

UNIVERSITY OF LATVIA  
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES  
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH STUDIES

**PASSIVE VOICE IN ABSTRACTS OF RESEARCH  
ARTICLES AND BA THESIS**

**CIEŠAMĀS KĀRTAS LIETOJUMS ZINĀTNISKO RAKSTU  
UN BAKALĀURA DARBU ANOTĀCIJĀS**

MASTER THESIS

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## ANOTĀCIJA

Pētījuma tēma ir ciešamās kārtas lietojums anotācijās. Ciešamā kārta dzimtās un svešvalodas akadēmiskajos rakstos ir pētīta pirms (Hinkele, 2004); taču to lietojums anotācijās netiek pētīts. Šis pētījums attiecas uz ciešamās kārtas analīzi angļu kā svešvalodas studentu bakalaura darbu anotācijās un pētnieku zinātnisko rakstu anotācijās. Teorētiskais pamatojums ir balstīts uz Kvirka (Quirk et al., 1985), Baibera (Biber et al., 1999), Hadlestone un Pulluma (Huddleston un Pullum 2005), Kollinas un Hollo (Collins un Hollo 2010) un citu autoru darbiem. Pētījums ietver aprakstošās un secinošās statistikas rīkus un specializētā korpusa piemēru kvalitatīvās analīzes aspektus. Rezultātu aprakstā ir aprakstītas ciešamās kārtas izmantošanas variācijas un biežums tās veidos. Ierobežojumi un ieteikumi turpmākiem pētījumiem tiek apspriesti secinājumos.

**Atslēgas vārdi:** ciešamā kārta, specializētais korpus, aprakstošā statistika; secinošā statistika; uz korpusu balstīta metodoloģija

## **ABSTRACT**

The topic of the study is passive voice in abstracts. Passive voice in academic writings of the native and non-native speakers has been studied before (Hinkel, 2004); but there is a gap in research regarding its use in the abstracts. The present research deals with the analysis of passive voice in abstracts of BA thesis written by the English as Foreign language students and abstracts of research articles written by the researchers. The theoretical background is based on the works of Quirk et al. (1985), Biber et al. (1999), Huddleston and Pullum (2005), Collins and Hollo (2010), and others. The study involves quantitative research (relative frequency and log-likelihood test) and some aspects of qualitative analysis of the examples from the specialised corpus comprised for the study. Variation and frequency in the use of passive voice across its types are described in the results. Limitations and suggestions for further research are discussed in conclusions.

**Key words:** passive voice; specialized corpus; descriptive statistics; inferential statistics; corpus-based methodology

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## INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, language plays an important role, as it is used in different fields for various purposes, for example, academic purposes. According to Swales and Feak (1994: 1), students at any university need to write in academic language, which represents the formal register; however, as pointed out by Swales and Feak (*ibid.*), not all study fields require it. This encouraged Hinkel (2004: 24) to conduct the specialised corpus-based study of academic texts written by the native and non-native speakers of the English language in the scope of tense, aspect and passive voice. The results showed that the simple sentence structures were used, and passive voice avoided in the texts of the non-native speakers of the English language; whereas the native speakers of English composed more complex sentence structures and used passive voice (*ibid.*).

In Web as corpus Kalnberzina (2015: 153) compared the use of passive voice in the Latvian and English academic written language. It was observed in the data that Latvian rather than English has more passive constructions in academic written language (*ibid.*).

The findings observed above arouse a research interest in further developing this topic to investigate if this tradition of the use of passive voice is observed in academic writings written in English. For that reason, the present research deals with passive voice in the abstracts of research articles and BA thesis. Particularly abstract was selected as it has a crucial role in any research, because it is the part of the text that has the biggest potential to be publicly available.

Consequently, **the goal** of the present research is to compare the use of passive voice in such academic writings as abstracts. The study aims at investigating the use of the passive voice in the Bachelor Thesis (henceforth BA) abstracts written by the English as Foreign Language (henceforth EFL) students and the abstracts of the research articles written by the academicians. To support the goal of the present research, the following **hypothesis** was formulated: the variations across the types of passive voice depend on fields in which abstract was written, and either the writer is native or non-native speaker of the language.

The following **enabling objectives** are set to support the goal of this research:

1. to do comparative analysis of the available literature on verbs and their types (Chalker and Weiner, 1994; Huddleston and Pullum, 2005; Collins and Hollo, 2010), types of voice (Comrie, 1976; Quirk et al., 1985; Shibatani, 1988; Biber et al., 1999; Leech, 2004), concepts of genre (Biber, 1988; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Karapetjana, 2007), and register (Halliday, 1978; Bussmann, 1996; Biber et al., 1999; Biber, Conrad and

Leech: 2002; Wardhaugh, 2006) in order to establish a sound theoretical framework for the empirical research;

2. to establish the framework of the previous corpus-based investigations of passive voice (Shintani, 1979; Tarone, 1998; Hinkel, 2004; Apse and Farneste, 2014; Kalnberzina, 2015);
3. to compile the specialised corpus for the empirical part of the present research that comprises of two sub-corpora of the abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students and abstracts of research articles written by the researchers;
4. to investigate the use of passive voice in BA abstracts written by the EFL students and in the abstracts of research articles written by the academicians, as well as to demonstrate their distribution through the whole corpus of abstracts;
5. to provide variations and statistical relationship of passive voice use across the texts of the mentioned sub-corpora;
6. to draw conclusions based on the theoretical and empirical findings.

**The research methods** of this study comprises the analysis of secondary sources of the selected theories related to the theme, and corpus-based case study, which involves descriptive (Hunston, 2006; Xiao, 2013) and inferential (McEnery and Hardie, 2012; Brezina, 2018) statistics. The study involves quantitative research (relative frequency and log-likelihood test) and some aspects of qualitative analysis of the examples from the corpus.

Chapter 1 deals with the nature of verbs and voice. Chapter 2 is dedicated to the previous corpus-based researches of passive voice. The concepts of register and genre are investigated in Chapter 3. In Chapter 4, the methodology and research procedure of the present paper are discussed. Research data analysis and the corpus-based case study research of the abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students and research articles written by the researchers selected as a corpus are presented.

# 1. CONCEPT OF PASSIVE VOICE

This chapter reveals the constituent part of the passive voice. First of all, it uncovers the concept of the verbs and their types as the main element. Then, the aspect of voice is investigated. Third, the types of passive constructions are discussed in detail.

## 1.1 Verbs and Their Types

It is vital to discuss verbs and their types, as they form the core of the passive constructions, which is the main focus of the present research.

Verb is one of the largest and most important word class of the English language, as in the most basic type of clause is at least one verb. Besides, as stated By Collins and Hollo (2010), verb has the following properties:

1. Syntactic, where function and distribution of the part of speech is included. In the case of verbs, they often function as the head of verbs phrases. However, auxiliary verbs (e.g. *must*) represent a closed subclass of verbs, which are dependents within verb phrases (e.g. *must have gone*);
2. Morphological, where inflectional morphology and lexical morphology of the part of speech is involved. As regards the verbs, their most common feature is inflectional morphology, e.g. six inflectional forms, where the tensed forms of **write** is *writes*, *write*, *wrote*, and the non-tensed forms are *write*, *writing*, *written*. In addition, there are some verbs that involved some features of lexical morphology, e.g. the verb-forming suffix **ise/-ize** as in *advertise*;
3. Semantic, which involves types of meaning of each part of speech. As regards the verbs, they, in general, convey actions, activities and events; therefore, verbs are commonly defined as doing words. Nevertheless, there are some representatives of the class which express other abilities, such as states and relationships (e.g. *be*, *seem*), sensory perceptions (e.g. *hear*, *see*), cognitive processes (e.g. *believe*, *think*). (Collins and Hollo, 2010: 36-38)

The above-presented properties will be explained in detail further in the present research paper.

As it was investigated, verbs are divided into two main groups, such as the main verbs (also can be called lexical verbs) and the auxiliary verbs (often called auxiliaries). The former operates as the head of the verb phrase, while the latter performs as their dependents. (Collins and Hollo, 2010: 71)

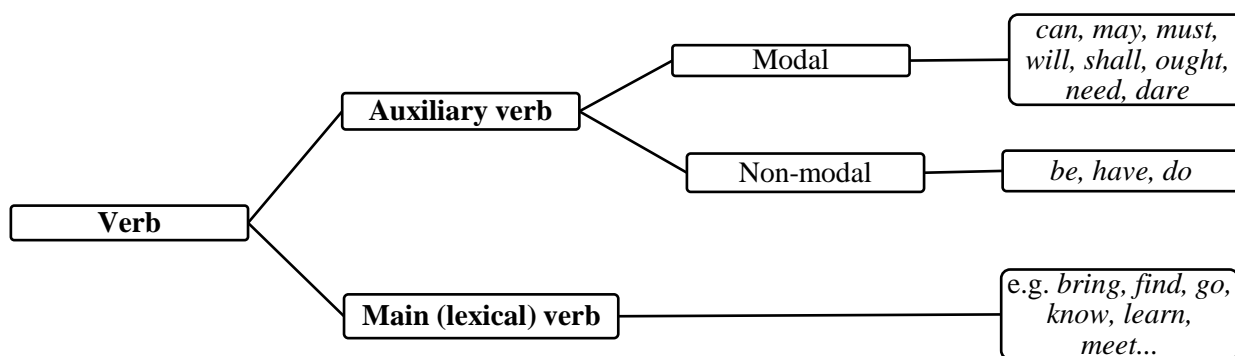


Figure 1.1. Classification of the verbs (based on Huddleston and Pullum, 2005: 37)

The Figure 1.1 represents the classification of the verbs. As it is seen, the main, or lexical verbs, does not have any subclass. Nevertheless, the auxiliary verbs are subdivided into modals (also called modal auxiliary verbs) and non-modals (also called primary auxiliary verbs). Each type and subtype of verbs will be explained in detail further in the present study.

### 1.1.1 The Main Verbs

The outstanding feature of the main verbs is the inflectional morphology, which deals with the changes to a specific lexeme for grammatical issues remaining the meaning (Chalker, S. And Weiner, E., 1994: 248-249). Thus, six inflectional categories of verbs must be mentioned. In Figure 1.2 below, the terms **tensed** and **non-tensed** are used instead of ‘finite’ and ‘non-finite’, because the former are related to verbs, whereas latter are related to clauses.

As it is seen, there are three tensed forms and three non-tensed inflectional forms. The most common verb forms are tensed forms, as they can be found in almost all main clauses, except for imperatives. The non-tensed forms are used differently; however, they are observed following a tensed auxiliary (e.g. *may write, was writing, has written*).

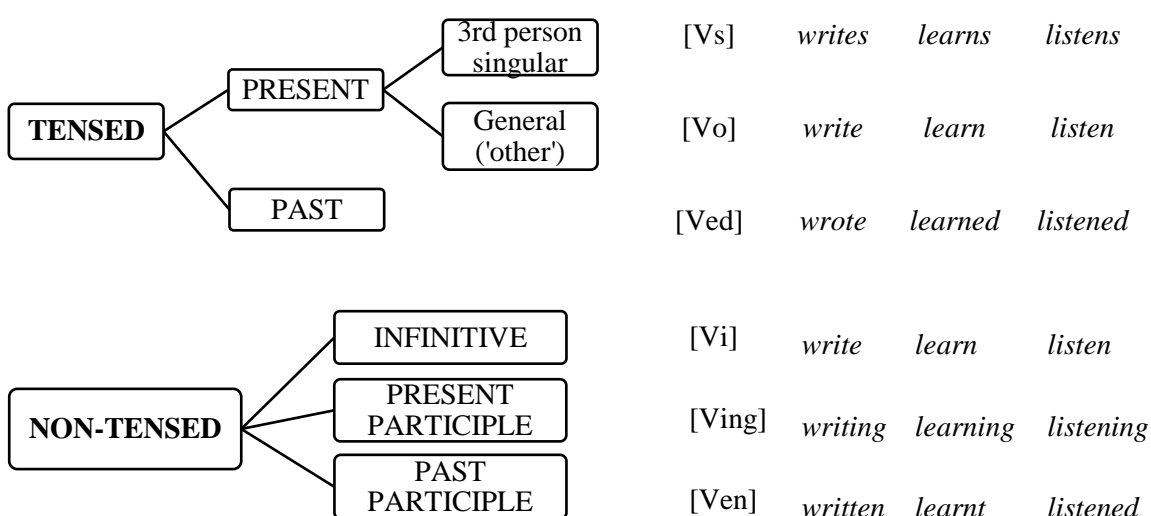
There are two present tense forms, such as:

- the third personal singular present [Vs], which must agree with the singular NP subjects, such as *he, she, it*;
- the general present [Vo], which must agree with all other NP subjects, such as the first person *I*, the second person *you* and the plural NPs. (Collins and Hollo, 2010: 73)

The past tense form [Ved] derives from the suffix *-ed* added to the verb stem, if a verb is regular. However, if the verb is irregular, generally there are either changes in stem vowel or changes in stem vowel with suffixation (ibid.).

The non-tensed inflectional verb forms, as stated by Collins and Hollo (2010) ‘are used to accompany tensed verbs in most types of finite clause or are used without an accompanying tensed form in non-finite clauses’ (Collins and Hollo, 2010: 73). The following non-tensed categories are seen in *Figure 1.2* below:

- the infinitive or base form [Vi], which does not differ from the lexical stem. It is used variously, for example:
  - With auxiliary verb *do* or after a modal auxiliary verb in verb phrases, e.g. *You did not **write** it;*
  - In infinitival clauses with infinitival marker *to*, e.g. *He wants to **write** it;*
  - In imperative clauses, e.g. ***Be** careful!*
  - As the present subjunctive, e.g. *It’s important that they **be** notified.*
- The present participle [Ving] that is formed by adding *-ing* to the stem. It involves both the present participle and the gerund. The present participle plays an important role in the progressive aspect, e.g. *They **were crying** uncontrollably.* In addition, it also may be a modifier in NP structure, e.g. *He cannot stand **crying** babies,* where *crying* is a modifier of *babies*. The gerund is a verbal noun, which means that it has a form of a verb and a function of a noun, e.g. ***Crying** will not help,* where *crying* is a Ving verbal form that functions as subject of the clause;
- Past participle [Ven] is the past tense of verbs, e.g. *forgotten.* The past participle is applied in the perfect aspect or the passive voice. (Collins and Hollo, 2010: 73-75).



*Figure 1.2. Six inflectional categories of the verbs* (based on Collins and Hollo, 2010: 75)

### 1.1.2 The Auxiliary Verbs

The second type of the verbs is auxiliary verbs; they have two subclasses: the primary auxiliary verbs, such as *be, have, do*; and the modal auxiliary verbs, or modals, such as *can, may, will, shall, must, ought, need, dare*. Although the auxiliary verbs have the function of dependents of the main verbs, they express distinctions between tense, aspect, mood and voice. That is why they usually are not alone in a VP. (Huddleston, 1984: 126)

The primary auxiliary verbs *be, have* and *do* belong also to the class of the main verbs. This is provided in the following examples by Collins and Hollo (2010: 76):

- *John is watering the garden / John is a keen gardener;*
- *Sue has forgotten her sunglasses / Sue has new sunglasses;*
- *Do they enjoy dancing? / they never do the dishes.*

As it can be seen, in the first sentence of each pair, the auxiliary verb (*is, has, do*) is dependent of the main verb (*watering, forgotten, enjoy*), whereas in the second sentence of each pair, the auxiliary verb becomes the main verb.

The biggest differences between the main verb and the auxiliary verb is that the latter has negative tensed forms, for instance, *haven't, can't, won't*, while the former does not have such feature.

### 1.2 Voice

According to Chalker and Weiner (1984), voice in the English language is ‘a grammatical category which [...] provides two different ways [...] of viewing the action of the verb’ (Chalker and Weiner, 1984: 420). A deeper explanation is provided by Shibatani (1988), who states that voice is ‘a mechanism that selects a grammatically prominent syntactic constituent – subject – from the underlying semantic function (‘case’ or ‘thematic roles’) of a clause’ (Shibatani, 1988: 3). The English grammar distinguishes the concept of voice into two parts, such as the active voice, in which ‘the subject of the sentence performs the action indicated by the verb’ (Humphrey and Holmes, 2009: 15) and the passive voice, in which ‘the subject of the sentence receives the action of the verb’ (ibid.). However, in some languages, for example, Greek, there is also a middle voice, which involves reflexive verbs. In the active voice of English, the subject does the action, which is indicated by the verb,

e.g.: *I was cooking food last night.*

The example of the active voice is called active because it has the subject, *I*, which has the active role, the role of agent: *I* performed the action.

The passive voice is ‘the form of a verb in which subject is affected by the action of the verb’ (Joshi, 2013: Online),

e.g.: *Food was being cooked by me last night.*

This instance is called passive because the subject *food* has the passive role in it: the action was performed on *food*.

The examples mentioned above represent the difference between the active and the passive voice, and it can be stated that the object in the active sentence (*food*) becomes the subject in the passive sentence.

### 1.2.1 The Passive Voice and Its Forms

The previous subchapter on the general concept of voice contained two sentences exemplifying the difference between the active and the passive voice. In the passive sentence, the passive phrase *by me last night* is considered as an agent, because in the active sentence, *I* is the subject, which does not belong to the verb phrase, whereas in the passive voice, it belongs to it. In most of the cases, the agent can be omitted. Therefore, the passive voice can have the following forms in the English language, such as ‘the short passive’ (also can be called ‘*the agentless passive*’), which is the most common type of the passive construction in the English language containing the internalised complement, and ‘the long passive’, which does not have it (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan, 1999: 935).

The short passive is ‘the construction containing no overt expression of the agent’ (Trask, 1993: 11), where agent is the semantic role which is carried by a noun phrase that is noted as ‘the conscious instigator of an action’ (ibid.). In the active sentences, the agent is compulsory, whereas in the passive transformation, it is optional. According to Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985: 88), the agent is omitted in the following cases: when it is unknown, unimportant, irrelevant or evident from the context,

e.g.: *My room was being painted yesterday.*

In the above-mentioned example, the action is more important than the agent is. Moreover, this sentence cannot be changed into the active voice, because the agent is omitted.

As stated by Biber et al. (1999: 477), the short passive is more often used than the long passive. In most of the cases, the agentless sentences represent impersonal style and are more frequently used in academic writing (ibid: 476). Such tendency is also seen in news, with the aim to save space and maximize the effect (Biber et al., 1999: 477). Thus, its usage enables to focus on the process (Carter and McCarthy, 2006: 798).

Long passive is ‘the oblique phrase expressing the agent’ in a passive construction (Trask, 1993: 11). The agent in this passive construction is indicated using the *by*-phrase or any prepositional phrase,

e.g.: *This room was painted by me.*

In this example, the use of the *by*-phrase (*by me*) emphasises the actor of the action, but not the action as such.

As Biber et al. (1999) investigated in their study, most of the sentences in passive are formed with the auxiliary verb *be* which is followed by *ed*-participle (Biber et al, 1999: 475). Nevertheless, it is also possible to create the passive phrase with the verb *get* as the auxiliary, which is considered a recent innovation in the English language.

### 1.3 Types of Passive Voice

Biber et al. (1999) distinguish two types of passive constructions, such as finite and non-finite, each performing its particular purpose, taking into account all the possible variants.

The first type of passive construction is ‘the finite construction’ of the passive voice, which consists of a verb that shows tense (Biber et al., 1999: 193). As stated by Huddleston and Pullum (2002), finiteness refers to limits of the verbs to person or number (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 89). The finite constructions of the passive voice are summarised in *Table 2.1* below.

*Table 2.1. Summary of finite constructions of passive voice* (based on Biber et al., 1999: 935-936)

Type of finite construction of the passive voice	Example
1. Short passive with stative verb	<i>‘This conclusion <u>is hardly justified</u>’</i>
2. Short passive with dynamic verb	<i>‘Whichever system <u>is used</u> it is vital that leaking water <u>is avoided</u>’</i>
3. <i>Get</i> -passive	<i>I <u>got married</u> a month ago;</i>
4. Long passive	<i>‘The proposal <u>was approved by the Project Coordinating Team</u>’.</i>

As it is seen from the table above, there are four types of finite constructions of passive voice. The first one is the short passive with stative verb, which describes the state of the subject of the sentence. As stated by Comrie (1976), stative verb ‘reports a state that requires no expenditure of energy and that continues until energy is expended to change that state’ (Comrie, 1976: 49). Nevertheless, the stative verbs can also have unchanging state. Kreidler (1998) has arranged them in the following groups:

1. Verbs that express feeling, e.g. *abhor, adore, desire, enjoy, envy, fear, feel, hate, like, long for, mind, prefer, regret, want, wish* (Kreidler, 1998: 201);

2. Verbs that express other mental states, e.g. *believe, doubt, expect, intend, interest, know, suppose, suspect, think, understand* (ibid: 202);
3. Verbs that express a relation between two entities, e.g. *belong, consist, contain, cost, deserve, equal, fit, include, involve, keep, lack, matter, mean, need, owe, own, require, resemble* (Kreidler, 1998: 202; Leech, 2004: 30);
4. Verbs that express a physical stance or position, e.g. *kneel, lean, lie, sit, stand*. Although the term “physical” is used in this classification of verbs, they are considered stative verbs as they denote state instead of ability (Kreidler, 1998: 202)
5. Verbs that express non-action, e.g. *remain, stay, wait* (ibid.).

In academic writing, short passive with stative verb is rarely used; however, *contain, include, involve, know, measure, need, recognise, see, think* are the most commonly used stative verbs in short passive. According to Biber et al. (1999), these are ‘mental verbs describing cognitive states (e.g. *know*) and emotional or attitudinal states (e.g. *need*)’ (Biber et al., 1999: 363-364). Quirk et al. (1985) provide the following example of passive with stative verb – ‘*This conclusion is hardly justified*’. According to the classification provided by Kreidler (1998), the verb ‘justify’ is stative and expresses other mental states (not feelings). In addition, as stated by Biber et al. (1999), this verb describes cognitive states.

Next type is the short passive with dynamic verb, which describes processes and conditions. As explained by Comrie (1976), dynamic verb ‘reports a situation that will only continue if there is a continual input of energy, but it ceases when energy is no longer expended’ (Comrie, 1976: 49). Moreover, Quirk et al. (1985) states that dynamic verbs indicate activity, action, and changing or temporary conditions (Quirk et al., 1985: 21). This type of verbs can have different meanings; thus, the following classification is made by Kreidler (1998):

1. Verbs that express physical movement or activity verbs, e.g. *abandon, ask, beg, come, drift, drink, eat, float, go, help, hop, learn, jump, play, pound, rain, read, rotate, run, rotate, slice, swim, throw, turn, vibrate, walk, work* (Quirk et al., 1985: 46; Kreidler, 1998:202);
2. Verbs of communication, e.g. *argue, complain, discuss, explain, invite, question, report, say, shout, talk, translate, whisper, write* (Kreidler, 1998: ibid.);
3. Verbs of perception that involve doing something, e.g. *feel, listen, look at, look for, smell, sniff, taste, watch* (ibid.);
4. Process verbs, e.g. *change, deteriorate, develop, dwindle, grow, improve, increase, learn, mature, slow down, worsen*. This type of verbs usually has duration, but it is not specified. Also, the result is not instant (Kreidler, 1998: 202-207; Leech, 2004: 24).

5. Momentary verbs, e.g. *flash, hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, leap, tap, wink*. In general, momentary verbs does not have duration, and their meaning is repetitive (Quirk et al., 1985: 46-47; Kreidler, 1998: 203; Leech, 2004: 24);
6. Transitional event verbs, e.g. *arrive, become, die, get, go, fall, land, leave, lose, stop, take off*. This type of verbs is like process verbs, because their meaning is also durative (Quirk et al., 1985: 46; Kreidler, 1998: 206; Leech, 2004: *ibid.*);
7. Verbs of bodily sensation, e.g. *ache, feel, hurt, itch, tingle*. As regards the verb *feel*, it can be either stative or dynamic verb, depending on the meaning in which it is used (Leech, 2004: 27).

As it seen in the sentence used as the example for short passive with dynamic verb in Table 2.1, such as '*Whichever system is used it is vital that leaking water is avoided*', the verbs 'to use' and 'to avoid' are dynamic process verbs, which are durative, but their duration is not specified. The aim in using passive voice in academic writing is to have 'objective detachment from what is discussed or described, as required by Western scientific tradition' (Biber et al., 1999: 477).

Get-passives are also related to the finite construction of the passive voice, where the auxiliary *be* is replaced by *get* or *become*; this type of passive is rarely used (it is mostly applied to express small details about a specific situation) and is more common in spoken language rather than in the academic writing. For example, '*I got married a month ago*'. Besides, when *get*-passive is used in the negative or interrogative, the auxiliary *do* has to be applied, for instance, '*They did not get charged until later*'. (*ibid.*: 935-936) Nevertheless the *get*-passive is more frequent in conversations, it is still rarely used (*ibid.*: 475).

The last but not the least type of finite constructions of the passive voice is long passive, which contains the *by*-phrase. Although with the use of short passive any written passage becomes impersonal, long passive functions differently. In long passive, the message maintain the same amount of the information as in the active sentence due to the *by*-phrase. Thus, the text is not impersonal. For instance, in the sentence provided as an example for long passive, such as '*The proposal was approved by the Project Coordinating Team*' it is clearly seen that with the use of *by*-phrase the doer of the action is not omitted. Thus, the active sentence would be as follows: *The Project Coordinating Team approved the proposal*. (*ibid.*)

After analysing the above-mentioned cases of finite constructions of the passive voice, it can be stated that the verb in a such construction shows tense; besides, it can be the main clause or the subordinate clause. In addition, the finite constructions of passive voice include constructions with the auxiliary verbs, for example, *used to be written, has to be done, need to be taken*, etc. (*ibid.*)

The second type of the passive construction is ‘the non-finite constructions’, which means that the clause has a verb that does not show tense (Online 1). The non-finite constructions are summarised in the *Table 2.2* below.

*Table 2.2 Summary of types of non-finite construction of the passive voice* (based on Biber et al, 1999: 936-937)

Types of non-finite constructions of the passive voice	Example
1. Postmodifier of noun in the short passive	<i>‘The major weather factors <u>involved</u> are apparently temperature and precipitation’;</i>
2. Postmodifier of noun in the long passive	<i>‘Let us look at an example <u>given by Baillieul et al.</u>’;</i>
3. Infinitive or <i>ed</i> -clause complement of a verb in the short passive	<i>‘We know with some confidence that if greenhouse gases <u>continue to be emitted</u> in their present quantities, we will experience unprecedented rates of sea-level rise’;</i>
4. Infinitive or <i>ed</i> -clause complement of a verb in the long passive	<i>‘More simply put, a feedback system has its inputs <u>affected by it outputs</u>’;</i>
5. Other non-finite constructions in the short passive	<i>‘But there is no debate, and any decisions are <u>likely to be taken, piecemeal and by default</u>’;</i>
6. Other non-finite constructions in the long passive	<i>‘Senhora Neto-Kiambata had the honour of <u>being received by The Prince of Wales and The Prince Edward</u>’.</i>

As stated by Biber et al. (1999), this group contains six different kinds, specifically, three kinds for the short passive and three kinds for the long passive. The main difference between the kinds of the non-finite constructions is in the use of the *by*-phrase in long passive at the end of the sentence. The first pair is the postmodifier of noun in the short/long passive, where the most important word of a sentence is followed by a verb in passive; in the example for the short passive, ‘*The major weather factors involved are apparently temperature and precipitation*’, it is shown that the verb *involved* comes after the noun *factors*, and in the sentence for the long passive, ‘*Let us look at an example given by Baillieul et al.*’ the verb *given* follows the noun *examples*; therefore, *involved/ given* are called postmodifiers of *factors/ example*. (Biber et al., 1999: 936)

The next group is infinitive or *ed*-clause complement of a verb in the short/long passive. According to the examples provided in the *Table 2.2*, in the case of the short passive in the sentence ‘*We know with some confidence that if greenhouse gases continue to be emitted in their present quantities, we will experience unprecedented rates of sea-level rise*’, *to be omitted* is a complement of a verb *continue*, while in the long passive in the example ‘*More simply put, a feedback system has its inputs affected by it outputs*’, *affected by it outputs* is a complement of a verb *has*. In addition, it is clearly seen that in the case of short passive, the passive form in verb complement lacks the subject, whereas in the case of long passive, it is preceded by an overt subject. (ibid.:936-937)

There is also the type of non-finite construction of the passive voice called other non-finite constructions in the short/long passive. As it is seen in the example provided for the non-finite construction in the short passive, which is '*But there is no debate, and any decisions are likely to be taken, piecemeal and by default*', the verb phrase *to be taken* is infinitive complement of an adjective, whereas in the example for the long passive, '*Senhora Neto-Kiambata had the honour of being received by The Prince of Wales and The Prince Edward*', the verb phrase *being received by* is a complement of a preposition. (Biber et al., 1999: 936-937)

As regards non-finite constructions of the passive voice, it is clearly seen that non-finite constructions have a verb that does not show tense, as well as this construction is used in subordinate clauses. Besides, these constructions are the same for the short and the long passive, but the main difference between them is that the long passive constructions contains *by*-phrase, which is the main characteristic of the long passive.

Voice in the English language consists of two parts, such as the active voice and the passive voice. The active voice contains the verb that indicates the action, whereas the passive voice consists of the subject that is affected by the action of the verb. The passive voice can be of two forms, such as short and long passive. Besides, there are two types of the passive voice construction – finite and non-finite construction. Finite constructions of the passive voice consist of four types, while non-finite construction has six types (three for the short passive and three for the long passive). The types of finite constructions of the passive voice are as follows: the short passive with stative or dynamic verb, *get*-passive and the long passive. The non-finite construction of the passive voice involve postmodifier of a noun, infinitive of *ed*-clause complement of a verb, other non-finite constructions, each type for both the short and the long passive.

## 2. CORPUS-BASED RESEARCH OF PASSIVE VOICE

For the last ten years, the research on the use of the passive voice is done based on corpora. Therefore, the corpus-based approach was selected as a research method of the present research. This chapter is devoted to uncovering the previous corpus-based researches related to the scope of the present study.

Corpus linguists normally distinguish broad types of corpora. According to Gries (2017:9-11), corpora is of two basic categories – general corpora and specialised corpora. As McEnery et al. (2006) explains, ‘general corpora typically serve as basis for an overall description of a language or language variety’ (McEnery et al, 2006: 15). For example, British National Corpus (BNC) is considered as a general corpus, as it ‘is supposed to represent modern British English as a whole’ (ibid.). A good general corpus proportionally should cover as many text types as possible, so that the corpus maximally represents language. Specialised corpora, on the contrary, ‘are designed for the purpose of creating a sample of specialised language’ (McEnery et al, 2006:15). They are focused on specific genre, register or any other variable one would like to investigate (ibid.). For instance, the Michigan Corpus of Upper-level student Papers (MICUSP) consists of various academic writings from different disciplines (Bennett, 2010: 13). Although specialised corpora are usually smaller than general, it can be insightful and purposeful.

Each type of corpora – general or specialised – can be subdivided into raw corpora or annotated corpora. Raw corpora consist of only the raw material, while annotated corpora has additional information about the material, for example, where the corpus comes from, which language it represents, when it was recorded or who were the participants of the conversation.

The present research involves a collection of texts, specifically, the BA and journal article abstracts to investigate the use of the passive voice in academic writing. Thus, it is conducted from the quantitative perspective, and the corpus-based approach is involved. To conduct the present research, a pre-study was done. The case study was carried out by the author of the present research during the course *Introduction to Corpus Linguistics* to investigate if the passive voice is used by the EFL students of Latvia. In the primary investigation, the abstracts of BA thesis written by the students of the Faculty of Humanities, the University of Latvia, were selected as a corpus of the analysis. The study revealed that the passive constructions are frequently used by the EFL students; it was summed up with the idea that the use of the passive voice is connected to the language proficiency; thus, it led to the hypothesis of the present research. However, to ensure the topicality of the issue of the present study, the previous researches were examined.

One of the first corpus-based studies of the passive voice was done by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999) in their book *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. The study was based on the general corpus consisting of 40 million words of text. The corpus included texts of four main registers, such as news, conversation, academic prose and fiction. The study was conducted to represent linguistic variation of the English language. (Biber et al., 1999: 4-50) One of the main focuses of the present research was the use of the passive voice among four registers selected by paying attention to the finite and non-finite constructions of the passive voice. As it was investigated by Biber et al. (1999), the passive voice is more frequently used in the academic writing, i.e. they occur 18 500 times per million words. The most frequently used construction was the short passive, whereas the *get*-passive was rarely used in any type of texts. (ibid: 475-478)

The investigation by Kalnberzina (2015) explored the concept of the passive voice in general terms. Web was used as a general corpus according to Kilgarriff (2003) to deal with the analysis of the use of the passive voice by native and non-native speakers of English. To conduct that research, Kalnberzina (2015) used Google Search data to compare the use of the passive voice in Latvian and English texts. Such approach was taken to provide valid data, as the corpus of the academic written Latvian language is not developed. That study revealed that in the texts in Latvian, the passive voice is used much more frequently than the active voice, whereas in the texts in English, the situation is vice versa – the active voice is preferred. It was concluded that such tendency could be related to conventions provided by the academic institution. For example, in Latvia, the passive voice is considered as a norm of academic language, because an author does not provide his/her opinion directly. However, conventions of English-speaking countries encourage to use the active voice, because it is more precise. (Kalnberzina, 2015: 150-151)

Another important corpus-based study was done by Shintani in 1979. Her aim was to investigate the frequency of passive constructions and their use in the corpus of spoken and written American English, which was approximately 146 690 words long. The corpus consisted of discussions, conversations, interviews, journalistic writing, novels, Senate hearings and readers' letters to the editor. The frequency analysis of different passive constructions was provided, as well as the most frequent verbs in passive were counted. According to her findings, the most common passive construction was the long passive. (Shintani, 1979 in Moreb, 2016: 24-25)

As the passive voice has various constructions, the studies were compiled paying attention to the specific construction. For example, Hundt (2001) investigated the *get*-constructions from the 1600s to the 1900s, which involved the analysis of *get*-passive as well.

To make the investigation, she created her own corpus by getting information from various corpora, such as the ARCHER Corpus (A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers), Brown and LOB corpora, as well as Frown and FLOB corpora. This study was focused on two aspects: get + past participle and get + NP (noun phrase) + part participle. According to the data retrieved, there were differences in the use of the get-construction in British and American English. Over the last three decades, the number of get-constructions has increased. (Hundt, 2001: 744-746)

In 2004, Eli Hinkel (2004) has made an investigation, comparing the use of tense, aspect and voice in texts written by the English as Native Language and the English as Foreign Language students. Her research was conducted from the quantitative perspective with the help of specialised annotated corpora consisting of 746 essays. The results were based on the calculation of median frequency rates for tenses, aspects and the passive voice; it was revealed that the ENL students use complex sentence structures more frequently than the EFL students. Also, the passive voice was likely preferred by the former rather than the latter, specifically, the ENL students applied the passive voice in their academic essays on the average almost 2,5 more often than the EFL students. (Hinkel, 2004: 13-24)

In another study, Tarone et al. (1998) examined the frequency of the passive and the active voice in astrophysical journal articles taken from *The Astrophysical Journal*. For the investigation, the researchers paid attention to the 'subject + be + verb + -en' form, and made the frequency analysis of the passive and the active verb forms used in the papers selected for the analysis. The finite verbs phrases and all active voice verb forms were counted; however, the verbs to be, to have, to exist, to become and to get were omitted as they were not in the passive. Study of Tarone et al. showed that the active voice was more frequently used in astrophysical research papers. Moreover, they came to the conclusion that the first person plural we verb form was used when an author presented a unique idea. Besides, the researchers pointed out the need of similar analysis in different fields. (Tarone et al., 1998: 117-129)

These investigations encouraged the author of the present research paper to conduct the similar investigation, involving the analysis of academic writing by the non-native speakers of the English language in Latvia. To proceed, the present studies on similar issues in Latvia were investigated; therefore, the case study conducted by Apse and Farneste (2014) was taken into account. That research was focused on the errors in the use of English finite verbs made in the grammar tests of 50 students of the University of Latvia. It showed that there is an issue in the use of the verb tense and aspect. (Apse and Farneste, 2014: 9-14) However, this study lacked a deeper analysis of the use of the passive voice, as it was done by Hinkel (2004).

To sum up, it can be concluded that in general, corpus-based research is done on the corpora of different sizes, but predominantly on the specialised corpora. Although the use of the passive voice in previous studies was investigated with the help of both – general and specialised – corpora, the results are contradictory. Therefore, it provides good conditions for the new examination to reveal the use of the passive voice in a the materials selected for the analysis.

### 3. GENRE AND REGISTER

As the present research paper deals with the use of the passive voice in academic writing, it is essential to investigate two closely-related concepts, such as genre and register.

#### 3.1 The Concept of Genre

Genre as a term first appeared in the Aristotelian time, when there was an attempt ‘to classify documents into categories or ‘genre’ with similar form, topic or purpose’ (Crowston, 2007: 3).

There are many studies, where the term genre is used, for example, Biber (1988), Bhatia (2002), Swales (1990, 2004), where Swales (1990) focuses on the structure of the text, whereas Biber (1988) analyses pervasive linguistic features. Ljung (2000) provides a broad and specific explanation of genre, stating that it is

a text or discourse type which is recognised as such by its users by its characteristic features of style or form, which will be specifiable through stylistic and text-linguistic/discourse analysis and/or by the particular function of texts belonging to the genre. (Ljung, 2000: 206)

As regards the contemporary linguistic perspective, Bhatia (1993) provides his definition stating that genre is ‘a recognisable communicative event characterised by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the academic or professional community in which it regularly occurs’ (Bhatia, 1993: 13). He also emphasises that the communicative purpose is the most crucial aspect in genre identification (ibid., 1998: 45), as it helps to identify genre in case of crucial changes, and sub-genres in case of slight modifications.

Although it has been used for a long time, some scholars still consider this phenomenon as ‘fuzzy’ and hardly definable as it has flexible and dynamic qualities (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993). As stated by Marza (2007: 54), ‘genres do have a rather slippery nature’; therefore, it is challenging to define and group them.

##### 3.1.1 Abstract as a Sub-genre

It is possible to investigate any research paper as a genre that consists of various sub-genres, for example, the abstract, the introduction, the theoretical background, the conclusions. As this paper is focused on the examination of the abstracts, it is important to consider abstract as a subgenre, that is a subcategory of a genre.

Abstract has a crucial role in any research, because it is the part of the text that has the biggest potential to be publicly available. As stated by Bhatia (1993), abstract is ‘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’ (Bhatia, 1993: 78).

Karapetjana (2007: 95) suggests that the abstract is ‘a short written statement of the most important ideas in the research paper’, and suggests its following communicative functions, which are based on the summary of the definitions available:

1. to summarise and emphasise 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 (ibid.).

### **3.2 Interrelation of Genre and Register**

Although genre and register are two different research perspectives, in the scope of the present research paper, they overlap, as genres may vary between each other due to differences caused by the registers chosen by the authors.

According to Lee (2001:41), the terms ‘register’ and ‘genre’ are most confusing, because in many cases, they are used interchangeably. One difference between these two terms is that genre is more related to the organisation of culture and social purposes around a particular language (Bhatia, 1993), while register is related to the organisation of situation or immediate context (Lee, 2001: 42). As stated by Swales (1990), genre is ‘tied more closely to considerations of ideology and power, whereas register is associated with the organisation of situation or immediate context’ (Swales, 1990: 24).

In addition, Couture (1986) provides his view on the difference between the terms ‘register’ and ‘genre’ assuming that

while registers impose explicitness constraints at the level of vocabulary and syntax, genres impose additional explicitness constraints at the discourse level [...], Unlike register, genre can only be realised in completed texts, for a genre specifies conditions for beginning, continuing, and ending a text. (Couture, 1986: 82)

From the above-mentioned explanations of the present terms, it can be concluded that the term ‘genre’ refers to the whole text, while ‘register’ can appear independently in any text-level structures.

According to Biber and Conrad (2009), when using the terms register and genre, it is referred to two different perspectives on text varieties, where the register perspective involves ‘an analysis of linguistic characteristics that are common in a text variety with analysis of the situation of use of the variety’ (Biber and Conrad, 2009: 2). The genre perspective is similar the register perspective, but it focuses on the ‘conventional structures used to construct a complete text within the variety’ (ibid.).

As it is seen in *Table 1.1*, register and genre are different in four main points, such as:

1. the textual material selected for the analysis. Register deals with samples of texts excerpts, while genre analyses complete texts;
  2. the linguistic characteristics analysed. Register is focused on any lexico-grammatical features, whereas genre is concerned with specialised expressions, rhetorical organisation and formatting;
  3. distribution of linguistic characteristics selected for the analysis. It can be summed up that from the register perspective, linguistic features under investigation are usually frequent and pervasive in texts from the variety, while from the genre perspective, they are usually once-occurring in the text in a particular place;
  4. the interpretation of the linguistic features. In register, features serve important communicative purpose. In genre, these features are conventionally associated with it.
- (Biber and Conrad, 2009: 16)

*Table 1.1 Defining characteristics of registers and genres* (based on Biber and Conrad, 2009: 16)

<b>DEFINING CHARACTERISTIC</b>	<b>REGISTER</b>	<b>GENRE</b>
<i>Textual focus</i>	Sample of text excerpts	Complete texts
<i>Linguistic characteristics</i>	Any lexico-grammatical feature	Specialised expressions, rhetorical organisation, formatting
<i>Distribution of linguistic characteristics</i>	Frequent and pervasive in texts from the variety	Usually once-occurring in the text, in a particular place in the text
<i>Interpretation</i>	Features serve important communicative functions in the register	Features are conventionally associated with the genre: the expected format, but often not functional

It can be concluded from the above-mentioned theories, the terms ‘genre’ and ‘register’ are two different notions which overlap in many points. Therefore, it can be stated that although not being similar, these two approaches can be applied simultaneously to analyse the same text or describe the same object.

As the present research involves both – register and genre – perspectives, as it analyses the use of the passive voice in abstracts. The passive voice is typically used in formal register, to which academic writing as a genre is closely related.

### 3.3 The Concept of Register

Genre is useful when investigating academic texts, whereas from the perspective of register any text can be analysed. Moreover, techniques used in register analysis can be applied in genre analysis as well.

The term 'register' has been investigated a lot; therefore, there are many definitions provided by different scholars. In *Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*, Crystal (1991) defines register as 'a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations, e.g. a register of specific, religious, formal English' (Crystal, 1991: 295).

Overall, the studies of register can be divided into two major theories, such as that register is considered as a variety of language applied in a particular social setting. Scholars that have agreed upon this are Halliday (1978), Bussmann (1996), Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002), and Wardhaugh (2006). According to Halliday (1978), 'register is a variety defined by reference to the social context – it is a function of what you are doing at the time' (Halliday, 1978: 157). Bussmann (1996) states that the register is 'manner of speaking or writing specific to a certain function, that is, characteristic of a certain domain of communication (or of an institution), for example, the language of religious sermons, of parents with their child, or of an employee with his/her supervisor' (Bussmann, 1996:994). Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002) assume that 'registers are varieties of language that are association with different circumstances and purposes' (Biber, Conrad and Leech, 2002: 4). According to Wardhaugh (2006), 'registers are sets of language items associated with discrete occupational or social groups' (Wardhaugh, 2006: 52); however, he does not consider that register shows the level of formality. All the definitions provide the same idea that register is a linguistic variety, which linguistic features depend on the social setting, although Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002), and Halliday (1978) use the word 'variety', whereas Bussmann calls it 'manner'.

The other group of researchers consider the register as a set of linguistic features characteristic for a certain level of formality; these include Joos and Young. As stated by Joos (1972), there are particular linguistic features characteristic for a certain level of formality in each register (Joos, 1972: 278). In addition, Young (2012) states that 'there are two basic forms of register: informal and formal' (Young, 2012: Online). Both Joos and Young provide the following register types – frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate, which will be discussed further in the paper.

### 3.4 Theories on the Study of Register

As it was mentioned in the previous subchapter, there are two major theories on the study of register, which must be discussed in detail. First, the approach supported by scholars considering register a variety of language used in a particular social setting will be examined. Second, the typology of registers provided by Joos (1972) will be investigated, as it refers to register as a set of linguistic features characteristic for a certain level of formality.

Biber et al. (1999: 15) assume that the texts can be arranged into the following four broad types of registers: conversation, fiction, newspaper and academic. The four registers represent different combinations of situational characteristics, which are defined in non-linguistic terms, such as:

1. Mode, which can be either spoken or written. Conversation is considered spoken, while fiction, newspaper and academic registers are written;
2. Interactiveness and real-time production, where conversation is interactive, newspaper and academic registers are not interactive, and fiction is restricted to fictional dialogue;
3. Shared situation. In conversation the situation is shared, whereas in all other registers it is not shared;
4. Main communicative purpose/content, which can be subdivided into three categories, where conversation is focused on personal communication, fiction on pleasure reading, newspaper and academic registers have informational purpose;
5. Audience, which is individual for conversation, wide-public for fiction and newspaper registers, and specialist for academic. (Biber et al., 1999: 15)

The above-mentioned information is summarised in *Table 1.1* below. As stated by Biber et al. (1999), these characteristics ‘have direct functional correlates, and, as a result, there are usually important differences in the use of grammatical features among register’ (Biber et al., 1999: 15). As the example, the face-to-face conversation was taken that is highly interactive with two participants involved. As a result, the conversation is frequent in the use of the first pronouns *I* and *we*, as well as the second person pronoun *you*. (ibid.) On the contrary, the academic prose is required to be impersonal; for that reason, first and second person pronouns are rarely used, and the passive voice is involved. (ibid.)

**Table 1.1 Summary of the major situational differences among the four primary registers used in this grammar** (based on Biber et al., 1999: 16)

	<b>CONVERSATION</b>	<b>FICTION</b>	<b>NEWS</b>	<b>ACADEMIC</b>
<b>Mode</b>	Spoken	Written	Written	Written
<b>Interactiveness and real-time production</b>	Yes	Restricted to fictional dialogue	No	No
<b>Shared situation</b>	Yes	No	No	No
<b>Main communicative purpose/content</b>	Personal communication	Pleasure reading	Information/evaluation	Information/argumentation/explanation
<b>Audience</b>	Individual	Wide-public	Wide-public	Specialist

Joos (1972: 278) suggests another typology of registers, subdividing them into the following five types:

1. Frozen register, which is the most formal register used, where language never changes. This type of register is typical for laws and Bible;
  2. Formal register, where standard language is used. The examples of its main characteristics are use of full name address, complex grammatical structures, and field-specific vocabulary. Generally, it is used in speeches and academic writings;
  3. Consultative register, which is a standard form of communication used in professional discourse, for example, in doctor and patient conversation;
  4. Casual register, which is an informal use of language by friends and peers. Colloquialisms and slang are frequent, sentences are short and simple; usually, this register is applied in daily conversation or chats;
  5. Intimate register, which is used by a very close friends and family members. It is applied in private communication, for instance, between husband and wife, parent and children.
- (Joos, 1972: 278)

In the present investigation, the typology by Joos (1972) is selected, because it is important not to compare grammatical features used in different genres, as it is in the situation characteristics suggested by Biber et al. (1999). This study is focused on the examination of the use of the passive voice in such academic writing as abstracts. Therefore, it is vital to emphasise that the academic writing represents formal register, where complex sentence structures are used with field-specific vocabulary. Moreover, one of the most characteristic features of the academic writing is the use of the passive voice, which is the focus of the present study.

## **Interim Conclusions**

The present chapter dealt with the theoretical background of the information related to the topic. It was investigated that the previous corpus-based studies on the use of the passive voice showed the contradictory results. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct the research on this issue to get more precise data.

When discussing the concept of passive voice, it is important to pay attention to verbs. As it was examined, verbs are of two types, such as the main verbs and the auxiliary verbs. Besides, the passive voice has also the short passive, which is also called as the agentless passive, and the long passive, where the by-phrase is involved.

In general, passive voice involves two types of constructions, such as the finite and the non-finite constructions, each having specific subtypes and functions. For instance, the finite construction involves short passives with stative or dynamic verbs, as well as get-passive and long passives; whereas the non-finite constructions consists of three types, each divided for short and long passive, such as postmodifier of noun, infinitive of *ed*-clause complement of a verb, as well as other non-finite constructions.

The present research has also drawn attention to the principle of genre and register. It can be summed up that genres may vary between each other due to differences caused by the registers chosen by the authors. Therefore, both perspectives are involved in the present study. As stated by many scholars, the concept of genre is hardly definable due to the flexible and dynamic nature. As regards the register perspective, the studies can be divided into two major theories, such as: register as a variety of language applied in a particular social setting and register as a set of linguistic features characteristic for a certain level of formality. In the former, there are the following five components that help in analysing any register: mode, interactiveness and real-time production, shared situation, main communicative purpose/content, and audience. In the latter, register is divided into five divided into five types, such as frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate.

## 4. METHODS AND MATERIALS FOR ANALYSIS

Chapter 4 outlines the methodology used in the present research paper that investigates the hypothesis stated in the Introduction. It reveals the analysis of the abstracts of the BA abstracts written by EFL students and of research articles written by the researchers. The empirical study was conducted in particular stages explained in the research procedure; the findings and the results of the analysis are provided, and relevant conclusions were drawn.

### 4.1 Corpus-based Case Study

The research method used in the present study is corpus-based methodology. According to McEnery and Hardie (2012:1-2), corpus linguistics is the language study on a large scale. It is a modern and computer-aided science that analyse large selections of written texts or transcribed utterances. Unlike other branches of linguistics, corpus linguistics does not focus on one particular aspect of language like grammar or pronunciation. Instead, corpus linguistics deals with methods, approaches and procedures that are useful for analysing the language. As corpus linguistics is a computer-aided science, the researchers are able to analyse large quantities of texts and their findings have much greater generalizability and validity.

In corpus linguistics, researchers base their analysis on a large collection of natural texts, known as corpus (Biber and Reppen, 2004: 7). Plag, Braun, Lappe and Schramm (2007: 163) give its brief definition stating that ‘it is a compilation of machine-readable texts, both written and spoken, from a language’. Gries (2017:7) explains that machine-readable texts are texts, which are accessible from different kinds of computer operating systems and can be easily manipulated by various users. The main idea is that corpus is a selection of texts that are systemically assembled in order to carry out a linguistic research. Corpus can consist all kinds of texts, for example, essays, twitter posts, poems, transcribed interviews and news broadcasts, political interviews.

The corpus-based case study was selected as a primary research method of the present study. According to Yin (1994), ‘doing case study research means conducting an empirical investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its natural context using multiple sources of evidence’ (Yin, 1994: 13). He also distinguishes the following three types of the case studies:

- Exploratory, where a particular phenomenon is investigated before the research questions and hypotheses are formulated;
- Descriptive, where a particular phenomenon that ‘occur within the data in question’ is described;

- Explanatory, where a particular phenomenon ‘in both surface and deep level’ are explained. (Yin, 1994: 4-9)

According to the above-mentioned typification of the case study, this research can be described as exploratory and descriptive, because the prior research of the passive voice in academic writing was investigated; moreover, this study is focused on the analysis of the use of the passive voice in the abstracts of the BA thesis and the research articles. Therefore, the specialised corpus was compiled with the abstracts selected as a research material of the present paper.

Descriptive statistics are used when ‘the researcher is interested in knowing selected characteristics about the sample’ (Dantzker and Hunter, 2006: 169), and is divided in two types, such as absolute (raw) and relative (normalised) frequencies (Xiao, 2013). When discussing the absolute frequency, the number of the cases of any linguistic feature in a corpus is shown. Nevertheless, it does not help in validity of the hypothesis (ibid).

As regards the relative frequency, Xiao (ibid.) explains that it is used to ‘determine how often it could be assumed that the word/part of speech will be seen within the bulk of corpus text’ (ibid.). Nevertheless, Hunston (2006: 235) reports that in order to draw relevant conclusions, the relative frequency is not enough, and log-likelihood has to be calculated. This is a tool that is used to check the statistical significance of the results. Conclusions can be drawn from the critical values:

- 15.13 – less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance;
- 10.83 – less than 0.1 per cent probability of chance;
- 6.63 – less than 1 per cent probability of chance;
- 3.84 – less than 5 per cent probability of chance (threshold of statistical significance);
- below 3.84 – a higher than 5 per cent probability of chance; thus, it is insufficient difference (McEnery, Xiao, Tono, 2006: 55; Brezina, 2018: 84).

Although the present study has mostly approached from quantitative perspective, there are some elements of qualitative research perspective involved.

The data used in the investigation must be reliable; as reported by Paltridge (2006), reliability ‘refers to the consistency of the results obtained in the project’ (Paltridge, 2006: 217). For that reason, first of all, prior to the Master Thesis investigation, a research on the use of the passive voice in academic writing by the EFL students was established. The results of that study showed that the passive voice was frequently used. Then, the previous studies related to the field of interest of the present paper were investigated, for instance, researches by Hinkel (2004), Apse and Farneste (2014), and Kalnberzina (2015). These studies helped to create an

outline of this research paper. Next, to make theoretical framework, the literature related to the topic was examined, for instance, theories by Halliday (1978), Swales (1990), Bhatia (1993), Biber and Conrad (2009), Collins and Hollo (2010). The investigation of theoretical sources aimed at supporting the ideas expressed in the Introduction.

#### 4.2 Research procedure

The present research was organised and conducted in the following steps. First, an aim, enabling objectives and hypothesis were formulated. Second, a theoretical background was set, and a theoretical framework was established. Third, the empirical part of the present research was fulfilled; it was done in several stages. The first stage was the creation of specialised corpora, which involved the choice of the material to analyse. It was necessary to choose the abstracts of the BA thesis written by the EFL students, which was challenging as it was necessary to find relevant materials. For example, BNC cannot be used because it does not contain BA papers of the ENL students. BAWE (The British Academic Written English Corpus) accessibility and contents was carefully researched as well, but it was concluded that the materials needed for the present study are not available there, as it contains students' academic writings with length in range 500-5000 words.

*Table 4.1 Size of students and researchers' sub-corpora*

	Students' sub-corpus	Researchers' sub-corpus
<i>Number of texts in sub-corpus</i>	100	100
<i>Number of words in sub-corpus</i>	15 299	16 700

The analysis material has been selected from two specialised corpora created for the present research. Therefore, for the part of the BA abstracts by the EFL students, the e-resource repository of the University of Latvia available online on [www.dspace.lu.lv](http://www.dspace.lu.lv) was used, as it provides the scientific achievements of the University of Latvia. The corpus texts in the students' corpus consists of 100 abstracts that are arranged into five groups (15 299 words) according to the faculty: Faculty of Business, Management and Economics; Faculty of Computing; Faculty of Humanities; Faculty of Law; Faculty of Social Sciences. The average number of words in abstract of BA thesis is 156 words.

As regards the abstracts of the research articles, they were retrieved from the digital library JSTOR available online at <https://www.jstor.org/>, where the access is provided by the University of Latvia; it contains a wide range of scholarly content. The corpus texts in researchers' corpus (16 700 words) consists of 100 abstracts that are arranged in correspondence to the abstracts selected for the EFL students' corpus: business and economics,

computing, humanities, law, and social sciences. The average number of words in abstract of research articles is 146 words.

Each corpus was placed in two folders called *Students' sub-corpus* and *Researchers' sub-corpus*. Then, abstracts were divided regarding their field of study; for example, the abstracts of BA thesis were put in five different folders, according to the faculty where they were submitted. The abstracts of research articles were also separated in five different folders in accordance with the field. To conduct the research, it was necessary to have separate .doc and .txt file of each abstract selected for the analysis.

Next, the analysis of the use of the passive voice in the abstracts of BA thesis and research articles was conducted. In order to conduct this research, the application of the specialised computer software was needed. Therefore, with the help of *AntConc*, which is the freeware corpus analysis toolkit for concordancing and text analysis, short and long passive constructions were researched. The particular software was selected in this study as *AntConc* can also be used for searches dealing with multiple frames. To investigate the cases of passive constructions, the following frames have been applied:

- *Is \*/ are \*/ was \*/ were \** that is the most typical frame to find short passive;
- *Is \* by/ are \* by/ was \* by/ were \* by* to find long passive;
- *\*ed/ \*ed by* to investigate the cases of particular short passive constructions, such as postmodifier of noun in short and long passive;
- *Has been \*/ have been \*/ had been \* and has been \* by/ have been \* by/ had been \* by* to find other constructions of short and long passive;
- *'Modal verb' be \*/ 'modal verb' be \* by* because it is possible to have finite constructions of passive voice with modal verbs, such as can, could, may, might, will, would, shall, should, must;
- *Get \*/ get \* by* to detect finite constructions of *get*-passives;
- *'Ven'/' Ven' by* to investigate all the possible passive constructions with irregular verb forms, e.g. *written, taken, made*.

The findings on the use of passive voice in both sub-corpora were analysed to reveal differences and similarities of the variations across the types of passive voice depending on the following criteria:

- Finding of all occurrences of all passive voice constructions with the help of corpus analysis toolkit for concordancing and text analysis called *AntConc*;
- Manually identifying the relevant results;

- Classifying passive construction in both sub-corpora according to their type of finite or non-finite construction;
- Comparing the results by calculating relative frequency and log-likelihood. using *Log-likelihood and effect size calculator*, available online at <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html>.

## 5. RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

In this section, the results of the investigation of passive voice in such academic writing as the abstracts are presented. The abstracts under analysis were selected from five different field of studies to analyse the use of passive voice by the EFL students and by academicians. The investigation of passive voice was conducted in accordance with the finite and non-finite constructions proposed by Biber et al. (1999). The analysis was conducted with the help of two specialised sub-corpora designed for the present research, as well as corpus analysis toolkit *AntConc*.

When dealing with data extraction from the abstracts selected for the analysis, the frames discussed above were applied. The cases of passive voice were investigated in each field of both corpora separately.

*Table 4.1 Total number of concordance hits in each field*

<b>Field</b>	<b>Abstracts of BA thesis</b>	<b>Abstracts of research articles</b>
<i>Humanities</i>	210	117
<i>Business and economics</i>	159	128
<i>Law</i>	285	256
<i>Computing</i>	112	207
<i>Social sciences</i>	155	152
<b>Total:</b>	<b>921</b>	<b>860</b>

*Table 4.1* shows the total number of concordance hits retrieved from *AntConc* when the frames for the investigation of passive voice were applied. However, as raw data is shown, and valid information is needed, the empirical part included semi-automated corpus-based case study research as the retrieved information had to be checked manually to be relevant for this study.

*Table 4.2 Number of passive constructions in each field*

<b>Field</b>	<b>Abstracts of BA thesis</b>	<b>Abstracts of research articles</b>
<i>Humanities</i>	86	25
<i>Business and economics</i>	36	26
<i>Law</i>	75	36
<i>Computing</i>	44	43
<i>Social sciences</i>	47	34
<b>Total:</b>	<b>288</b>	<b>164</b>

*Table 4.2* represents the valid information on the number of passive constructions in each field after an in-depth investigation of total number of concordance hits. According to the data, it can already be stated that most of the cases of passive voice can be investigated in the abstracts of BA thesis.

The valid results of finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice in both corpora are discussed in detail further in the present research study.

## 5.1 Results of the Analysis

The relative frequency was required in the present research due to the differences in the size of sub-corpora as the sub-corpus of the abstracts of BA thesis has 15 299 words, whereas the sub-corpus of the abstracts of research articles consists of 16 700 words. To calculate the relative frequency, the formula represented below was applied:

$$\text{Relative frequency} = \frac{\text{Frequency of an individual item} * 10\,000}{\text{Total amount of words in a sub-corpus}}$$

In order to compare two sub-corpora under analysis that are of different sizes (15 299 and 16 700 words), the frequencies has to be normalised. Therefore, frequency of a specific construction of passive voice in a sub-corpus was multiplied by 10 000, and the result was divided by the total amount of words in a sub-corpus. Thus, the passive constructions used in each sub-corpus was normalised per 10 000 words.

Table 4.5 shows how frequently each type of finite constructions of passive voice appears in both corpora compiled for the present research.

**Table 4.5 Relative frequency table of finite passive constructions in students and researchers' corpora**

Type of finite constructions of passive voice	Students' corpus		Researchers' corpus	
	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency
<i>Short passive with stative verb</i>	21	13.72	24	14.37
<i>Short passive with dynamic verb</i>	177	115.69	79	47.30
<i>Get-passive</i>	4	2.61	0	0
<i>Long passive</i>	19	12.41	11	6.59

It is observed in the data that short passive with dynamic verb is the most frequently used finite construction in both sub-corpora. Overall, in the students' sub-corpus, it accounts for 80.1 per cent of all finite constructions, whereas in the researchers' corpus, it is 69.3 per cent. It therefore demonstrates the highest relative frequencies, respectively, 115.69 per 10 000 words in the students' sub-corpus and 47.30 per 10 000 words in the researchers' sub-corpus. The least frequent finite construction is *get-passive* with 2.61 per 10 000 words for the former collection of texts, which is 1.81 per cent of total, and 0 per 10 000 words in the latter collection of texts. As it was already explained by Biber et al. (1999: 475), *get-passives* are typically applied in conversations, but in academic writing, this type of finite passive constructions is rarely used. As regards short passive with stative verb, which according to Biber et al. (ibid.) is infrequent in academic writing, the relative frequency shows that in the students' corpus, it is 13.72 per

10 000 words and comprises 9.5 per cent of finite construction, whereas in the researchers' corpus, it represents 14.37 per 10 000 words, and is 21.05 per cent. Thus, it can be stated that in the percentual distribution, the difference is significant, whereas the relative frequency observes the bare difference. The surprising result was discovered with the instances of finite constructions of long passive. According to the data retrieved, the relative frequency of this type of finite passive constructions distinguished in the abstracts of BA thesis showed 12.41 per 10 000 words, whereas in the researchers' corpus, it was twice less – 6.59 per 10 000 words. Nevertheless, long passive forms 8.59 per cent of finite constructions applied in the former sub-corpus, and 9.65 per cent in the latter sub-corpus respectively.

To sum up, it can be stated that all four types of finite constructions of passive voice were observed in the students' sub-corpus, whereas *get*-passive was not applied in the researchers' sub-corpus. The most frequently applied finite construction in both sub-corpora was short passive with dynamic verb that can be supported by the data retrieved from the relative frequency and percentage calculation, as well as the numbers of occurrences.

Further on, the relative frequency of non-finite constructions of passive voice in the students and researchers' sub-corpora was calculated and interpreted in the similar manner to that of finite constructions of passive voice. As it seen from Table 4.6, postmodifier of noun in short passive and postmodifier of noun in long passive as the types of non-finite passive constructions were applied in the corpus of the abstracts of BA thesis. Although only two of them were detected in the materials selected for the students' corpus, postmodifier of noun in short passive prevails, as its relative frequency is 37.91 per 10 000 words, or 86.7 per cent respectively. The cases of postmodifier of noun in long passive comprises the relative frequency of 5.88 per 10 000 words, or 13.43 per cent consequently.

**Table 4.6 Relative frequency table of non-finite passive constructions in students and researchers' corpora**

Type of non-finite constructions of passive voice	Students' corpus		Researchers' corpus	
	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency
<i>Postmodifier of noun in short passive</i>	58	37.91	28	16.76
<i>Postmodifier of noun in long passive</i>	9	5.88	19	11.37
<i>Infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short passive</i>	0	0	3	1.79
<i>Infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in long passive</i>	0	0	0	0
<i>Other non-finite constructions in short passive</i>	0	0	0	0
<i>Other non-finite constructions in long passive</i>	0	0	0	0

The data obtained during the calculation of the relative frequency of non-finite constructions of passive voice in the abstracts of research articles differed from that of BA thesis, as three types of constructions were applied, such as postmodifier of noun in short and long passive, as well as infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short passive. According to the investigation of postmodifier of noun in short passive, this type of construction was observed 28 times, which numerically is approximately half less than in the case of the same construction in the students' corpus. In the percentual distribution, postmodifier of noun in short passive accounts for 56 per cent. The calculated relative frequency showed that it is 1.79 per 10 000 words. The instances of postmodifier of noun in long passive in the abstracts of research articles, as it is seen in the table below, comprises 19 number of occurrences, that is 38 per cent respectively, and the relative frequency is 11.37 per 10 000 words. Besides, three cases of infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short passive were investigated. Thus, it was calculated that in the materials selected as a corpus they demonstrate the lowest relative frequency of 1.79 per 10 000 words, and it accounts for 6 per cent of the total number of non-finite constructions applied in the researchers' sub-corpus.

It was already mentioned that other non-finite constructions in short and long passives were not investigated in the corpora of the BA abstracts written by the EFL students, as well as in the abstracts of research articles. Biber et al. (1999: 937) have explained that these non-finite constructions of passive voice are most commonly used in conversations. However, in academic writing, these constructions are infrequent (ibid.).

After dealing with the relative frequency of finite and non-finite constructions in both corpora compiled for the present investigation, it is necessary to calculate the relative frequency of the total number of occurrences of passive voice in each corpus, and compare the results retrieved.

**Table 4.7 Relative frequency table of finite and non-finite passive constructions in students and researchers' sub-corpora**

Type of passive construction	Students' sub-corpus		Researchers' sub-corpus	
	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency	Number of occurrences	Relative frequency
<i>Finite constructions of passive</i>	221	144.45	114	68.26
<i>Non-finite constructions of passive</i>	67	43.79	50	29.94

Table 4.7 summarises the results of the relative frequency of each type in the material selected for the present research. It is observed that in corpus of the abstracts of BA thesis, there were 221 finite constructions of passive and 67 non-finite constructions of passive investigated. As regards corpus of the abstracts of research articles, 114 finite constructions and 50 non-finite

constructions of the passive voice were discovered. In terms of the relative frequency, finite constructions of passive in the students' sub-corpus represents 144.45 per 10 000 words, which is 76.7 per cent of the total number of this type of construction in the students' sub-corpus, whereas in the researchers' corpus, these constructions are used less, comprising 30.5 per cent, and the relative frequency is 68.26 per 10 000 words. Nevertheless, the number of occurrences non-finite constructions used in the abstracts of the EFL students comprises the relative frequency of 43.79 per 10 000 words, and in the abstracts of research articles, this type of non-finite constructions, it is 29.94 per 10 000 words. The percentual distribution of finite and non-finite constructions of passive in this sub-corpus is 69.5 per cent for the former and 30.5 per cent for the latter. Thus, it can already be stated that the results of the use of the types of finite and non-finite constructions across sub-corpora are similar. Nevertheless, differentiation is represented in the application of finite and non-finite constructions within each sub-corpus.

### 5.1.1 Analysis of Finite Constructions of Passive Voice

When dealing with the analysis of finite constructions of passive voice in abstracts of BA thesis and research articles, it has been conducted in several steps. As it was already investigated, finiteness refers to limits of the verbs to person or number (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 89). The finite constructions of passive voice consists of four types, such as short passive with stative verb, short passive with dynamic verb, get-passive and long passive (Biber et al., 1999: 935-936). For that reason, each type of finite constructions of passive was examined separately.

Table 4.3 Number of finite constructions of passive voice in each corpus

		TYPES OF FINITE CONSTRUCTIONS OF PASSIVE VOICE							
		Short passive with stative verb		Short passive with dynamic verb		Get-passive		Long passive	
		C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2
<b>FIELD</b>	<i>Humanities</i>	10	6	48	12	0	0	9	0
	<i>Business and economics</i>	2	6	25	10	0	0	0	3
	<i>Law</i>	3	4	40	15	4	0	5	4
	<i>Computing</i>	3	6	36	25	0	0	2	2
	<i>Social sciences</i>	3	2	28	17	0	0	3	2
<b>Total:</b>		<b>21</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>177</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>11</b>

\* C1 – students' corpus; C2 – researchers' corpus

Table 4.3 summarises number of finite constructions of passive voice in each field for both corpora. The detailed description of finite constructions of passive voice applied in students and researchers' corpora is further developed in the present section.

First, finite constructions of short passive with stative verb were analysed. According to Comrie (1976), stative verbs describe a state, not an action (Comrie, 1976: 49).

In students' corpus, cases of short passive with stative verb of the following groups were identified:

- Verbs that express other mental states, e.g. '*It is known that passive voice is used frequently in formal style and it does not occur much in spoken communication [...]*' (see Appendix 1.8). In the present example, the verb 'to know' is used as it describe the cognitive state';
- Verbs that express a relation between two entities, e.g. '*Master theses are not included in the library catalogue at all*' (see Appendix 4.20). The instance indicates the relationships between master thesis and the library catalogue.

As regards the researchers' corpus, such short passive constructions with stative verb were employed as:

- Verbs that express a relation between two entities, e.g. '*The analysis in this Article demonstrates that in fact a more nuanced and accommodating understanding of precedent is required with respect to certain fundamental aspects of foreign affairs law*' (see Appendix 8.6). In this example, relationship between precedent and foreign affairs law is represented.

As it seen above, only two groups of stative verbs were employed in the students' corpus, whereas in researchers' corpus, only one group of short passives with stative verb was used. Verbs that express feeling, as well as verbs that express physical stance or position and verbs that express non-actions were not identified in both corpora. In addition, verbs expressing other mental states were not present in the researchers' corpus.

The next type of finite construction under analysis is short passive with dynamic verb that indicates activity, action, and changing or temporary conditions (Quirk et al., 195: 21). Like short passive with stative verb, this type of construction has its classification as well. According to the data gathered from the students' corpus, the following cases of short passive with dynamic verb were indicated:

- Verbs that express physical movement or activity verbs, e.g. '*The bachelor's paper is written on 79 pages*' (see Appendix 3.5), in which the verb 'write' involves some form of physical movement;
- Verbs of communication, e.g. '*The issues of linguistic variation and language contacts are discussed before focusing on the linguistic situation in Jamaica*' (see Appendix 1.6). This sentence exemplifies the category of verbs of communication as the verb 'discuss' indicates communicative purpose;

- Process verbs, e.g. *In the process of the study, criteria to evaluate the information search process were developed [...]* (see Appendix 3.8). In the example, process verb ‘develop’ indicates a change from one stage to another.

In the corpus of researchers’ abstracts, constructions of short passive with dynamic verb were observed:

- Verbs that express physical movement or activity verbs, e.g. *[...] Supreme Court precedent is typically read to ignore First Amendment interests [...]* (see Appendix 9.3), where the verb ‘read’ involves the form of physical movement;
- Process verbs, e.g. *‘Structural and competence-based formats for measuring proficiency posit an incremental model of learning [...], but this is only one story of how languages are learnt’* (see Appendix 8.2). Thus, the change from one stage to another is represented.

It is observed in the data that in case of constructions of short passive with dynamic verb, both corpora employed verbs that express physical movement or activity verbs, as well as process verbs. In addition, the students’ corpus involved verbs of communication. Nevertheless, both – students’ and researchers’ – corpora do not contain any case of momentary verbs (e.g. *flash, nod, tap*), transitional event verbs (e.g. *become, leave, stop*), as well as verbs of bodily sensation (e.g. *feel, hurt*).

The third finite construction of passive voice is *get*-passive, where the auxiliary *be* is replaced by *get* or *become*. According to the data retrieved from *AntConc*, there were two instances of *get*-passive detected in students’ corpus:

- *‘After getting acquainted with and studying the experience of foreign countries, the legislator has imposed the function of organisation and execution of forced labour to the State Probation Service’* (see Appendix 4.5);
- *‘The aim of this bachelor’s paper is to study the concept of forced labour, the legal framework of its application, [...] as well as to get acquainted with the experience of foreign countries in this field’* (ibid.).

Nevertheless, in the researchers’ corpus, none of *get*-passive constructions were indicated; this can be closely related to the fact that in general, *get*-passive constructions are not frequently used in academic writing, as they are commonly applied in less formal registers, for example, conversations. It may be assumed that in the students’ corpus *get*-passive was applied as the author of the abstract is the EFL students, and word-for-word translation from the Latvian language into the English language was selected as a translation technique.

The last, but not the least type of finite construction is long passive. The main difference between short and long passive, as it was already discussed in theoretical part of the present

paper, is the use of the *by*-phrase in the end of a sentence. During the investigation, several cases of long passive were found in the students' corpus, e.g. '*Place names are used by all people without exceptions – the age and nationality do not matter*' (see Appendix 1.12). As regards the researchers' corpus, sentences with long passive were also present there, e.g. *We address a central question: what literary themes are generally ignored by sociologists [...]*? (see Appendix 10.5). In both cases, the doer of the action is not omitted; thus, both sentences can be easily transformed from passive voice into active voice. The former sentence in the active voice could be as follows: '*All people use place names [...]*'; and the latter: '*What literary themes do sociologists ignore [...]*'?

After having analysed finite constructions of passive voice in students and researchers' corpora, it can be concluded that in the students' corpus, all types of finite constructions were applied. Short passive with dynamic verb were mostly used, whereas only 2 cases of get-passive were detected. As regards the researchers' corpus, it contained three types of finite constructions, as get-passive was not investigated in abstracts of research articles. Nevertheless, it has to be emphasized that there were more cases of short passive with stative verb in the researchers' corpus.

The valid results of non-finite constructions of passive voice in both corpora are discussed in detail in the next section.

### **5.1.2 Analysis of Non-finite Constructions of Passive Voice**

This section describes the use of non-finite construction of passive voice in the abstracts selected for the analysis, i.e. in students and researchers' corpora conducted prior to the investigation.

The second type is 'the non-finite constructions', which means that the clause has a verb that does not show tense (Online 1). According to Biber et al. (1999:936), there are the following types of non-finite constructions, such as the postmodifier of noun in short/long passive, infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short/ long passive and other non-finite constructions in short/long passive.

*Table 4.4* summarises number of non-finite constructions of passive voice in each field for both corpora, where postmodifier of noun is abbreviated as *PM*, and infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb as *COMPL*. The detailed description of non-finite constructions of passive voice applied in students and researchers' corpora is further developed in the present section.

Table 4.4 Number of non-finite constructions of passive voice in each corpus

		TYPES OF NON-FINITE CONSTRUCTIONS OF PASSIVE VOICE											
		PM/ short		PM/ long		COMPL/ short		COMPL / long		Other/ short		Other/ long	
		C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2	C1	C2
<b>FIELD</b>	<i>Humanities</i>	18	5	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Business and economics</i>	4	3	5	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Law</i>	21	6	2	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Computing</i>	2	8	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	<i>Social sciences</i>	13	6	0	5	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>Total:</b>		<b>58</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>	<b>0</b>

\* C1 – students’ corpus; C2 – researchers’ corpus

First of all, the postmodifier of noun in short passive was investigated. As stated by biber et al. (ibid.), a verb in passive follows the most important word of a sentence. In the students’ corpus, this type of non-finite construction of short passive was applied, e.g. ‘*The aim of this paper is to analyse legal framework for employment of persons sentenced to imprisonment in Latvia and other countries [...]*’ (see Appendix 4.20). The noun *persons* is followed by the verb *sentenced*.

Besides, the postmodifier of noun in long passive was examined in the students’ corpus as well, e.g. ‘*This paper analyses organization of the testing process of broadcast radio studio management and audio devices developed by a U.S. company Axia and IMCS UL*’ (see Appendix 5.1). As it seen from the example, the noun *devices* is followed by the verb *developed*. Moreover, as it is considered as long passive, the doer (*a US company Axia and IMCS UL*) is not omitted. Thus, it can be stated that *sentenced* and *developed* are postmodifiers of *persons* and *devices*.

In the case of the researchers’ corpus, the postmodifier of noun in short passive was also applied, e.g. ‘*We find that a firm's investment is highly sensitive to the investments of other firms headquartered nearby, even those in very different industries*’ (see Appendix 6.13), where the noun *firms* is followed by the verb *headquartered*. In addition, the cases with long passive were discovered as well, e.g. ‘*The first movement was the wave of criminal code reform inspired by the American Law Institute's Model Penal Code (MPC)*’ (see Appendix 9.5) with the noun *reform* followed by the verb *inspired* and continued with the *by*-phrase. Therefore, in the examples retrieved from the researchers’ corpus, *headquartered* and *inspired* are postmodifiers of *firms* and *reform*.

Second type of non-finite passive constructions is infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short/long passive. In the materials selected for the analysis of the present research, this type of non-finite construction in short passive was not determined the students’ corpus, whereas in the researchers’ corpus, two cases were discovered, e.g. ‘*The phenomenon of public*

*intellectuals (PIs) continue to be debated, as their status and significance evolve under changing historical circumstances'* (see Appendix 10.16). As it seen, *to be debated* is the complement of verb *continue*. In addition, passive form in verb complement lack its subject.

The case of infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in long passive was discovered as well, e.g. *'These implications ironically bring into consideration the very labour theory of value that Robbins had argued to be usurped by marginal utility theory'* (see Appendix 1.4). This sentence exemplifies the case, where *to be usurped by marginal utility theory* is the complement of the verb *argued*.

In addition, the last type – other non-finite constructions in short/long passive were not identified in the materials of the same of the present research. This tendency could be explained by the fact that, in the view of Biber et al. (1999), passive verb complements as well as passives in other non-finite constructions are rarely used; in addition, they also have found out that passive verb complements are typically used in conversations (Biber et al., 1999: 937). Therefore, it might be assumed as a reason not having them in the abstracts of BA thesis and research articles.

After dealing with the investigation of non-finite constructions of passive voice in two corpora compiled for the present research, it can be stated that postmodifier of noun in short and long passive are the only two non-finite constructions present in both – students' and researchers' – corpora. However, surprising tendency can be seen, as postmodifier of noun in short passive is mostly used in the abstracts written by the EFL students, whereas postmodifier of noun in long passive is mostly used by the researchers. In addition, verb complement in short and long passive were discovered in the researchers' corpus; other non-finite constructions in short and long passive were not applied at all.

### **5.1.3 Inferential Statistics of Passive Voice**

The following section discusses the results of the log-likelihood test to draw relevant conclusions from the comparisons between the types of finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice.

Table 5.5 represents the log-likelihood values for the finite constructions of passive voice used in both sub-corpora in a field-to-field comparison. From the table, it can be observed that difference between finite constructions of passive voice varies from insignificant, where there is higher than 5 per cent probability of chance, e.g. *Business and economics* in the students' sub-corpus to *Business and economics* the researchers' sub-corpus with log-likelihood value 0.15, to slightly above the threshold of significance, e.g. *Business and economics* to *Law* with value 4.38, which means there is less than 5 per cent probability of chance, to extremely

significant, e.g. *Humanities* to *Law* with value 45.81 that implies less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance.

**Table 5.5 LL values, finite constructions in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, field-to-field**

<b>C1 \ C2</b>	<i>Humanities</i>	<i>Business and economics</i>	<i>Law</i>	<i>Computing</i>	<i>Social sciences</i>
<i>Humanities</i>	23.22	18.33	45.81	14.07	27.28
<i>Business and economics</i>	8.25	0.15	4.38	0.29	1.02
<i>Law</i>	17.59	2.56	18.64	0.54	5.65
<i>Computing</i>	37.24	15.07	35.31	11.09	21.84
<i>Social sciences</i>	18.53	3.74	14.63	1.40	6.97

\*C1 – the students' sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers' sub-corpus

Further on, it was crucial to compare finite constructions in each field in the students and researchers' sub-corpora. Table 5.6 below summarises the log-likelihood values of finite constructions in the field of humanities in both sub-corpora under analysis. As observed, short passive with stative verb in the students' sub-corpora to short passive with stative verb in the researchers' sub-corpora represents insignificant critical value. The same outcome is represented in long passive in the students' sub-corpora to short passive with stative verb in the researchers' sub-corpora, as the critical value is below the threshold significance. Nevertheless, extremely significant LL values are observed as well, e.g. short passive with dynamic verb in the students' sub-corpora to get-passive in the researchers' corpora. Thus, difference is significant. In addition, two cases with the critical value of 0 are seen, e.g. where *get*-passive was not observed in the texts written in the field of humanities in both sub-corpora.

**Table 5.6 LL values, finite constructions in the field of humanities in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

<b>C1 \ C2</b>	Short passive with stative verb	Short passive with dynamic verb	Get-passive	Long passive
Short passive with stative verb	0.50	0.60	12.42	12.42
Short passive with dynamic verb	31.21	21.72	59.63	41.44
Get-passive	9.25	18.50	0	0
Long passive	0.24	1.00	11.18	11.18

\*C1 – the students' sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers' sub-corpus

The next table compares the log-likelihood values of finite construction in the field of business and economics in the corpus of the present study. It is observed that critical values of *get*-passive and long passive are the same, as both types of finite constructions were not investigated in the abstracts written by the EFL students in their BA thesis. Nevertheless, in relation to other types of finite constructions, they provide the LL value above the threshold of significance;

thus, as stated by Brezina (2018), there is ‘enough evidence in the data to reject the null hypothesis, which says that there is no difference between the frequencies’ (Brezina, 2018: 84).

**Table 5.7 LL values, finite constructions in the field of business and economics in the students and researchers’ sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

<b>C1 \ C2</b>	<b>Short passive with stative verb</b>	<b>Short passive with dynamic verb</b>	<b>Get-passive</b>	<b>Long passive</b>
<b>Short passive with stative verb</b>	3.15	7.88	2.33	0.51
<b>Short passive with dynamic verb</b>	8.46	3.59	29.10	14.94
<b>Get-passive</b>	9.82	16.36	0	4.91
<b>Long passive</b>	9.82	16.36	0	4.91

*\*C1 – the students’ sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers’ sub-corpus*

Table 5.8 shows the LL values of finite constructions in the field of law in the students and researchers’ sub-corpora. Surprising results are shown in the line of short passive with dynamic verb in the students’ sub-corpus in relation to other types of construction in the researchers’ sub-corpus, as all of them has extremely significant critical value, which corresponds to less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance. On the contrast, if looked at vertically, it is observed that short passive with stative verb and long passive in the researchers’ sub-corpora to remaining three types of finite constructions in the students’ corpora have dramatically low log-likelihood values. Thus, it leads to the conclusion that these differences are not significant as it is insufficient difference.

**Table 5.8 LL values, finite constructions in the field of law in the students and researchers’ sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

<b>C1 \ C2</b>	<b>Short passive with stative verb</b>	<b>Short passive with dynamic verb</b>	<b>Get-passive</b>	<b>Long passive</b>
<b>Short passive with stative verb</b>	0.08	7.82	4.40	0.08
<b>Short passive with dynamic verb</b>	37.07	13.83	58.64	37.07
<b>Get-passive</b>	0.01	5.95	5.86	0.01
<b>Long passive</b>	0.20	4.48	7.33	0.20

*\*C1 – the students’ sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers’ sub-corpus*

The next table of the LL values of finite construction in both sub-corpora compiled for the present investigation is of those in the field of computing. As it seen from the results summarised in Table 5.9, short passive with dynamic verb in the students’ sub-corpora to all finite constructions in the field of computing in the researchers’ sub-corpora has the highest LL values. For example, short passive with dynamic verb in the abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students to short passive with dynamic verbs in the abstracts of research articles value is 12.90, which means that it is less than 0.1 per cent probability of chance. Moreover, the same type of finite construction to the remaining three constructions of passive voice in the

researchers' corpus shows extremely significant value with less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance. Similarly, short passive with dynamic verb in the researchers' sub-corpora to all four finite constructions in the students' sub-corpora represents the high LL value.

**Table 5.9 LL values, finite constructions in the field of computing in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

C1 \ C2	Short passive with stative verb	Short passive with dynamic verb	Get-passive	Long passive
Short passive with stative verb	0.04	9.58	6.07	1.15
Short passive with dynamic verb	43.86	12.90	72.89	59.02
Get-passive	5.42	22.58	0	1.81
Long passive	0.47	12.37	4.05	0.31

\*C1 – the students' sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers' sub-corpus

The last, but not the least field selected for the corpus of the present investigation is of social sciences. From the data observed it is seen that short passive with stative verb and long passive in the students' sub-corpora have completely the same LL values to all finite constructions of passive voice in the field of social sciences in the researchers' corpus ranging from insignificant difference of 0.51 that is more than 5 per cent probability of chance to the critical value of 45.87, which means there is less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance.

**Table 5.10 LL values, finite constructions in the field of social sciences in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

C1 \ C2	Short passive with stative verb	Short passive with dynamic verb	Get-passive	Long passive
Short passive with stative verb	0.51	7.77	4.91	0.51
Short passive with dynamic verb	33.50	5.97	45.87	33.50
Get-passive	2.33	19.76	0	2.33
Long passive	0.51	7.77	4.91	0.51

\*C1 – the students' sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers' sub-corpus

After dealing with interpretation of results of finite constructions in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, the similar investigation was done on non-finite constructions of passive voice. Table 5.11 shows the LL values for comparison of non-finite constructions in both sub-corpora compiled for the analysis.

According to the numbers retrieved from the online calculator, in most of the cases, the critical value is insignificant, e.g. *Business and economics* to *Law* with value 0.01, and *Business and economics* to *Law* with value 0.02 respectively. Only in two cases, the critical value is above the threshold of significance, e.g. *Humanities* to *Humanities* with LL 4.11 and *Humanities* to *Law* – 5.24. In the table, it is important to pay attention to *Business and economics* to *Business*

and economics with value 0. Although both have non-finite constructions of passive voice – 9 and 7, respectively, the difference between them is statistically insignificant.

In addition, when looked at vertically, it is possible to investigate the present results shown in tables from the perspective of individual field. For example, Business and economics, the field in the students' corpus, relative to Humanities in the researchers' sub-corpus, shows the LL value of 0.04, which is completely insignificant, having the mark of more than 5 per cent probability of chance. In general, all this line has critical values below the threshold of significance, which is 3.84; thus, insignificant difference is observed.

**Table 5.11 LL values, non-finite constructions in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, field-to-field**

<b>C1</b> \ <b>C2</b>	<i>Humanities</i>	<i>Business and economics</i>	<i>Law</i>	<i>Computing</i>	<i>Social sciences</i>
<i>Humanities</i>	4.11	3.30	5.24	3.45	1.4
<i>Business and economics</i>	0.04	0	0.02	0.01	0.58
<i>Law</i>	2.80	2.12	3.65	2.16	0.56
<i>Computing</i>	0.56	0.77	0.78	1.06	2.49
<i>Social sciences</i>	2.11	1.60	2.54	1.56	0.40

*\*C1 – the students' sub-corpus; C2 – the researchers' sub-corpus*

The comparative analysis of the LL value in non-finite constructions in each field in the students and researchers' sub-corpora was conducted. Table 5.12 demonstrates the LL values for comparison of non-finite construction frequencies in the abstracts in the field of humanities of both sub-corpora under analysis. As infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short and long passive, as well as other non-finite constructions in short and long passive were not investigated in the abstracts in the field of humanities in both sub-corpora under analysis, their log-likelihood value is 0 in relation to each other. As regards postmodifier of a noun in short and long passive in the students' sub-corpora in relation to infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb and other non-finite constructions in short and long passive in the researchers' sub-corpora, their critical value is 22.36, which being above the threshold significance represents less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance, and 1.24, which being below the threshold significance shows insignificant differences.

When dealing with infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short and long passive, as well as other non-finite constructions in short and long passive in the students' sub-corpora to postmodifier of a noun in short and long passive in the researchers' sub-corpora, the LL value is 7.71 and 3.08 respectively. In the former case, the critical value is significant, with less than 1 per cent probability of chance; in the latter case, the log-likelihood shows insignificant difference, as it is below 3.84 and is more than 5 per cent probability of chance.

**Table 5.12 LL values, non-finite constructions in the field of humanities in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

C1 \ C2	PM/ short	PM/ long	COMPL/ short	COMPL/ long	Other/ short	Other/ long
PM/ short	5.98	12.44	22.36	22.36	22.36	22.36
PM/ long	3.54	0.51	1.24	1.24	1.24	1.24
COMP/short	7.71	3.08	0	0	0	0
COMPL/ long	7.71	3.08	0	0	0	0
Other/ short	7.71	3.08	0	0	0	0
Other/ long	7.71	3.08	0	0	0	0

\* C1 – the students' corpus; C2 – the researchers' corpus;

\*\* PM – postmodifier of a noun;

\*\*\* COMPL – infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb

The results on non-finite constructions in the field of law and computing represent the similar observations. It is important to emphasise the results of postmodifier of a noun in short passive in the students' sub-corpus in relation to postmodifier of a noun in short and long passive in the researchers' sub-corpus, as the LL value is 0 as insignificant difference is represented.

**Table 5.13 LL values, non-finite constructions in the field of business and economics in the students and researchers' sub-corpora, construction-to-construction**

C1 \ C2	PM/ short	PM/ long	COMPL/ short	COMPL/ long	Other/ short	Other/ long
PM/ short	0	0	4.66	1.29	4.66	4.66
PM/ long	0.14	0.14	2.05	5.82	5.82	5.82
COMP/short	4.91	4.91	1.64	0	0	0
COMPL/ long	4.91	4.91	1.64	0	0	0
Other/ short	4.91	4.91	1.64	0	0	0
Other/ long	4.91	4.91	1.64	0	0	0

\* C1 – the students' corpus; C2 – the researchers' corpus;

\*\* PM – postmodifier of a noun;

\*\*\* COMPL – infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb

Non-finite constructions in the field of business and economics, as well as in the field of social sciences in the students and researchers' sub-corpora represent insignificant differences, as in most of the cases the LL value is 0.

When the results of the log-likelihood among each type of construction, as well as among each field in both sub-corpora is discussed, it is important to compare finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice used in both – students and researchers' – sub-corpora.

If Table 4.7 is taken as a basis for the log-likelihood test for the total amount of passive constructions in both corpora, the LL value across the sub-corpora is 46.19, which is significant. Moreover, the null hypothesis that there is no difference between the frequencies of constructions of passive voice is rejected. In addition, if the LL value of finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice is calculated within each sub-corpus, surprising results are retrieved. For example, the LL value in the students' sub-corpus between finite and non-finite constructions is 86.80, which is significant result; thus, it can be stated that probability is less

than 0.001 per cent, as the log-likelihood value is more than 15.13. Therefore, the difference in the use of finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice within the sub-corpus of the abstracts written by the EFL students is extremely significant.

When following the same procedure with the researchers' sub-corpus, the LL value between finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice is 25.65, which being almost 4 times less than in the students' corpus, shows significant differences with less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance.

If each construction is compared across the sub-corpora, for example, finite construction, the LL value is 44.80 that is statistically significant with probability of chance less than 0.01 per cent. Nevertheless, if non-finite constructions between sub-corpora are calculated, the critical value is 4.19. Although being statistically significant and slightly above the threshold of significance, it is marked as less than 5 per cent probability of chance.

## **Interim Conclusions**

Chapters 4 and 5 has dealt with the methodology and the empirical findings of the present research. The corpus with two sub-corpora of the abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students and the abstracts of research articles written by academicians was compiled to conduct the corpus-based case study was conducted, which revealed types of finite and non-finite constructions of passive voice used in the students and researchers' sub-corpora. Besides, the analysis involved descriptive and inferential statistics, i.e. the relative frequency was calculated, and log-likelihood test taken.

After compiling the empirical analysis of the present research, it can be concluded that get-passive, which belongs to finite constructions of passive voice, was rarely used, and it could be related to the fact that this type of construction is more frequently applied in spoken communication, e.g. conversations. In non-finite construction of passive voice, infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb was rarely used.

When the log-likelihood was taken, it was concluded that in most of the cases, the differences were significant with the critical value more than 3.84, which is the threshold of significance. Nevertheless, as non-finite constructions of passive voice were infrequent or not used at all, their LL value was indicated as 0 as well.

## CONCLUSIONS

The present study deals with the analysis of passive voice in abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students, and of research articles written by the academicians. The goal of this research is to compare the use of passive voice in the abstracts selected as a corpus of the present investigation, with regard to their types and frequency. The following hypothesis was formulated: the variations across the types of passive voice depend on fields in which abstract was written, and either the writer is native or non-native speaker of the language.

One of the research methods applied in the present study are secondary research of theoretical materials that helped to compile the theoretical framework for empirical analysis. Types of passive constructions in terms of finiteness were examined, and it was found out that in the English language, there are four types of finite constructions, such as short passive with stative verb, short passive with dynamic verb, get-passive and long passive. Two former constructions of short passive have their own sub-division into several groups of verbs, each performing particular function. Non-finite constructions are of three types, such as postmodifier of a noun in short or long passive; infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short or long passive; other non-finite constructions in short or long passive.

In addition to that, the previous corpus-based research of passive voice was investigated. In general, corpora of different sizes are used in the corpus-based research, but in most of the cases, the specialised corpora are compiled. In the previous researches, both types were investigated, e.g. Biber et al. (1999) used general corpus for data examination, whereas Apse and Farneste (2014) compiled a study of specialised corpora. Nevertheless, contradictory results were observed.

Besides, two closely-related concepts were observed, such as genre and register. It has to be emphasised that 'genre' refers to the whole text, while 'register' can appear independently in any text-level structures. However, as the present research deals with the analysis of academic writing – abstract – both concepts are implied. From the register perspective, passive voice as a linguistic feature of academic writing is analysed, while from the genre perspective, the abstract as a part of complete academic writing is discussed.

In addition, the primary research method, such as corpus-based methodology, was applied. In the present study, the corpus-based case study was selected for the empirical part. The specialised corpus with two sub-corpora was compiled – the one with the abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students, and the second sub-corpus involves the abstracts of research articles. Each sub-corpus consists of the same amount of selected texts, i.e. 100 abstracts from

five fields that are similar in each sub-corpus. The corpus is uploaded on the CD disc attached at the end of the research.

The analysis of corpora has been conducted via the special toolkit *AntConc* with the help of formulae applied to form all the possible passive voice forms. For the students' abstracts, 288 cases of passive constructions were found, with 221 for finite constructions and 67 for non-finite construction. In non-finite constructions, get-passive was not frequently applied; this can be supported by the idea from Biber et al (1999) that get-passive are usually applied in spoken communication rather than written. From the observations of the total amount of non-finite constructions in accordance with the field, it can be stated that the EFL students of humanities and law use passive voice more frequently; thus, the academic writing in these fields are most impersonal. In the sub-corpus of abstracts of research articles, the result was 164 cases, where 114 were for finite constructions and 50 for non-finite constructions. The abstracts of research articles did not distinguish the field in which most of the constructions were applied.

In addition to the qualitative approach of the present research, this study calculated the relative frequency, which is a part of descriptive analysis. As it was investigated, there is significant difference in the amount of passive constructions used across the sub-corpora. For example, the relative frequency of finite construction of passive in the students' sub-corpus is 144.45 per 10 000 words, whereas in the researchers' sub-corpus, it compiles 68.26 per 10 000 words. In the case of non-finite constructions of passive across sub-corpora, the relative frequency is not significant; nevertheless, in the students' sub-corpus, it is applied more frequently.

What it vital to emphasise is the distribution of the relative frequency within each sub-corpus. As is seen, in the materials selected as a sub-corpus of abstracts of BA thesis written by the EFL students, finite constructions are applied three times more than non-finite construction of passive. In the sub-corpus of the abstracts of research articles, similar distribution is arranged, where non-finite constructions of passive are used two times less than finite construction of passive. This issue was also explained by Biber et al. (1999), who have drawn the conclusion that non-finite constructions of passive are also more frequently used in the spoken language, and as the materials selected for the analysis are academic writings, such tendency is observed.

Nevertheless, the results had to be statistically checked to draw meaningful conclusions. For data interpretation, it is important to calculate the log-likelihood value. In general, the LL value of finite constructions in both sub-corpora varied from insignificant, where the critical value was below 3.84 that is the threshold of significance, where more than 5 per cent probability of chance is investigated, to slightly above the threshold of significance, and

extremely significant, with threshold of significance above 15.13, where less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance is identified.

In case of the non-finite constructions, the results are contradictory due to the fact that not all the types of constructions of passive voice were applied in the selected texts of the present corpus. Therefore, only the subjective evaluation and interpretation, based on the results in this sub-corpus, was provided. In most of the cases, the LL value was 0 as there was not any case of the construction detected.

The log-likelihood was calculated on the general variables across and within each sub-corpus, and it was found out that the difference between the use of passive constructions is statistically significant, as the smallest LL value was 4.19, which is nevertheless above the threshold of significance. Therefore, there were enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis.

The limitation of the research include narrow focus on a single university and research journal, as well as lack of relevant authentic materials written by the native speakers of the English language.

For further research, it is recommended to conduct the comparative analysis of any other part of academic writing between different universities, or different levels of degrees.

## THESES

1. Verb is one of the largest and most important word class of the English language, which forms the core of the passive constructions.
2. Passive voice comprises two types, such as finite construction of passive voice and non-finite construction of passive voice. The former consists of the following types: short passive with stative verb; short passive with dynamic verb; get-passive; long passive. Non-finite types of passive voice involves postmodifier of noun in shower and long passive; infinitive or ed-clause complement of a verb in short and long passive; other non-finite constructions in short and long passive.
3. Short passive with stative verb can be arranged in the following groups: verbs that express feeling, verbs that express other mental states' verbs that express a relation between two entities; verbs that express a physical stance or position; verbs that express non-action.
4. Short passive with dynamic verb can be arranged as follows: verbs that express physical movement or activity verbs; verbs of communication; verbs of perception that involve doing something; process verbs; momentary verbs; verbs of bodily sensation.
5. The term 'genre' refers to the whole text, while 'register' can appear independently in any text-level structures.
6. Abstract as a sub-genre has a crucial role in any research, because it is the part of the text that has the biggest potential to be publicly available.
7. There are five types of register: frozen, formal, consultative, casual and intimate. Abstract as academic writing is related to formal register.
8. In grammar, the following registers are considered: conversation, fiction, new, academic. Their major situational characteristics are as follows: mode; interactiveness and real-time production; shared situation; main communicative purpose or content; audience.
9. Get-passive is typically used in spoken language; therefore, it is infrequent in academic writing under analysis.
10. Passive constructions are more frequently used in the abstracts of BA thesis from the field of humanities and law, as one of its features is impersonality.
11. In the materials selected as a corpus, finite constructions are applied more frequently in comparison with non-finite constructions.
12. The log-likelihood value of finite constructions in both sub-corpora varied from insignificant (below 3.84 or less than the threshold of significance), to slightly above

the threshold of significance (above 3.84 or less than 5 per cent probability of chance),  
and extremely significant (above 15.13 or less than 0.01 per cent probability of chance).

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## Dokumentārā lapa

Maģistra darbs „Passive Voice in Abstracts of Research Articles and BA Thesis” (Ciešamās kārtas lietojums zinātnisko rakstu un bakalaura darbu anotācijās) izstrādāts LU Humanitāro zinātņu fakultātē.

Ar savu parakstu apliecinu, ka pētījums veikts patstāvīgi, izmantoti tikai tajā norādītie informācijas avoti un iesniegtā darba elektroniskā kopija atbilst izdrukai.

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24.05.2019.

Rekomendēju/nerekomendēju darbu aizstāvēšanai

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Studiju metodiķe: Sintija Zankovska

Darbs iesniegts Anglistikas nodaļā 24.05.2019.

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Darbs aizstāvēts maģistra gala pārbaudījuma komisijas sēdē

2019. gada..... jūnijā, prot. Nr. ...., vērtējums .....

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