.pdf Accessed 07.08.2005.
106. Harwood, N. (2003) *Personal pronouns and academic writing: a multi disciplinary corpus-based critical pragmatic approach to EAP. MATSDA Conference Paper.*
107. Hasan, R. (1978) ‘Text in the Systemic-Functional Model’, in W.U. Dressler (ed) *Current Trends in Textlinguistics,* Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlag.
108. Hatch, E. (1992) *Discourse and Language Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
109. Hatchinson, T.and Waters, A. (1994) *English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
110. Hatim, B. and Mason, I. (1990) *Discourse and the Translator*. New York: Longman.
111. Hedge T. (2000) *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
112. Hess-Lüttich, E.W.B. (1981) *Sociale Interaktion und Literarischer Dialog.* 1. Grundlagen der Dialoglinguistik. Berlin: Schmidt.
113. Hewings, M. and Nickerson*, C.* (eds) (1999) *Business English: Research into Practice.* London: Longman.
114. Hewings, M. (1999) *Advanced Grammar in Use.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
115. House, J. (1996) ‘Learning to talk: Talking to learn. An investigation of learner performance in two types of discourse’, in G. Kasper (ed) *Learning, Teaching and Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom*. Aarhus: Aarhus University Press.

116. Hughes, R. (2002) *Teaching and Researching Speaking*. London: Longman.
117. Hussey J. and Hussey R. (1997) *Business Research. A Practical Guide for Undergraduate and Postgraduate Students*. Hampshire: Macmillan Press Ltd.
118. Hyland, K (2002a) 'Options of Identity in Academic Writing'. *ELT Journal* 56(4): 351-358.
119. Hyland, K.(2002b) *Teaching and Researching Writing.* Longman: London.
120. Hyland, K. (2000) *Disciplinary Discourses. Social Interactions in Academic Writing.* London: Longman.
121. Hyland, K. (1999) 'Academic Attribution: Citation and the Construction of Disciplinary Knowledge', *Applied Linguistics*, 20(3): 341-367.
122. Hyland, K. (1996) 'Writing Without Conviction? Hedging in Science Research Articles', *Applied Linguistics* 17(4): 433-454.
123. Hyland, K. (1998) *Hedging in Scientific Research Articles*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
124. Hymes, D.H. (1972) 'On Communicative Competence', in J.B.Pride and J.Holmes (eds) *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin.
125. Hymes, D.H. (1971) 'Competence and Performance in Linguistic Theory', in R. Huxley and E. Ingram (eds) *Language Acquisition: Models and Methods*. New York: Academic Press.
126. Ilyinska, L. (2004) *English for Science and Technology: Course Design, Text Analysis, Research Writing.* Riga: RTU Publishing House.
127. Jakobson, R. (1960) 'Closing statements: linguistics and poetics', in T.A. Sebeok (ed) *Style in Language*, Cambridge: M.I.T. Press.
129. James, K. (1977) 'Note-taking in lectures: Problems and strategies'. in A. P. Cowie & J. B. Heaton (eds), *English for Academic Purposes.* University of Reading: BAAL/SELMOUS.
130. Jarvis, J. and M. Robinson (1997) 'Analysing Educational Discourse: An Exploratory Study of Teacher Response and Support to Pupils' Learning', *Applied Linguistics, 18(2):* 212-22.
131. Johnson, P. (1981) 'Effects on reading comprehension of language complexity and cultural background of a text'. *TESOL Quarterly* 16(4): 503-516.
132. Jordan, M.K., Plakans, L. (2003) *Reading and Writing for Academic Success.* Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
133. Jordan, R.R. (1999) *Academic Writing Course. Study Skills in English*. Harlow: Longman.
134. Jordan, R.R. (1997) *English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
135. Jordan, R.R. (1990) 'He said: Quote…Unquote', in T. Dudley-Evans and W.Henderson (eds) *The Language of Economics: The Analysis of Economic Discourse. ELT document 134*, Hong Kong: Modern English Publications.
136. Karapetjana, I. (2005) 'Developing Students' Research Competence', in *An International Perspective on Language Policies, Practices and Proficiencies*. Belgrave: Fédération Internationale des Professeurs de Langues Vivantes: 283- 289.
137. Karapetjana, I. (2005) 'Rhetorical Aspects of Reporting Verbs as Manifested in Undergraduate Students' Research Papers', in *Язык и культура.* Выпуск 8, Том V. Часть вторая. Национальные языки и культуры в их специфике и взаимодействии. Киев: Издательский Дом Дмитрия Бураго: 338-348.

138. Karapetjana, I. (2004) ‘Addressing the Complex Nature of Text Interpretation’, in *Язык и культура.* Выпуск 7. Том IV. Часть первая. Лингвокультурологическая интерпретация текста. Киев: Издательский Дом Дмитрия Бураго: 10-17.
139. Karapetjana, I., Rozina, G. (2004) ‘Exploring Abstract Writing’, in Latvijas Universitātes raksti, 670.sējums, Rīga: 158-165.
140. Karapetjana, I., Rozina, G. (2001) ‘The Role of Case Studies in Research Methodology’, in *Current Issues of Cultural and Spiritual Development*, Kaunas: Akademija, 263-265.
141. Katkuviene, L.E., Šeškauskiene, I. (2005) *Research Matters*. Vilnius: Vilnius University Press.
142. Kramina, I. (2000) *Linguo-Didactic Theories Underlying Multi-Purpose Language Acquisition.* Riga: University of Latvia.
143. Kress, G. (1990) *Linguistic Processes in Sociocultural Practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
144. Laane, M.A. (ed) (1999) *Teachers' Handbook of Advanced Writing*. Tallin.
145. Lackstrom, J., Selinker, L. & Trimble, L. (1972) ‘Grammar and Technical English’. *English Teaching Forum*, X(5): 127-136.
146. Lakoff, G. (1973) *‘Hedges: A Study in Meaning Criteria and the Logic of Fuzzy Concepts.’* Journal of Philosophical Logic, 2: 458-508.
147. Lasmanis, A. (1999) *Pedagoģijas un psiholoģijas pētījumu plānošana un norise*. Rīga: SIA “Mācību apgāds NT”.
148. Lester, J.D. (1986) *Writing Research Papers*. USA: Scott, Foresman & Company
149. Lodge, A. (2000) *‘Higher Education’* in S.Green (ed) *New Perspectives on Teaching and Learning Modern Languages.* Clevedon: Cromwell Press Ltd.
150. Lunsford, A., and Connors, R. (1992) *The St. Martin's Handbook*. New York: St. Martin's Press.
151. Lynch, T. (2004) *Study Listening. A Course in Listening to Lectures and Note-Taking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
152. Lyons, J. (1983) *Language and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
153. Lyons, J. (1977) *Semantics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
154. Lyons, J. (1968) *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
155. Malinowski, B. (1923) ‘The problem of meaning in primitive languages’. Supplement I to C. K.Ogden and I. A. Richards *The Meaning of Meaning*. New York: Harcourt Brace & World: 296– 336.
156. Martin, J.R. and Rothery, J. (1981) *Writing Project Report Number 2*, Working Papers in Linguistics, Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney, Australia.
157. Mauranen, A. (1993). ‘Contrastive Rhetoric: Metatext in Finnish-English Economics Texts’, *English for Specific Purposes,* 12: 3-22.
158. McCarthy, M. (2001) *Issues in Applied Linguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
159. McCarthy M. and Carter, R. (1994) *Language as Discourse: Perspectives for Language Teaching.* London: Longman.
160. McCarthy, M. (1991) *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
161. Mey, J.L. (1998) *Concise Encyclopaedia of Pragmatics*. Elsevier.
162. Mey, J.L. (1993) *Pragmatics: an Introduction*. Oxford: Blackwell.

163. Myers, G. (1990) *Writing Biology: Texts in the Social Construction of Scientific Knowledge.* Medison: University of Wisconsin Press.
164. Miller, C. (1984) 'Genre as Social Action', *Quarterly Journal of Speech,* 70: 157- 78.
165. Munby, J. (1978) *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
166. Murray, R. (2002) *How to Write a Thesis*. Berkshire: Open University Press.
167. Myers, G. (1989) 'The Pragmatics of Politeness in Scientific Articles'. *Applied Linguistics,* 10: 1-35.
168. Nation, I. S. P. (2001) *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
169. Newmark, P. (1995) *A Textbook of Translation*. Hertfordshire: Phoenix ELT.
170. Nunan, D. (1992) *Research Methods in Language Learning.* Cambridge: CUP.
171. Oppenheim, A.N. (1992) *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement.* London and Washington: Pinter.
172. Payne, E. & Whittaker, L. (2000) *Developing Essential Study Skills.* Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
173. Perrin, R. (1990) *The Beacon Handbook*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
174. Peterson, P.W. (2001) 'Skills and Strategies for Proficient Listening', in M. Celce-Murcia (ed) *Teaching English as A Second or Foreign Language*. Mexico: Heinle&Heinle.
175. Ramage, J.D., Bean, J.C. (1989) *Writing Arguments. A Rhetoric with Readings*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
176. Reece, I., Walker, S. (2000) *Teaching, Training and Learning.* Sunderland: Athenaeum Press.
177. Reid, J.M. (2000) *The Process of Composition*. New York: Longman.
178. Richards, J.C., Platt, J., Platt, H. (1992) *The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics.* London: Longman.
179. Richards, J.C., Schmidt, R.W. (eds) (1993) *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.
180. Richards, J.C., (1983) 'Listening Comprehension: Approach, Design and Procedures'. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(2): 219-240.
181. Robins, R.H. (1990) *A Short History of Linguistics*. London: Longman.
182. Rost, M. (2002) *Teaching and Researching Listening*. Longman: London.
183. Rost, M. (1994) *Listening*. London: Longman.
184. Rost, M. (1990) *Listening in Language Learning*. London: Longman.
185. Rozenbergs, J. (2004) *The Stylistics of Latvian*. Riga: LU Akadēmiskais apgāds.
186. Rozenbergs, J. (1995) *Latviešu valodas stilistika*. Rīga: Zvaigzne ABC.
187. Rowntree, D. (1991) Learn How to Study: A Guide for Students of All Ages. London: Sphere.
188. Salager-Meyer, F. (1994) 'Hedges and Textual Communicative Function in Medical English Written Discourse'. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13: 149-170.
189. Salager-Meyer, F. (1992) 'Verb Tense and Modality Distribution in Medical Abstracts', *English for Specific Purposes,* (11): 93-113.
190. Sardiko, L. (2004) *Guidelines on Writing a Term Paper, a Bachelor Paper, a Master Paper.* Daugavpils.
191. Savignon, S. J. (ed) (2000) *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching*. London: Yale University Press.
192. Savignon, S. J. (1983) *Communicative Competence. Theory and Classroom Practice.* Reading, Mass: Prentice Hall.

193. Searle, J. R. (1969) *Speech Acts: An Essay in the Philosophy of Language,* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
194. Seliger, H.W. and Shohamy, E. (1995) *Second Language Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
195. Sheils, J. (1993) *Communication in the Modern Language Classroom*. Germany: Council of Europe Press.
196. Sinclair, J. and Coulthard, M. (1975) *Towards an Analysis of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
197. Sperber, D. and Wilson, D. (1986) *Relevance: Communication and Cognition,* Oxford: Blackwell.
198. Spolsky, B. (1998) *Sociolinguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
199. Stake, E.R. (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. London: SAGE Publications.
200. Swales, J.M. (2004) *Research Genres*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
201. Swales, J.M., Feak, Ch. B. (2000) *English in Today's Research World. A Writing Guide.* Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
202. Swales, J.M., Feak, Ch. B. (1994) Academic Writing for Graduate Students. *Commentary.* Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
203. *Swales, J.M*. (1991) *Genre Analysis. English in Academic and Research Settings.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
204. Swales, J.M. (1990) *Genre Analysis.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
205. Swales, J.M. (1981) *Aspects of Article Introductions. ESP Monograph no. I.* Language Studies Unit: Aston University.
206. Swetnam, D. (2000) *Writing your Dissertation.* Oxford: How To Books Ltd.
207. Thompson, P. and Tribble, C. (2001) 'Looking at Citations: Using Corpora in English for Academic Purposes.' *Language Learning and Technology* 5(3): 91-105. Available at http://llt.msu.edu/vol5num3/ Thompson/default.html accessed 09.10.2004.
208. Thompson, G. and Yiyun, Y. (1991) 'Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers' *Applied Linguistics* 12(4): 365-382.
209. Thornbury, S. (2005) *Beyond the Sentence. Introducing Discourse Analysis.* Oxford: Macmillan.
210. Tribble, C. (1996) *'Writing'*, in C.N.Candlin and H.G. Widdowson (eds), *Language Teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
211. Trimble, L. (1990) *English for Science and Technology. A Discourse Approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
212. Trzeciak, J., and Mackay, S.E. (1995) *Study Skills for Academic Writing*. Hertfordshire: Phoenix ELT.
213. Van Dijk, T. A. (1974) *Some Aspects of Text Grammars.* The Hague.
214. Van Dijk, T. A., and W. Kintsch. (1983) *Strategies of Discourse Comprehension.* New York: Academic.
215. Wallace, M.J. (1994a) *Study Skills in English.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
216. Wallace, M.J. (1994b*) Study Skills in English. Tutor's Book. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.*
217. Veisbergs, A. (2003) *Konferences Zinātnes valoda materiāli,* M. Baltiņš un D.Markus red. Rīga: Rasa ABC.
218. Weston, A. (1987) *A Rulebook for Arguments.* Cambridge: Hackett Publishing Company.
219. Widdowson, H. G. (2000) 'On the limitations of linguistics applied'. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(1): 325.

220. Widdowson, H.G. (1983) *Learning Purpose and Language Use.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
221. Widdowson, H.G. (1979) *Explorations in Applied Linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
222. Williams, H. (2004) 'Lexical frames and reported speech.' *ELT Journal* 58(3): 247-257.
223. Wolter, B. (2000) 'A participant-centred approach to INSET course design', *ELT Journal*, 54(4): 311-318.
224. Wood, L.A., Kroger, R.O. (2000) *Doing Discourse Analysis*. *Methods for Studying Action in Talk and Text.* London: Sage Publications.
225. Yorkey, R.C. (1982) *Study Skills for Students of English.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
226. Yule, G., (1995) *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
227. Yoshimi, D.R. (2001) 'Explicit Instruction in JFL Learner's Use of Interactional Discourse Markers', in K. Rose and G. Kasper (eds) *Pragmatics in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Macmillan English Dictionary for Advanced Learners. (2002) Copenhagen: TEXTware A/S CDROM.

Internet sources

www 1 Available at http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/ educ/ bologna/ bologna.pdf Accessed 15.08.2005.
www 2 Available at http://www.izm.gov.lv/print/default.aspx?tabID =3&lang=1&id=1185 Accessed 02.01.2006.
www 3 Available at http://www.brocku.ca/commstudies/courses/2F50/jakobson.html Accessed 30.11.2002.
www 4 Available at http://www.lu.lv/dokumenti/resursi/statute-study-programmes.doc Accessed 12.12.2005.
www 5 Available at http://www.lu.lv/szf/komukursad.html Accessed 03.07.2005.
www 6 Available at aelfe.org/documents/text2-Dudley.pdf Accessed 03.07.2005.
www 7 Available at http://www.sil.org/linguistics/ Glossary0fLinguisticTerms/ Accessed 05.01.2006.

List of Appendices

Appendix 1
The Corpus of Bachelor Papers

BA 1 "Creative Approach to Writing in ELT."
BA 2 "Teaching English in a Distance Mode."
BA 3 "The Exploration of Language Learning Motivation."
BA 4 "The Importance of Integrating Reading Types to Promote Students' Achievements in Reading Skills."
BA 5 "Learning English at the University as Part of a Lifelong Learning Process."
BA 6 "Canadian English as a Variety of the English Language."
BA 7 "Untraditional Ways of Vocabulary Enrichment."
BA 8 "Survey of Innovative Methods in Teaching English."
BA 9 "Development of Writing Skills at the Elementary School Level."
BA10 "Application of Case Study Method to Teaching Business Correspondence in English."
BA11 "Cultural Awareness Development in English Language Teaching at Primary School."
BA12 "Developing Learners' Listening Skills at Basic School."
BA13 "The Role of Activities in Teaching EFL to Young Learners."
BA14 "Teaching the Cross-Cultural Aspect of Business English One-to-One."
BA15 "Oral Presentation as a Means of Developing Secondary School Learners' Communicative Skills."
BA16 "Teaching the English Tense-Aspect Forms as a System."
BA17 "Linguistic Aspects of Business Documents."
BA18 "The Peculiarities of the English Language Used in Tourism and Hospitality Industry."
BA19 "Correlation Between Child's Development and Foreign Language Teaching."
BA20 "Visuals in Language Teaching: Communicative Approach."
BA21 "Teaching Vocabulary to Young Learners."
BA22 "Creative Tasks for Developing Writing Skills at the Primary Level."
BA23 "The Language of Internet Communication."
BA24 "Speaking Skills Development in One-to-One English Language Teaching."
BA25 "Academic Vocabulary Building."
BA26 "Games for Listening Skills Development in MC."
BA27 "The Role of Group-Work in Developing Speaking Skills in Teaching English to Secondary School Students."
BA28 " Teaching Intercultural Differences in Business Communication to Adults."
BA29 "Electronic Texts in the EFL Classroom."
BA30 "The Role of the Word-Stress and Sentence Stress in Teaching English."
BA31 "Teaching Written Communication in Form 5."
BA32 "Language Education in Bilingual Schools: General Conceptions and Means of Implementing."
BA33 "Modality and Modals in English and Russian. Comparative Analysis.
BA 34 "Innovations in Teaching English for Special Purposes."
BA 35 "Types of Tests Used in English Language Teaching."
BA 36 "Role-Plays as Means of Teaching the English Language to Young Learners."
BA 37 "The Role of Games in Developing Speaking Skills to the Military

Personnel."
BA 38 "Development of Listening Comprehension Skills at the Intermediate Level."
BA 39 "Vocabulary Teaching Methods in Primary School English Classes."
BA 40 "Use of Perfective Aspect in English and Latvian Discourses."
BA 41 "Morphological Derivations in ELT Methodology."
BA 42 "Project Writing Terminology."
BA 43 "Modern State of Cosmetology Terminology."
BA 44 "Vocabulary Acquisition in Bilingual and Traditional School. Constructive Analysis."
BA 45 "Questioning as a Tool for Developing Communicative Skills."
BA 46 "Interactive Aspects in the Process of Studying English at Secondary School."
BA 47 "Using Multimedia for Teaching EFL Grammar to Beginners."
BA 48 "Games as an Effective Means of Developing Primary School Learners' Speaking Skills."
BA 49 "Use of English Language Teaching Classroom for the Development of Presentation Skills at Primary School."
BA 50 "Developing Seafarers' Speaking Skills Using Communicative Approach."

Appendix 2

Course Programme *English Spoken and Written Communication III*

Kursa nosaukums	***Angļu valodas mutvārdu un rakstveida saziņa III***
Kursa kods	Valo2277
Kredītpunkti	4
ECTS kredītpunkti	6
Apjoms (akadēmisko kontaktstundu skaits semestrī)	80
Zinātnes nozare	Valodniecība
Zinātnes apakšnozare	Lietišķā valodniecība
Semināru un praktisko darbu stundu skaits	64
Kursa darbam atvēlēto stundu skaits	32
Kursa apstiprinājuma datums	21/02/2005
Institūcija, kura apstiprināja kursu	Anglistikas nodaļa

Kursa autori

Filoloģijas habil.doktors prof. Ingrīda Kramiņa
Filoloģijas maģistra grāds lekt. Indra Karapetjana
Dr. Filoloģijas doktors doc. Gunta Roziņa

Kursa anotācija

Kurss sniedz studentiem argumentētu ieskatu pētījumu būtībā akadēmiskajā un ekonomikas kontekstā. Kurss veidots kā ievads lietišķajā angļu valodā vadībzinībās (English for management), tirgzinībās (English for marketing) un finansu jomā (English for finance), un tas paredz mutvārdu un rakstu angļu valodas kompetenču apgūšanu minēto tēmu ietvaros. Kursā uzskatāmi ir atspoguļotas gan pragmatiskas dabas atšķirības, kas raksturīgas šī veida darījumu angļu valodai, gan ir uzsvērtas lingvistiskas dabas kopsakarības, uz kurām tiek balstīts darījumu angļu valodas lietojums. Tādēļ kurss apskata un akcentē darījumu angļu valodas lietojumu ekonomikas jomā tās lingvo-pragmatiskajā un socio-lingvistiskajā šķērsgriezumā. Kursa gaitā studenti tiek iepazīstināti ar pētniecības būtību un dažādām pētniecības metodēm un izpētes instrumentiem. Viņi iegūst izpratni par vairākiem svarīgiem ar pētniecību saistītiem jautājumiem, piemēram, pētījuma mērķa un uzdevumu formulēšanu, hipotēzes rakstīšanu. Studentu līdzdalība kursa norisē ir svarīgs motivējošs faktors, jo tas rosina studentus iegūtos pētījuma rezultātus ņemt vērā, izstrādājot kursu referātus, semestra un bakalaura darbus. Izpratni par kursa tēmām studenti iegūst, līdzdarbojoties un izpētot kādu no piedāvātajām tēmām, kā arī kursa noslēgumā uzstājoties un analizējot pētījuma gaitā iegūtos rezultātus.

Kursu apraksts-plāns

1 Ievadlekcija: kursa mērķi un prasības. Vadībzinības: pamata jēdzieni. Vadībzinības veidi. Kompānijas/iestādes organizatoriskā struktūra. Amerikāņu un britu angļu valodas jēdzieniskās atšķirības.
2 Personālvadība. Darba apstākļi (pieņemšana darbā, paaugstinājums amatā, atlīdzība,

apmācības un kvalifikācija, atbrīvošana no darba). Darījumu rakstu valoda: pieteikuma vēstule, darba līgums, atsauksmes vēstule.
3 Sanāksmes. Sanāksmju veidi. Diskusiju paņēmieni sanāksmēs: vienošanās/nevienošanās, sarunas pārtraukšana, kompromisu panākšana sarunās, sarunu noslēgums. Darījumu rakstu valoda: sēdes dienas kārtība, sēdes protokols.
4 Tirgzinības: pamata jēdzieni. Tirgus izpēte un intelektuālā īpašuma aizsardzība (piem., autortiesības, honorārs autoram, licenzēšana). Metaforu un izteicienu pielietojums tirgzinību jomā.
5 Tirgus segmentācija: ražojumi un zīmoli. Reklāma. Reklāmas līdzekļi un paņēmieni. Darījumu rakstu valoda: novērtējošais ziņojums (apkopojošais ziņojums).
6 Preces un to cenas: cena, kvalitatīvie ražojumi, lētie ražojumi, masu produkcija, tirgus jomas. Pārbaudes darbs.
7 Darījumu ētika. Darījumu ētika starpkultūru komunikācijā. Pieklājības principu un sadarbības principu lingvistiskās un pragmatiskās normas darījumu angļu rakstu valodā.
8 Finansu angļu valoda. Fakti, skaitļi un cipari angļu valodā. Britu un amerikāņu angļu valodas jēdzieniskās un pareizrakstības atšķirības, kas tiek ievērotas finansu angļu valodā. Grafiku, diagrammu aprakstos izmantojamā darījumu angļu valoda.
9 Banku un finansu vide: banku pakalpojumi Darījumu rakstu angļu valoda: atskaišu kopsavilkums.
10 Ievads pētniecības būtībā. Pamatjēdzieni. Dotā kursa loma studentu pētnieciskajā darbā. Semestra darbi. Bakalaura darbi.
11 Pētījuma plāna izstrāde. Iespējamu pētnieciskā darba tematu izvēle un apspriešana. Problēmjautājumi un to formulējums.
12 Pētījuma mērķa un uzdevumu izvirzīšana. Hipotēzes formulēšana. Ievads pētījumu metododoloģijā.
13 Pētījuma metodes izvēle. Pētīšanas metožu klasifikācija. Kvalitatīvais un kvantitatīvais pētījums.
14 Izpētes instrumenti. Aptaujas metode. Anketēšanas priekšrocības un trūkumi. Jautājumu veidošana un ankešu izstrāde.
15 Intervijas. Novērošana. Aprobācija.
16 Pētījuma prezentācija.
17 Atkārtojums.
18 Atkārtojums.
19 Atkārtojums.
20 Eksāmens.

Prasības kredītpunktu iegūšanai

1. Jāveic patstāvīgs pētījums par vienu no kursa laikā apgūtajām tēmām (pēc izvēles) un jāapkopo pētījuma rezultāti rakstiskā ziņojumā (500 vārdi) ar vismaz diviem avotiem literatūras sarakstā (50%);
2. Par pētījumā iegūtajiem rezultātiem ir arī jāziņo mutiskā prezentācijā (10%);
3. Jākārto mutisks eksāmens par visām kursa gaitā apgūtajām tēmām (40%).

Vismaz 75% nodarbību apmeklējums

Literatūra (01-mācību literatūra)

1. Badger, I, (2003) Everyday Business Writing. Haddington: Longman. 2. Evans, V. (2002) Successful Writing. Newbury: Express Publishing. 3. Jordan, R.R. (2002)

Academic Writing Course. Study Skills in English. London: Longman.
4. Kerridge, D. (1999) Presenting Facts and Figures. Harlow: Longman. 5. Mascull, B. (2002) Business vocabulary in Use. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 6. Mac Kenzie, I. (1997) Management and Marketing. Hove: LTP.
7. Mac Kenzie. I. (1999) Financial English. Hove: LTP. 8. Naterop, B.J. (2001) Business Letters for All. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 9. Northbedge, A. (1983) The Good Study Guide. The Open University Trade Dpt. Walton Hall.
10. Pratten, J. (1997) Banking English. Surrey: Delta Publishing.

Literatūra (02-papildliteratūra)

1. Hamp-Lyons, L.(1995) Study Writing . Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
2. Mackay, S.E. (1994) Study Skills for Academic Writing. Prentice Hall International. 3. Powell, M. (2000) Business Matters. Hove: LTP.
4. Powell, M. (2003) New Business Matters. Hove: LTP.

Appendix 3

Course programme *English Spoken and Written Communication IV*

Kursa nosaukums ***Angļu valodas mutvārdu un***

	rakstveida saziņa IV
Kursa kods	Valo2278
Kredītpunkti	4
ECTS kredītpunkti	6
Apjoms(akadēmisko kontaktstundu skaits semestrī)	80
Zinātnes nozare	Valodniecība
Zinātnes apakšnozare	Lietišķā valodniecība
Semināru un praktisko darbu stundu skaits	64
Kursa darbam atvēlēto stundu skaits	32
Kursa apstiprinājuma datums	21/02/2005
Institūcija, kura apstiprināja kursu	Anglistikas nodaļa

Kursa autori

Hd. Filoloģijas habil.doktors prof. Ingrīda Kramiņa
Dr. Pedagoģijas doktors asoc.prof. Monta Farneste
Dr. Filoloģijas doktors asoc.prof. Biruta Uzija
Filoloģijas maģistra grāds lekt. Indra Karapetjana

Kursa anotācija

Kurss turpina pilnveidot studentu pētniecisko kompetenci un sniedz nozīmīgu pamatu viņu patstāvīgam pētnieciskam darbam. Kurss paredz, ka studenti apgūs zināšanas un terminoloģiju saistītu ar sabiedrības dzīvi dabiskā un urbanizētā vidē, kuras viņi izmantos tādas lietišķās valodniecības jomas kā politiskā un administratīvā diskursa izpētē. Studenti tiks iesaistīti debatēs par reģionālo un pilsētvides attīstību, politiku un sabiedrību un citām aktuālām tēmām, kas pilnveidos viņu mutvārdu un rakstveida saziņu.
Kurss sniedz izpratni par kursa darbu un bakalaura darbu struktūru. Studenti apgūst pētnieciskā darba struktūrelementu (piemēram, anotācijas, ievada, literatūras apskata) rakstīšanu, pētījumā iegūto datu apstrādi, interpretāciju, un to atspoguļošanu grafikos un tabulās. Studenti demonstrēs apgūto lingvofunkcionālo kompetenci kursa referāta un mutvārdu prezentācijas formā.

Kursu apraksts-plāns

1 Ievadlekcija: kursa mērķis un prasības. Sabiedrība un vide. Vides globālās problēmas. Vides apdraudējumi. Vietējās vides problēmas.
2 Reģionālā un pilsētvides attīstība. Tūrisms. Tūrisma attīstība Latvijā. Darbs pie projekta. Pilsētvides attīstība. Pilsētvides infrastruktūra. Transports.
3 Arhitektūras stili. Studentu prezentācijas.
4 Mājvietas. Dzīvokļu problēmas. Nekustamie īpašumi. Pārbaudes darbs.
5 Politika un sabiedrība. Politiskās un administratīvās sistēmas. Latvija - Eiropas Savienības dalībvalsts.
6 Velēšanas (vispārējas, pašvaldības). Eiropas Savienība.
7 Starptautiskās attiecības.
8 Uzvedības un apģērba etiķete. Oficiālas pieņemšanas. Pārbaudes darbs.
9 Pētnieciskā darba pamatojuma izstrāde. Kursa darba un bakalaura darba struktūra.

10 Literatūras apskats, tā izmantošanas mērķi un analīze pētnieciskajā darbā. Darbs ar literatūru. Literatūras avotu saraksta veidošana.
11 Plaģiāts. Atsauces uz literatūras avotiem. Citātu, parafrāžu un kopsavilkuma iesaistīšana tekstā. Anotācijas mērķis un saturs (angļu valodā). Anotācija latviešu valodā.
12 Pētnieciskā darba ievada mērķis un saturs. Pētījuma metodoloģijas apraksts.
13 Pētījumā iegūto datu apstrāde, interpretācija, un to atspoguļošana grafikos un tabulās.
14 Secinājumi- to mērķis un saturs. Tēzes.
15 Pielikums. Pētījuma rezultātu prezentācija.
16 Kursa referāta izstrāde.
17 Kursa referāta izstrāde.
18 Kursa referāta izstrāde.
19 Kursa referāta izstrāde.
20 Eksāmens.

Prasības kredītpunktu iegūšanai

Lai iegūtu kredītpunktus, studentiem:
" jāveic patstāvīgs pētījums par vienu no kursa laikā apgūtām tēmām (pēc izvēles) un jāatspoguļo pētījuma rezultāti rakstiskā ziņojumā (500 vārdu) ar vismaz diviem avotiem literatūras sarakstā (40%);
" un mutiskā prezentācijā (10%);
" jākārto mutisks eksāmens par visām kursa gaitā apgūtajām tēmām (40%).
Vismaz 75% nodarbību apmeklējums

Literatūra (01-mācību literatūra)

1.Chandler, J. (1996) Local Government Today. Manchester: Manchester University Press 2. Coyle, W. (1995) Research Papers.Boston: Allyn and Bacon. 3. Homberger, N.H. and Corson , D. eds. (1997) Research Methods in Language and Education. Dordrecht: Kluwer 4. Jones, B. and Kavanagh, D. (1991) British Politics Today. Manchester: Manchester University Press. 5. Swetnam, D. (1997) Writing Your Dissertation. How to plan, prepare and present your wok successfully. Oxford: How TO Books Ltd. 6. Who is who in the EU. (2000) Brussels.

Literatūra (02-papildliteratūra)

1. Glatthorn, A.A. (1998) Writing the Winning Dissertation. Corwin Press Inc.: California. 2. Nunan, D. (1992) Research Methods in Language Learning. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 3. Watkin, D. (2001) English architecture. London: Thames & Hudson. 4. Latvia Human Development Report. Riga. 1996, 1998, etc.

Appendix 4

Course Programme *Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research*

Kurss `Ievads akadēmiskajās, profesionālajās studijās un pētnieciskajā darbā` studentiem sniedz argumentētu ieskatu akadēmisko un profesionālo studiju būtībā un uzskatāmi parāda atšķirības starp mācībām skolā un studijām universitātē.Kursu veido

4 galvenās daļas: ievads akadēmiskajās studijās; ievads profesionālajās studijās - tulks, tulkotājs; ievads profesionālajās studijās - moderno valodu skolotājs; ievads pētnieciskajā darbā. Izpratni par atsevišķām kursa tēmām studenti iegūst aktīvi līdzidarbojoties semināros un tādējādi veic pirmos akadēmiskos pētījumus un izdara sev ļoti svarīgus atklājumus, kuri nākotnē var kļūt par ierosmi semestra, bakalaura darbam, diplomdarbam vai maģistra darbam. Kursa gaitā studenti apgūst tādas akadēmiskās iemaņas kā racionālu lekciju konspektu veidošanu un to tālāku izmantošanu gatavojoties eksāmenam un rakstot augstāk minētos pētnieciskos darbus. Izstrādājot pētnieciskos darbus studenti apgūst arī iemaņas darbam ar literatūru, kas nepieciešama studijās un pētnieciskā darba veikšanai.

1. Introduction: setting the course objectives, clarifying the basic notions. (Academic and professional studies at the Faculty of Modern Languages. Forms of studies: full-time, part-time.)
2. Study skills: taking lecture notes, highlighting and underlining.
   Making use of the previous learning experience, reflecting on learning strategies used at school. The nature of studying and learning. Learning new ideas. Learning in groups. Sharing the thinking load. Dictogloss.
3. Learning to speak the academic language. Preparing and making a presentation.
4. Learning to speak the academic language. Preparing and making a presentation.
5. The importance of writing in the study process. Essays. Types of essays. Course reports. Written tests and exams.
6. The place and role of the present course in students' research. Term papers, BA papers, diploma papers (professional programmes). MA studies, MA papers. Discussion of the possible themes for research. The problem of research; its formulation and extension.
7. The research goal and enabling objectives. Hypothesis. Preliminary assumptions. Planning research strategies. The notion of research methods. Choosing methods of research. Correlation between the goal of the research and the research methods.
8. Argumentation and demonstration in writing a research paper. Work with sources: printed and internet. The art of referencing. Plagiarism and ways of avoiding it.
9. Tables and figures. Appendix=annex. The art of drawing conclusions. Theses. The contents and place of the abstract.
10. Using the above discussed academic and research skills when writing a course report (Samples of course reports discussed and analysed).
11. Introducing the professional programme 'Teacher of Modern Languages (English) for Secondary Schools'. Practicing note-taking – Penny Ur's lecture. Language teaching goals in XXI century. Language teaching methods and approaches in development.
12. The notion of teaching skills and teaching methods. Deciphering acronyms: ELT, EFLT, ESLT, ESP, EAP. Language skills development: teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing. Research in language teaching. Diploma papers.
13. Introducing the professional programmes ' Translator' and 'Interpreter'.
14. Introduction to translation studies and interpreting.
15. Introduction to translation studies and interpreting.

16. Introduction to translation studies and interpreting.
17. Revising the course material. Designing a course report.
18. Revising the course material. Designing a course report.
19. Revising the course material. Designing a course report.
20. Revising the course material. Designing a course report.

Appendix 5

Coherence and Cohesion

C2	Can create coherent and cohesive text making full and appropriate use of a variety of organizational patterns and a wide range of cohesive devices.
C1	Can produce clear, smoothly flowing, well structured speech, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
B2	Can use a variety of linking words efficiently to mark clearly the relationships between ideas.
	Can use a limited number of cohesive devices to link his/her utterances into clear, coherent discourse, though there may be some 'jumpiness' in a long contribution.
B1	Can link a series of shorter, discrete simple elements into a connected linear sequence of points.
A2	Can use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points.
	Can link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because'.
A1	Can link words or groups of words with very basic linear connectors like 'and' or 'then'.

(Common European Framework of Reference: Learning, teaching, assessment. 2002: 125)

Appendix 6

Listening as a Member of a Live Audience

C2	Can follow specialized lectures and presentations employing a high degree of colloquialism, regional usage or unfamiliar terminology.
C1	Can follow most lectures, discussions and debates with relative ease.
B2	Can follow the essentials of lectures, takes and reports and other forms of academic/professional presentation which are propositionally and linguistically complex.
B1	Can follow a lecture or talk within his/her own field, provided the subject matter is familiar and the presentation straightforward and clearly structured.
	Can follow in outline straightforward short talks on familiar topics provided these are delivered in clearly articulated standard speech.
A2	No descriptor available
A1	No descriptor available

(Common European Framework of Reference: Learning, teaching, assessment. 2002: 67)

Appendix 7
Questionnaire on Taking Notes

Dear students,
Please take some time to complete the questionnaire. Its purpose is to find out your present knowledge about taking notes in English.

Circle any of the following statements that are true for you.

1.What is your experience of note-taking?

1a I have taken notes while listening in English.
1a I have never taken notes while listening in English.

1b Note-taking is easy.
1b Note-taking is difficult.
1b I do not know

2.Lectures may be difficult to note because
a) the lecturer speaks very fast;
b) you cannot concentrate;
c) you do not have much experience of note-taking;
d) the lecture is poorly organized;
e) other (please specify).

3. Note-taking helps:
a) understanding;
b) exam revision;
c) memory;
d) writing;
e) other (please specify).

4. While taking notes you try to
a) get down as much as possible of what the lecturer says;
b) use abbreviations and symbols;
c) put down the key information;
d) other (please specify)

5. What note-taking methods do you know and use? Tick (V) the appropriate box.

	know	use
a) branching notes		
b) linear notes		
c) highlighting		
d) underlining		

e) other (please specify)

Thank you!

Appendix 8a
Latin Words and Abbreviations

Latin	short for …	English equivalent
c./ca.	**circa**	about, approximately (e.g. c. 1888)
cf.	**confer**	compare (with)
e.g.	**exempli gratia**	for example, for instance
et al.	**et alii**	and others
etc.	**et cetera**	and so on, and all others, and the rest
et seq.	**et sequens**	and the following pages
ibid.	**ibidem**	the same author, book/article and page; or the same author and book with the new page mentioned: ibid., p.23. Used when the writer is referring again to a book/article that he has just referred to.
i.e.	**id est**	that is, which is to say, in other words
loc.cit.	**loco citato**	in the article, chapter or section already referred to before. The author's name must always be given: Johns, op. cit., p.23.
N.B.	**nota bene**	note well (something important)
(sic)		used when quoting from a writer who has made an obvious mistake and you want the reader to know it is not your mistake.
viz.	**videlicet**	namely (naming someone or something you have just referred to)

(Based on Wallace, 1994a: 64)

Appendix 8b
Common English Words and Abbreviations

&	and
above	appearing earlier in the same page, article, chapter, etc. (Often *see above)*
below	appearing later in the same page, article, chapter, etc. (Often *see below)*

ch./ chs.	**c**hapter/chapters
Ed./Eds.	editor(s); edited by; edition
esp.	especially
fig.	figure
imp.	important
intro	introduction
n.d.	no date given
n.p.	no place given
n.pub.	no publisher given
no./nos.	number(s)
p./ pp.	page(s)
para./paras.	paragraph(s)
ref./refs.	reference(s)
trans.	translator; translated; translation
vol./vols.	volume(s)

(Based on Wallace, 1994a: 64)

Appendix 9
Macro-Markers and Micro-Markers Used in the Reading-Style Lectures

Macro-Markers

What I'm going to talk about today is something you probably know something about already-
What [had] happened [then/after that] was [that]
We'll see that
That/this is why
To begin with

Another interesting development was
You probably know that
The surprising thing is
As you may have heard
Now where are we
This is how it came about

The problem [here] was that
This/that was how
The next thing was this meant that
One of the problems was
Here was a big problem
What we've come to by now was that
You can imagine what happened next
In this way
It's really very interesting that
This is not the end of the story
Our story doesn't finish there
And that's all we'll talk about today

Micro-Markers

Functions	**Micro-markers**
Segmentation	*Well, OK, Now, And, Right*
Temporal	*At that time, and, after this, for the moment, eventually*
Causal	*So, Then, Because*
Contrast	*Both, But, Only, On the other hand*
Emphasis	*Of course, you can see, you see, actually, obviously, unbelievably, as you know, in fact, naturally*

(Based on Chaudron and Richards, 1986)

Appendix 10
Lecture on Note-Taking: Transcript

Note-taking is a complex activity which requires a high level of ability in many separate skills. Today I'm going to analyse the four most important of these skills.

Firstly, the student has to understand what the lecturer says as he says it. The student cannot stop the lecture in order to look up a new word or check an unfamiliar sentence pattern. This puts the non-native speaker of English under a particularly severe strain. Often-as we've already seen in a previous lecture-he may not be able to recognize words in speech which he understands straightaway in print. He'll also meet words in a lecture which are completely new to him. While he should, of course, try to develop the ability to infer their meaning from the context, he won't always be able to do this successfully. He must not allow failure of this kind to discourage him however. It's often possible to understand much of a lecture by concentrating solely on those points which are most important. But how does the students decide what's important? This is in itself another skill he must try to develop. It is, in fact, the second of the four skills I want to talk about today.

Probably the most important piece of information in a lecture is the title itself. If this is printed (or referred to) beforehand the student should study it carefully and make sure he's in no doubt about its meaning. Whatever happens he should make sure that he writes it down accurately and completely. A title often implies many of the major points that will later be covered in the lecture itself. It should help the student therefore to decide what the main point of the lecture will be.

A good lecturer, of course, often signals what's important or unimportant. He may give direct signals or indirect signals. Many lecturers, for example, explicitly tell their audience that a point is important and that the student should write it down. Unfortunately, the lecturer who's trying to establish a friendly relationship with his audience is likely on these occasions to employ a colloquial style. He might say such things as 'This is, of course, the crunch' or 'Perhaps you'd like to get it down'. Although this will help the student who's a native English-speaker, it may very well cause difficulty for the non-native English speaker. He'll therefore have to make a big effort to get used to the various styles of his lecturers.

It's worth remembering that most lecturers also give indirect signals to indicate who's important. They either pause or speak slowly or speak loudly or use a greater range of intonation, or they employ a combination of these devices, when they say something important. Conversely, their sentences are delivered quickly, softly, within a narrow range of intonation and with short or infrequent pauses when they are saying something which is incidental. It is, of course, helpful for the student to be aware of this and for him to focus his attention accordingly.

Having sorted out the main pints, however, the student still has to write them down. And he has to do this quickly and clearly. This is, in fact, the third basic skill he must learn to develop. In order to write at speed most students find it helps to abbreviate. They also try to select only those words, which give maximum information. These are usually nouns, but sometimes verbs or adjectives. Writing only one point on each line also helps the student to understand his notes when he comes to read them later. An important difficulty is, of course, finding time to write the notes. If the student chooses the wrong moment to write he may miss a point of great importance. Connecting words or connectives may guide him to a correct choice here. Those connectives which indicate that the argument is proceeding in the same direction also tell the listener that it's a safe time to write. "Moreover', 'furthermore', 'also', etc. are examples of this. Connectives such as 'however', 'on the other hand' or 'nevertheless' usually mean that new and perhaps unexpected information is going to follow. Therefore, it may, on these occasions, be more appropriate to listen.

The fourth skill that the student must develop is one that is frequently neglected. He must learn to show the connections between the various points he's noted. This can often be done more effectively by a visual presentation than by a lengthy statement in words. Thus the use of spacing, of underlining, and of conventional symbols plays an important part in efficient note-taking. Points should be numbered, too, wherever possible. In this way the student can see at a glance the framework of the lecture.

Appendix 11
The Student's Lecture Notes (A Sample)

English Language Departament
Full-time Day Group C Student
Natalja Zelenkova

Note-Taking

Note-taking is a complex activity that demands four (4) basic skills.

1. Understanding immediately what is being said.
2. Concentrating on the most important things.

The lecturer may use semantic markers to:

- indicate relative importance (I would like to emphasize... The point you must remember is...);
- list the main points (Firstly... Finally... My next point is...);
- show the cause and effect (So... Because... Therefore...);
- illustrate ideas by giving example (Let me give you some examples... For instance...);
- introduce and idea that runs against what has been said (Nevertheless... Although... On the other hand...);
- sum up a message (To summarize... What I have been saying is this...);
- rephrase, introduce a definition (In other words... Let me put it this way...);
- give more spice or variety to lectures (By the way... I might note that...).

3. Being clear and brief.

Use common abbreviations and symbols (e.g. / etc / i. e. / ibid / et. al. / ed. eds. / p. pp. / para. / adj / pl. / sing/ fml / infml / fg / BrE / AmE), numbers and letters.

Use space.

4. Showing the connection between the points.

Use underlining and highlighting.

NB! It is also recommended to use different ways of taking notes:

- linear / sequential notes;
- mind maps / branching notes.

Appendix 12
The Summary based on the Student's Notes (A Sample)

Alma Bernharda, Danish group I course

Note - taking
Complex activity, high ability

There are four skills that should be taken into account when taking notes. First of all, students have to understand what the lecturer says. It is necessary to concentrate on the most important points and comprehend new terms. In such a way students develop the skill themselves. This is an ordinary skill for native speakers, but on the contrary, it may cause difficulties for non-native speakers.

Secondly, students should understand that the most important piece of information is the title itself. Students should study it carefully and write it down accurately. At the same time they should think what the main points would be. Most of the lecturers give indirect signals (speak slowly or say a combination of words) when the information is more important. However, a lecturer who establishes friendly relationship might cause difficulties to non-native speakers.

The next skill that should be taken into consideration is that students must write down quickly and clearly. Writing down nouns, adjectives or adverbs might help to concentrate on the important sentences and words. After such phrases as "however", "on the other hand" usually follows unexpected information.

Finally we have come to the last skill which advises students to use symbols, signs as well as underlining and spacing when taking notes. Unfortunately, students frequently neglect the 4th skill. When following these four skills, it is the frame work of the lecture.

Appendix 13

Questionnaire on Written Academic English

Name, surname……………………………………………

Group………………………………………………. ……

This questionnaire has been designed to find out your current knowledge about the language used in academic writing and academic conventions pertaining to research. Please complete the questionnaire by putting a tick (v) next to your choice.

1. Finish the sentence by choosing the right answer (s)

Written academic English will not normally contain:

- Personal feelings
- The first person pronoun 'I'
- The second person pronoun 'you'
- The first person plural pronoun 'we'
- Verb contractions e.g. he's; they've
- Impersonal 'it'
- Specialized vocabulary
- Complex sentences

2. Examine the following pairs of sentences. Put a tick (v) next to the one in each pair that in your view best suits academic style:

1. a) The study was carried out in order to …
   b) The study was made in order to…
2. a) X is the biggest problem.
   b) X appears to be the biggest problem.
3. a) Now consider this example…
   b) The following example may serve as…
4. a) The results we report here…
   b) I would like to report on the results…
5. a) You can see from the table that…
   b) It can be seen from the table that…
6. The learners have developed their speaking skills.
   a) It may be explained by effective use of communicative activities.
   b)This may be explained by effective use of communicative activities.

3. Mark the statements as True, False or Don't know by ticking (v) the appropriate box:

	True	False	Don't know
1. The more quotations are used the better.			
2. The research paper must contain only writer's own ideas.			
3. When citing, one should give the name of the author, book title, year of publication and page number.			
4. When writing bibliography, one should include the name of the author, year of publication, book title, place of publishing and publisher.			
5. Sentences must not start with 'and' and 'but'.			
6. Direct questions may be used for the sake of impact.			
7. Hypothesis is an idea that has been proved to be correct.			

Appendix 14

The Framework of Research Reports (Jordan, 1997: 138)

	1 The title	The fewest words possible that adequately describe the paper.
	2 Acknowledgements	Thanking colleagues, supervisors, sponsors, etc. for their assistance.
Preliminaries	3 List of contents	The sections, in sequence, included in the report.
	4 List of figures/tables	The sequence of charts or diagrams that appear in the text.
Introduction	5 The abstract	An extremely concise summary of the contents of the report, including the conclusions. It provides an overview of the whole report for the reader.
	6 Statement of the problem	A brief discussion of the nature of the research and the reasons for undertaking it. A clear declaration of proposals and hypotheses.
	7 Review of the literature	A survey of selective, relevant and appropriate reading, both of primary and secondary source materials. Evidence of original and critical thought applied to books and journals.
Main body	8 Design of the investigation	A statement and discussion of the hypotheses, and the theoretical structure in which they will be tested and examined, together with the methods used.
	9 Measurement techniques used	Detailed descriptions and discussion of testing devices used. Presentation of data supporting validity and reliability. A discussion of the analysis to be applied to the results to test the hypotheses.
	10 Results	The presentation in a logical order of information and data on which a decision can be made to accept or reject the hypotheses.
Conclusion	11 Discussion and conclusion	The presentation of principles, relationships, correlations and generalizations shown by the results. The interpretation of the results and their relationship to the research problem and hypotheses. The making of deductions and inferences, and the implications for further research. The making of recommendations.
	12 Summary of conclusions	A concise account of the main findings, and the inferences drawn from them.
Extras	13 Bibliography	An accurate listing in strict alphabetical order of all the sources cited in the text.
	14 Appendices	A compilation of important data and explanatory and illustrative material, placed outside the main body of the text.

Appendix 15

Presentation of a Dissertation

Overview Technicalities	1 Title page 2 Abstract 3 List of contents 4 List of illustrations and tables 5 Acknowledgements 6 Definitions and/or abbreviations
Argument Knowledge Research	7 Main body of the text Introduction and aims of the research Review of the literature Methodology and data-collection techniques Results Discussion Conclusion/recommendations (including strength and weakness of research and further research to be done) 8 Appendices (optional) 9 Glossary (optional)
Literature Search	10 Bibliography of items cited in the text 11 Bibliography of items read but not cited in the text

(Hart, 1998: 213)

Appendix 16
CONVENTIONS FOR THE BACHELOR PAPER WRITING

Students registered for the academic programme
BACHELOR OF HUMANITIES IN PHILOLOGY (ENGLISH PHILOLOGY)
are eligible to write Bachelor Paper (BA paper) in their chosen field, e.g. English language teaching methodology (ELT) if at least one of the term papers is written in it.

BA paper (dissertation) demonstrates the knowledge and skills acquired during academic studies. It demonstrates your ability to make use of published sources, to collect, present and analyse data, as well as your understanding of the theory and methods pertaining to ELT.

It is important to present your dissertation according to the standards laid down by the Faculty of Modern Languages.

Length 50- 70 pages (Bibliography and Appendices are not taken into account. Appendices are numbered separately on each page.)

Framework for the BA paper:

1 Title page (see Appendix 1)

2 Declaration of academic integrity (see Appendix 2).

3 Acknowledgements (optional).

Most dissertations include this page in which the writer acknowledges the assistance received. Typically the acknowledgements are brief and include thanking the staff, the participants, any funding source and others.

4 Anotācija.

5 Abstract (about 150 words):

- background/topic;
- purpose;
- methods;
- results;
- conclusions.

6 Table of Contents (Appendix 3).

7 Definitions of the key terms (optional).

Include definitions only when:

- the term is often used ambiguously in the research area;
- the term is a general one, and you wish to modify it.

8 Introduction:

- general background of the study;
- significance of the problem;
- goal of the research paper;
- enabling objectives;
- hypothesis;
- subjects/participants/population;
- research context or site;
- methods of the research;
- outline of the chapters.

9 The body of your paper consists of chapters containing:

Review of the literature - review of the theoretical and empirical literature;

- a summary of the previous research and how it relates to this study.

Methodology - a description of the general methodology (why a particular method has been chosen):

- the research context or site;
- characteristics of the subjects/participants/population;
- the data collection instruments used, e.g. questionnaires;
- the data analyses made;
- a summary statement of the methodology.

Results of the study -a presentation of the results, organized in terms of the hypothesis:

- a discussion of the findings;
- a summary in general terms of the results obtained.

10 Conclusions

- an introductory paragraph including a restatement of the goal and the hypothesis;
- a summary of the research results;
- discussion of their meaning in a broader context (including strengths and weaknesses of your research, recommendations and suggestions for further research).

Each chapter should conclude with a paragraph that briefly summarizes it and looks ahead to the next chapter, indicating the readers what they may expect.

11 Theses (7-12).

12 Bibliography.

It is a list of books, articles, etc. that have been used by you writing the BA paper.

13 Glossary (optional).

14 Appendices - a compilation of detailed data, illustrative material (optional).

Layout and presentation

- Bound in hard cover.
- A4 size white paper on one side.
- Word processed using Times New Roman.
- Twelve point for the main text; fourteen point for headings.
- 1.5 spaced; quotes longer than three lines indent by five characters, single spaced.
- Margins: top/bottom/right -2.5 cm; left-3.5 cm (for binding).
- Number all pages consecutively starting with the introduction. The position of the page numbers (top/ bottom/ centre/ right) should be consistent throughout the paper.
- Start chapters on a new page; insert headings and subheadings of chapters. Do not start sub-chapters on a new page.
- The first time an abbreviation is used it should be spelt out in full, with the abbreviation shown in brackets immediately afterwards, e.g. English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Future reference to the term may then be shown as an abbreviation. Ensure that any use of abbreviations is consistent.

Plagiarism

Plagiarism is using another author's ideas and thoughts without acknowledging your source of information, including the Internet, and presenting them as your own. This also includes fabrication of information or citations, and submitting academic work of another person.

References

<u>1. Acknowledged paraphrase of an author's words or ideas.</u>

- ✓ Give the author's surname, the year of publication and the page numbers in brackets.

e.g. Stern (1983: 342) argues that the language user knows the rules governing his native language and he can 'apply' them without paying attention to them.

- ✓ If the reference is to a complete work, it is not necessary to give a page number.

- ✓ If you are citing more than one authority, the authors are placed in chronological rather than alphabetical order.

e.g. A number of research studies have been conducted into the effect of motivation on language acquisition (Smith, 1995; Brown, 1997; Anderson, 2002).

<u>2.Short quotations can be incorporated within the text.</u>

e.g. According to Jordan (2001: 98), "It is important to acknowledge the source of the quotations otherwise you may be accused of plagiarism."

- ✓ When you quote, use double quotation marks. When the material you quote contains yet another quotation, enclose the second quotation in single quotation marks.

<u>3.Longer quotations (more than three lines in length) are set out separately</u>. They must be single-spaced, and indented from the left and the right hand margins by 5 characters.

e.g.

> The main features of academic writing are as follows: it is formal in an impersonal …style (often using impersonal pronouns and phrases and passive verb forms); cautious language [may, might, would, can, could, seem, appear a.o.] is frequently used in reporting research and making claims.
> (Jordan, 2000: 88)

- ✓ Square brackets [ ] tell the reader that you have added your own words to the quotation.The three dots… are used to show that some part of the quotation has been omitted.
- ✓ If there are more than three authors, all their names should appear the first time you refer to the publication. If there are three or more names, you do not need to mention all of them in the body of the text. Mention the first author and add 'et al.'(and others), e.g. (Waters et al., 1999). In the Bibliography you must name all the authors.
- ✓ Use 'ibid' (in the same place) to avoid repeating the author's name where the reference is from the same work as the immediately previous one.

e.g. Quotations are the exact words of the author, which must be accurate, with the same punctuation and spelling (ibid.).

If the page number is different write: (ibid.: 1-2)

- ✓ If you refer to two different items by the same author in the same year, add *a* or *b* to the date, e.g. (Cook 1999a) and (Cook 1999b). Use the same letters in the Bibliography.

Citing material in Bibliography
List items in the Bibliography alphabetically, by author's surname. Number the items. Use Latin characters first, then Cyrillic characters.

Books

Name of author   Year of publication   Title   Place of publication   Publisher

Cook, G. (1989) *Discourse.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Note that capitals are used for the initial letters of any nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions longer than 4 letters in the title.

✓ For a chapter or paper in an edited collection use the following format:
Coady, J. (1979) 'A psycholinguistic model of the ESL reader', in R. Mackay, B.Barkman, and R.R.Jordan (eds), *Teaching Reading Skills.* London: Longman.

✓ If only an editor is known write:
Celce-Murcia, M. (ed), (2001) *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*. Boston: Heinle&Heinle.

Journal articles

Name of author   Year of publication   Title   Journal   Volume   Number/issue   Page numbers

Brown, B. (1994) 'Reading for research', *Journal of Education*, 1 (1): 21-4.
Use 'single' quotation marks for the title of an article within a journal.
Note that for journal articles, only the first word of the title has an initial capital.

Dissertations

Lapina, A. (2002) *Teaching listening*. Unpublished MA dissertation. University of Latvia.

- ✓ If there is no date write: Brown (undated) both in the body of the text and in the Bibliography.
- ✓ If there is no author you may refer to the work by the title instead of by the author. In the Bibliography the work should appear in alphabetical order according to the title.

Internet sources
For information which you have taken from the Internet, you should give all the bibliographical details available. Add [online] after the title. "Available from" should be followed by the document's URL (Internet address), and "Accessed" followed by the date on which you viewed or downloaded the document.
- ✓ Brown, B. (2003) *Research* [Online]. London: University of London. Available from http://www.oup.com/elt/global/ Accessed January 2, 2003.

In the Bibliography the work should appear in alphabetical order if the author and/or the title are given. If only the Internet address is known, it should appear at the end of the Bibliography list.

Course Books
If you want to refer to course books in the body of the text, it is more convenient to use the title. Provide full references in the Bibliography.

Literary works
When you first introduce a work in the text, mention the title and the author, the date may be omitted. If you want to give a page reference, use brackets. In the Bibliography give full reference.

Corporate author
If a work is produced by an organisation, use the name of the organisation instead of the author's surname. In your discussion, give a proper reference with the corporate author and date, for example: (Ministry of Education and Science 1995).

Appendix 1 Title page

University of Latvia
Faculty of Modern Languages
Department of English Studies/
Department of Literature and Culture/
Department of Contrastive Linguistics, Translation and Interpreting
[pt 14, Bold, centred]

Title in English
[pt 20, Bold, Centred]

Title in Latvian
[pt 18, Bold, Centred]
Bachelor Paper
[pt 16, Centred]

Name, surname
Matriculation Card #
[pt 14, Bold, Align Right]

Adviser: prof./assoc.prof./doc./lect./as. I. Liepa
[Academic Title and the Name of the Adviser]
[pt 14, Bold, Align Right]

Riga
Year
[pt 14, Bold, Centred]

Appendix 2

Declaration of Academic Integrity

I hereby declare that this study is my own and does not contain any unacknowledged material from any source.

Date:
Signed:

Appendix 3

Table of Contents

Author:
lect. Indra Karapetjana, MA

Appendix 17

Taxonomy of Reporting Verbs

Author is neutral	Author infers or suggests	Author argues	Author agrees
Comments Describes Explains Illustrates Notes Observes Points out Records Relates Reports Says Sees Thinks Writes	Analyzes Asks Assesses Concludes Considers Finds Predicts Proposes Reveals Shows Speculates Suggests Supposes	Alleges Claims Contends Defends Disagrees Holds Insists Maintains	Admits Agrees Concedes Concurs Grants

(Fowler and Aaron, 1989: 584)

Appendix 18

Sampling Frame

The following names represent a sampling frame obtained from the secretary of the Department of English Studies.

1. Solveiga Ozolina
2. Mara Dirba
3. Monta Farneste
4. Inese Ozola
5. Biruta Uzija
6. Dace Liepina
7. Rasma Mozere
8. Jelena Dorosenko
9.Rasma Miltina
10.Maija Treilona
11. Linda Apse
12. Rota Bankava
13. Ilze Baiza
14. Anna Artamonova
15. Ilona Goldmane
16. Laura Karpinska
17. Mudite Upmale
18. Linda Krumina
19. Lauma-Tereze Lapa
20. Gunta Kaurate
21. Aija Lauva
22. Zigrida Vincela
23. Vilma Rapa
24. Linda Straume
25. Irina Surkova
26. Gunta Strauhmane
27. Vineta Apse
28. Inguna Broze
29. Jelena Mohorina
30. Irina Sokolova

Appendix 19

Academic year 1998/1999

A total of 83 questionnaires was distributed and returned. Question 1 was an ability question (Brown, 2001), which aimed to determine the students' acquired abilities during the course by asking them to assess their own strengths. It was a closed type of question, which offered a choice of alternative replies.

Question 1

Which of the following became more familiar to you due to the course?

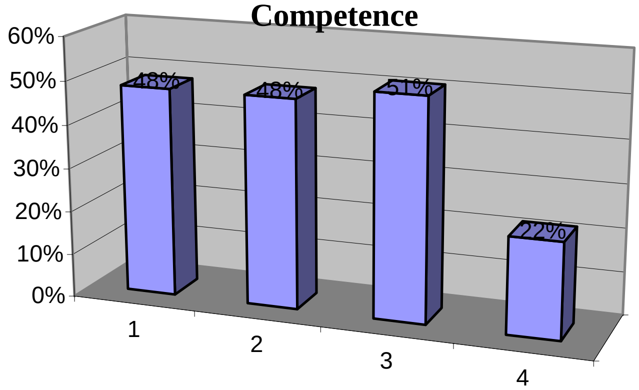
a) note-taking when reading;
b) lecture notes;
c) oral presentation (learning to speak in front of a large audience);
d) practicing 'dictoglos';
e) ….

The graph below shows the students' acquisition of the linguo-functional research competence in the academic year 1998/1999. The vertical axis shows the percentage of the acquired components of the competence, and the horizontal axis compares the components listed.

As it can be seen from the graph, three out of four components were rated quite similarly: 44 per cent considered that taking lecture notes had become more familiar to them, and only just 1 per cent less (43 per cent) of them felt that they had acquired taking notes while reading; 42 per cent pointed out that they had learnt much about oral presentations. However, only 18 per cent mentioned dictogloss in their answers.

1. note-taking when reading;
2. lecture notes;
3. oral presentation;
4. dictogloss.

Figure 1 **Percentage of Acquired Components of Competence**



On the option line provided, some students mentioned that they had also learnt about quoting, paraphrasing, summarizing, writing essays, designing a research paper.

Question 2 was a knowledge question (Brown, 2001), which sought information about the teaching and learning process during the course.

The course gave me:

a) only theoretical knowledge;
b) only practical knowledge;
c) both: theoretical knowledge and an opportunity to develop some academic skills;
d) nothing new.

Eighty-five per cent of the students seemed to agree that the course had provided them with both theoretical knowledge and an opportunity to develop some academic skills, 4 per cent considered it to have given only theoretical knowledge, and 2 per cent were of the opinion that the course had given them only practical knowledge.

The next question was an attitude question (Brown, 2001), which explored the respondents' opinion about the linguo-functional research competence presented in the course syllabus.

Question 3

Which parts of the course did you like most of all?

a) information about the study programmes;
b) information about term papers and the bachelor paper;
c) hints for writing lecture notes (Penny Ur);
d) students' presentations;
e) …

Parts of the course	Per cent
information about the study programmes	1%
information about term papers and the bachelor paper	55%
hints for writing lecture notes (Penny Ur)	26%
students' presentations	61%

Table 1 **Percentage of Students' Preferences**

The responses to this question gave us an idea about the students' likely preference of certain aspects of the course: 61 per cent of the students liked presentations, 55 per cent found information about term papers and the bachelor papers interesting, but only 26 per cent of them liked hints for writing lecture notes.

Although 61 per cent of the students liked presentations, only 42 per cent seemed to have acquired the skill of giving presentations. On the contrary, only 26 per cent liked the part of the course that dealt with lecture notes, but 44 per cent seemed to have acquired the skill. However, the results on lecture notes do not seem to be comparable since the question above asked for an opinion about a video (Penny Ur) and did not ask about lecture notes in general, which was the focus of the previous question.
Question 4 could be defined as a **solution** question (ibid), which asked the students to comment on any drawbacks of the course, by suggesting solutions.

Question 4

What are your suggestions for the improvement of the course?

Some students wished there had been fewer students in the group, others wanted to have more handouts. Overall, the response about the content and delivery of the lecture was very positive, which was confirmed by the replies to the next attitude question, in which the students were asked to circle the numbered categories on a 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 (10 being the highest) scale in order to evaluate the course.

Question 5

My estimation of the course within the system of 10 points?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The mean mark for the course was nine (9).

The course aimed at developing the following components of the linguo-functional competence:

a) note-taking;
b) paraphrasing/summarizing, quoting and incorporating them in texts;
c) writing a hypothesis;
d) writing research papers using adequate register;
e) giving academic presentations.

The results of the administered questionnaire allowed us to conclude that most of the respondents had acquired note-taking while listening to lectures (44 per cent) and while reading (43 per cent), and giving presentations (42 per cent). Thus, more than a half of the students had acquired the above-mentioned components of the relevant competence. Only 55 per cent of the respondents liked the information about writing research papers. However, it is not the same as having learnt it.

The other research questions addressed were what they thought about the existing course content and what changes they would recommend in the existing course content? The data received from the analysis of the students' responses to the questionnaire provided us with a valuable insight into the students' perception of the course, which was very positive. Moreover, the test results, which are not reported here and the data from the questionnaires allowed us to conclude that the delivered course had met its aims.

Appendix 20

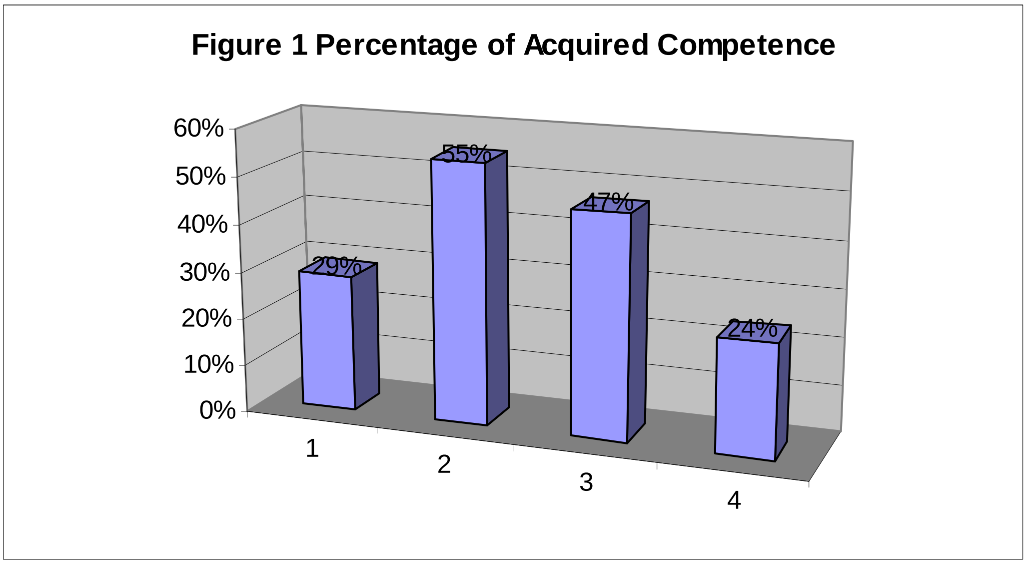
Academic year 1999/2000

In the academic year 1999/2000, the questionnaire was administered to seventy-six students.

Question 1

Which of the following became more familiar to you due to the course?

a) note-taking when reading;
b) lecture notes;
c) oral presentation (learning to speak in front of a large audience);
d) practicing 'dictoglos';
e) … .



1. note-taking when reading;
2. lecture notes;
3. oral presentation;
4. dictoglos.

In option *e* provided, the students had considered it necessary to mention the acquisition of several other linguo-functional research competence not mentioned in Question 1, e.g. writing questionnaires, writing essays, writing a hypothesis, academic and research writing, writing references and bibliography, structuring a text, and one student commented that all her written work improved.

Question 2

Which parts of the course did you like most of all?

a) information about the study programmes;
b) information about term papers and the bachelor paper;
c) hints for writing lecture notes (Penny Ur);
d) students' presentations.

Parts of the course	Per cent
information about the study programmes	9%
information about term papers and the bachelor paper	50%
hints for writing lecture notes (Penny Ur)	18%
students' presentations	50%

Table 1 Percentage of Students' Preferences

The students also mentioned discussions and pair work, listening, writing summaries, dealing with plagiarism, writing a bibliography.

Question 5

My estimation of the course within the system of 10 points?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

The mean mark for the course was nine (9).

Question 6

What are your suggestions for the improvement of the course?

It has to be said that the students gave very favourable comments on the course, but their suggestions for improvement of the course were: more group work, to have the course more often, more tests and, on the contrary, no tests, to have more opportunity to speak in front of a large audience.

We might conclude that the course had developed several components of the linguo-functional research competence indicated in the questions (see Figure 1); moreover, the students highlighted that they had learnt how to write academic and research papers; references and a bibliography, and to word a hypothesis.

Appendix 21

Academic year 2000/2001

In the academic year 2000/2001, the content and the title of the course were altered to include professional studies. The new title was ‘Introduction to Academic, Professional Studies and Research”, and the course syllabus included introduction to translation and interpreting, which was a very necessary aspect; however, it reduced the time devoted to the research issues. It was also necessary to redesign the questionnaire in order to include questions on interpreting and translation. The wording of the question about the competence was changed to ‘Which part of the course did you find the most useful?’. In total, 92 students completed the test-questionnaire. Having administered it, the responses were collated and interpreted.

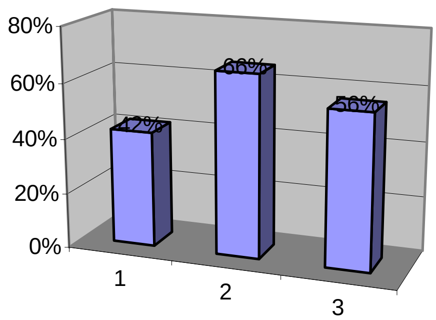
Question 1

Which part of the course did you find the most useful?

a) hints for writing lecture notes, summaries,
b) learning to speak in front of a large audience,
c) interpreting,
d) translation,
e) information about term papers and bachelor papers,
f) other (please specify).

Since the issues of interpreting and translation were not the focus of the research, they were not analysed.

Figure 1 **Percentage of Components of Competence Found Useful**



1. writing lecture notes, summaries ;
2. presentations;
3. term papers and bachelor papers.

Forty-two per cent of the students found writing lecture notes and summaries but fifty-six per cent found the information on term and bachelor papers to be the most valuable part of the course, and sixty-six per cent thought that the presentations had been most useful to them. Among the things mentioned in option *f* were, e.g. quoting, writing academic papers and using appropriate register, practising different aspects of the course, having the opportunity to communicate. The following suggestions were made: to have more practice in giving presentations and smaller groups, to use more visual materials, to pay more attention to writing research. The last response coincides with the researcher's opinion that having included translation and interpreting had decreased the opportunity to deal with very essential issues related to research.

To sum up, the results from the administered questionnaire gave us an insight into the students' likely acquisition of the competence by answering some of the research questions posed earlier, e.g. what the students' views of specific elements of the course content were; what they thought about the existing course content; what changes they would recommend in the existing course content?

However, the responses did not provide explicit information about the students' competence acquired as a result of the instruction.

Appendix 22
Academic year 2001/2002

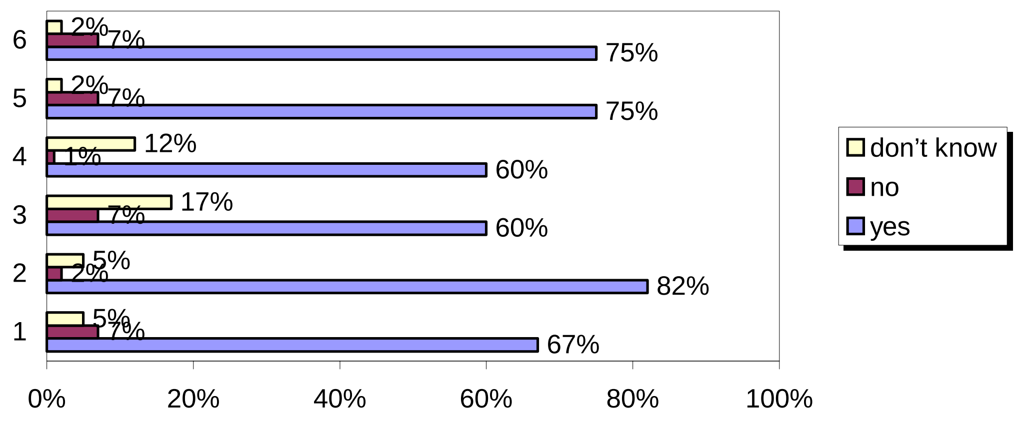
A similar questionnaire was administered to the students in the academic year 2001/2002.

Question 1

Has the course helped you to develop the following:

a) note-taking skills;
b) research competences:
    1) writing academic papers;
    2) writing a hypothesis;
    3) dealing with references and bibliography;
    4) paraphrasing;
c) academic presentation skills;
d) Other (please specify)

Figure 1 **Percentage of Acquired Components of Competence**



1. note-taking;
2. writing academic papers;
3. writing a hypothesis;
4. dealing with references and bibliography;
5. paraphrasing;
6. academic presentations.

Out of forty students who answered the questionnaire, the greatest number, i.e. 82 per cent considered that the course had helped them develop the ability to write academic papers, 75 per cent claimed that they improved their paraphrasing ability and academic presentation skills equally well. Sixty-seven (67) per cent considered that their note taking ability became better, and an equal number of the students, i.e. 60 per cent answered that they learnt both how to write a hypothesis and deal with references and bibliography. However, it should be noted that 17 per cent of the respondents were not sure that they would be able to write a hypothesis correctly.

Question 2

The course gave me:

e) only theoretical knowledge;
f) only practical knowledge;
g) both: theoretical knowledge and opportunity to develop some academic skills;
h) nothing new.

Seventy-five per cent of the respondents claimed that the course gave them both theoretical and practical knowledge, and only 1 per cent considered that it gave only theoretical knowledge. One respondent mentioned that the course gave him only theoretical knowledge; however, in the previous question he replied 'I have tried to take notes hard. And I improved my skills. …I've tried presentation myself. Now I have experience', which contradicted with his later reply. Besides, during the course the students had to write a number of practical tasks, e.g. writing a hypothesis, paraphrasing, preparing a presentation, and writing up a course report, where they had to show the research competence acquired during the course. Nevertheless, some students wished to have more practice, which was indicated in their reply to

Question 3

What are your suggestions for the improvement of the course?

The students wanted to have more presentations, smaller groups, and more handouts. However, some comments should be made about the students' replies. First, it has to be mentioned that although instructions about marking the answers were given, some students instead of ticking their responses wrote their answers in. For example, next to the question on a hypothesis a student wrote 'I didn't manage to attend that lecture', which was counted as a *No* answer. One questionnaire was considered invalid since the student gave answers to the questions but did not tick them, instead providing explanations that could hardly be counted as valid. For example, next to the question on paraphrasing she wrote 'Probably it is the most interesting for me…the rest of other titles I don't simply realize (I am not interested in it)'.