LATVIJAS UNIVERSITĀTE
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COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK FOR THE ACADEMIC PERSONNEL

AKADĒMISKĀ PERSONĀLA ANGĻU VALODAS KOMUNIKATĪVĀS KOMPETENCES MODELIS

Promocijas darbs

filoloģijas doktora (*Dr. philol.*) zinātniskā grāda iegūšanai

Nozare: Valodniecība

Apakšnozare: Lietišķā valodniecība

Darba zinātniskā vadītāja:
Dr. philol. prof. **Indra Karapetjana**

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DECLARATION OF ACADEMIC INTEGRITY

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

Date:

Signed:

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ANOTĀCIJA

Promocijas darba "Akadēmiskā personāla angļu valodas komunikatīvās kompetences modelis" aktualitāti nosaka nepieciešamība augstskolām nodrošināt studiju procesa internacionalizāciju, kas nav iespējams bez akadēmiskā personāla (docētāja) angļu valodas zināšanām un prasmēm pasniegšanai multikulturālā vidē.

Lai izstrādātu modeli, promocijas darbā ir apkopotas teorētiskās atziņas un veikts empīrisks pētījums par mutvārdu akadēmisko diskursu, lekcijas žanru, komunikatīvo valodas kompetenci, izmantojot kvalitatīvas un kvantitatīvas pētniecības metodes. Pētījums pamatojas uz valodniecības teorijām, kas aplūko lekcijas kā atsevišķu žanru, diskursa analīzi un valodas komunikatīvās kompetences izpētes. Promocijas darbā tika pētītas mutvārdu akadēmiskajam diskursam raksturīgās makrolingvistiskās un mikrolingvistiskās iezīmes.

Akadēmiskā personāla valodas komunikatīvo kompetenču analīzei tika izvēlēts Eiropas kopīgajās pamatnostādnēs (CEFR 2001, 2018) aprakstītais valodas komunikatīvās kompetences modelis, kura sastāvā ietilpst lingvistiskas, sociolingvistiskas un pragmatiskas kompetences. Docētājam ir prasmes un zināšanas par valodu kā sistēmu (*lingvistiskā kompetence*), viņam ir zināms, kā tikt galā ar valodas lietojuma sociālo dimensiju (*sociolingvistiskā kompetence*), viņš spēj radīt viegli uztveramu un saturiski skaidri formulētu diskursu (*pragmatiskā kompetence*). Papildus darbā tika iekļautas un aprakstītas vēl trīs kompetences, kas ir būtiskas akadēmiskajam personālam, strādājot starptautiskā vidē. Veiksmīgai lekcijai ir nepieciešams docētāja sagatavošanās darbs: materiālu izpēte, darbs pie jaunās terminoloģijas un informācijas apstrāde (*akadēmiskā kompetence)*; spēja efektīvi mijiedarboties ar studentiem, kompetence sociālajās un personiskajās attiecībās (*starppersonu kompetence*), savukārt darbam starptautiskajā kontekstā ir nepieciešama starpkultūru sensitivitāte, izpratne par sevi un citiem sadarbības partneriem dažādības aspektā; prasmes komunicēt ar dažādu kultūru izcelsmes studentiem (*starpkultūru kompetence*).

Darbā tiek secināts, ka spēja lasīt veiksmīgas lekcijas angļu valodā ārvalstu studentiem lielā mērā ir atkarīga no akadēmiskā personāla angļu valodas komunikatīvās valodas kompetences, kas ietver visas sešas komunikatīvās valodas kompetences sastāvdaļas, kuras apskatītas šajā promocijas darbā. Lai analizētu akadēmisko lekciju, darbā tika izstrādāts diskursa analīzes etapu struktūras modelis; akadēmiskā personāla mutvārdu angļu valodas komunikatīvās kompetences modelis; attieksmes izteikšanai lietojamo leksiski gramatisko iezīmju un autentiskajās akadēmiskajās lekcijās lietojamo diskursa makroiezīmētāju tabulas.

Atslēgvārdi: augstākā izglītība, lekcijas žanrs, mutvārdu akadēmiskais diskurss, angļu valodas komunikatīvās kompetences modelis

ABSTRACT

The novelty of the Doctoral thesis „Communicative English Language Competency Framework for the Academic Personnel" stems from the necessity of the academic personnel (a lecturer) to ensure the internationalisation of the study process in the academia, which is impossible without the appropriate level of English language competency and skills necessary for working in the intercultural environment.

The author summarized the theoretical findings and conducted an empirical research on spoken academic discourse, genre of an academic lecture, communicative language competences, using quantitative and qualitative research methods that allowed working out the framework of competences. The research is based on the summative analysis conducted on linguistic theories of genre studies, lecture as a separate genre, discourse analysis and studies of communicative language competences. The typical macro- and micro-linguistic features of spoken academic discourse have been identified.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR 2001, 2018), that divides communicative language competences into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, was chosen for the analysis of lecturers' communicative language competences. A lecturer has skills and knowledge of language as a system (linguistic competence), he is aware of how to deal with the social dimension of language use (sociolinguistic competence), he is able to produce coherent and cohesive discourse (pragmatic competence). The model was appended with three more competences needed to work in the international environment. A successful lecture requires the lecturer's preparatory work including the research of the materials on a subject area, work on new terminology and processing of information while preparing lectures (academic competence), interaction with the audience, the ability to communicate effectively with the students, competence to have successful social and personal relationship (interpersonal competence), as well as intercultural sensitivity, including understanding oneself and others in a context of diversity, ability to interact and communicate with people of different cultural affiliations (intercultural competence).

It was concluded that a content lecture in English targeting the international audience is realized successfully when all six components of the communicative language competence, described by the author of the present thesis, are coherent and are activated by the academic personnel. A spoken English language competency framework for academic personnel, move structure model for the analysis of the academic discourse, a table of lexico-grammatical features used for stance analysis of spoken academic discourse and a table of discourse macro-markers have been developed to help in the analysis of the academic discourse.

Keywords: tertiary education, lecture genre, spoken academic discourse, communicative English language competency framework

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AL – academic lecture

CARS model – ‘Create a Research Space’ model

CEFR – Common European Framework of Reference

DA – discourse analysis

DM – discourse marker

EMI – English as a medium of instruction

ESP – English for Special Purposes

SPBGUE – Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance

EU – European Union

FL – foreign language

HE institutions – higher educational institutions

IRF – Initiation – Response – Feedback

L1 – first language

L2 – second language

MACM – the model of Academic Competence and Motivation

NT – note-taking

OECD – Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

RGS – Rhetorical Genre Studies

SFL – Systemic Functional Linguistics

GLOSSARY

The glossary below contains the key concepts crucial for the present research. It reflects the author's point of view on the terms in question.

Anaphora – one term referencing another term which has previously been mentioned. This is often carried out by the use of pronouns or determiners. (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Anaphoric reference – when there is a connection between two sentences in a text (cohesion), there will usually be a full version in one sentence and a referring item in the next sentence. (Jeffries, 1998)

Boosters – stance features, allow writers to express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience. (Hyland, 2005b)

Cataphora – an expression which refers to a later expression. As with anaphora, cataphoric references are often pronouns or determiners. (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Cataphoric reference – a form of textual cohesion whereby the 'ties' point forward the text. (Jeffries, 1998)

Coherence refers to the ways that a text is made semantically meaningful (as opposed to cohesion, which is concerned with grammar). (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Cohesion refers to the way that a text makes sense syntactically. Halliday and Hasan (1976) in Baker and Ellege (2011) note that common cohesive devices include forms of reference (e.g. anaphora and cataphora, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion, conjunction and replacement).

Communicative purpose – determined by the members of a discourse community who provide the rationale and constrain the discourse structure, content, and purposes of a certain genre, and define its rhetorical functions. (Swales, 1990)

Constitutive or vertical intertextuality – merging of prior texts in new texts which may assimilate, contradict, or ironically echo them. (Fairclough, 1992, Kristeva, 1986)

Discourse – "language above the sentence" or "language produced and interpreted in a real-world context". (Cameron, 2001:13) Discourse implies the use of both spoken and written modes of language.

Discourse community – a group of people who share a set of discourses, common goals and uses a common language; "groups that have goals or purposes, and use communication to achieve these goals. (Swales, 1990)

Discourse macro-markers – higher-order markers signalling major transitions and emphasis in a lecture, they highlight major information in the lecture and the sequence or importance of that information. (Chaurdon and Richards, 1986)

Discourse markers – devices that explicitly signal the micro- and macro-structure of the text (Buck, 2001), expressions which signal a sequential relationship between the current and the previous discourse (Fraser, 1990), sequentially-dependent units which serve an integrative function and therefore contribute to discourse coherence. (Schiffrin, 1987)

Discourse micro-markers – markers of lower-order, indicate links between utterances or function as filler; they are subdivided into the categories of segmentation, contrast and emphasis. (Chaudron and Richards, 1986 in Camiciotolli 2007: 80)

Ellipsis – a device used to maintain cohesion in discourse. It usually refers to an intentional omission of a word or phrase from a text, often because the omitted text has already been referred to earlier and is thus not necessary. (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Functional intertextuality – A text being part of a larger system of texts dealing with a particular issue. (Devitt, 1991)

Genre – "a social process" (Biber, 2009), "a particular type of a communicative event" (Rernkema, 2009) (e.g. a lecture, a seminar, a webinar) in which "participants within a culture" (Biber, ibid) or "users belonging to the same discourse community use language in predictable sequential structures to fulfil certain communicative purposes" (Biber, ibid, Rernkema, ibid). Genre has "distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure and distinctive communicative functions". (Paltridge, 2006, Richards and Schmidt, 2002)

Genre mixing – a combination of spoken and written modes, formal and informal registers, supplementing of speech with the use of visual materials demonstrated with the help of various modern means. (Helal, 2013)

Hedges – stance features, devices like *possible, might* and *perhaps*, which withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than fact. They imply that a claim is based on plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge and so both indicate the degree of confidence. (Hyland, 2005b)

Hybrid nature – one genre sharing some features with another genre, for example, a lecture, sharing features of conference presentations and written research articles; a research article that may be quoted by a lecturer; a seminar mode encouraging students to interact.

Idiolect – the variety of a language which is unique to each speaker, though it overlaps with many other speakers' idiolects. (Jeffries, 1998)

Interdiscursivity – one genre interacting with another, e.g., a genre which represents a combination of spoken discourse (speech of a lecture) and written mode (Power Point presentation). (Foucault, 1969, Fairclough, 2003 and Hyatt, 2005)

Intertextuality – having texts created by lecturers on the basis of other texts and adding stories or quotations of other authors into the newly-created discourse. (Kristeva, 1986, Bakhtin, 1981, 1986, Fairclough, 1992)

Involvement and **detachment** – different concerns and relations that speakers have with their audience. Unlike writers who are often removed from their audience, lecturers need to communicate and to reflect their own emotional participation – 'experiential involvement.' (Chafe, 1982)

Lingua franca – a second acquired language system that serves as a means of communication between speakers of different first languages (or extremely distinct dialects). (Bussman, 2006)

Manifest or **horizontal intertextuality** – using quotation, citation and paraphrase of one text in another. (Fairclough 1992, Kristeva, 1986)

Metadiscourse – a cover term for self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer [or speaker] to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community. (Hyland, 2005a)

Meta-function – Halliday views language as having three meta-functions: ideational, interpersonal and textual. (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Metastatement – a statement giving information about another statement.

Move – a single communicative event with a certain communicative purpose. (Swales, 1990)

Nominalisation – the process of changing an action into an item by representing it as a noun.

Personal asides – allow writers to address readers directly by briefly interrupting the argument to offer a comment on what has been said. By turning to the reader in mid-flow, the writer acknowledges and responds to an active audience, often to initiate a brief dialogue that is largely interpersonal, adding more to the writer-reader relationship than to propositional development. (Hyland, 2009)

Primary genres – utterances, forms of speech communication and written texts created originally; they take form in "unmediated speech communion, e.g. everyday conversation: "single-word rejoinder", "greetings, farewells, congratulations", "genres of table conversation and so on." (Bakhtin, 1986)

Register is a situationally-defined variety of language. Register will allow relating text and context through the features of *field*, *tenor* and *mode*, where field refers to the topic, theme of the lecture, a so called social activity, tenor answers the question 'Who' and applies to the status of participants – in our case – the lecturer and students, ascribes the relationship and the interpersonal skills of the participants, whereas mode is concerned with the channel of communication or the format in which communication takes place.

Responsive attitude of speech communication may be applied to the academic lecture as students' perception of the lecturer's discourse does not always result in an immediate response but can lead to delayed action – a student uses the lecturer's thoughts and words in his further work in the subject (a test, a seminar, in the course of his professional life).

Secondary genres – genres that "absorb and digest" primary speech genres, for example "novels, dramas, all kinds of scientific research, major genres of commentary, and so forth". (Bakhtin, 1986)

Self-mention – refers to the use of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives to present propositional, affective and interpersonal information. (Hyland, 2005b)

Shared knowledge – knowledge about the world which two or more people possess. People who belong to the same culture, community of practice or family have large amounts of shared knowledge, along with mutual beliefs and ideologies, which enables them to work together and to minimize conflict or misunderstandings. (Baker and Ellege, 2011)

Situated meaning – grounded in actual practices and experiences, the meaning of any word or phrase is multiple and flexible, changing in different situations. (Gee, 2005)

Soft science / soft science subject – any of the specialized fields or disciplines, such as psychology, sociology, anthropology or political science that interprets human behaviour, institutions. Dictionary.com; soft-discipline (e.g., philosophy or sociology) vs. hard science (e.g., physics or engineering). (Hyland, 2005a)

Speech plan or **speech will** – determine the speech, the "choice of a particular speech genre" for the particular speech. (Bakhtin, 1986)

Stance – conveys lecturer's personal feeling and his personal experience. The importance of the lecturer, his presence / authority in the discourse he creates; the expression of personal feelings, attitudes and emotions; writer's judgments, feelings, or viewpoint about something, and others. (Biber and Finegan, 1989, Hyland, 2009)

Step refers to structural objectives to achieve the goal of a move within one sub-genre or genre. (Swales, 1990)

Style is connected with the individual use of language; it is as a range of variation within the speech of an individual speaker; that reflects the preferences of the user, for example, the use of a monologue-type lecture vs. an interactive style with a lot of student engagement.

INTRODUCTION

English has become the language of communication worldwide in different spheres of life, including education; it is used as a tool to teach specialized subjects at tertiary level since proficiency in English, especially when combined with the knowledge of and skills in a professional area, is highly desirable on the job market.

> English has penetrated societies and impacted upon the lives of individuals to an extent which has no parallel in human history – in education, tourism, business, trade, diplomacy, politics, development, finance, digital communications, fashion, culture and war (O'regan, 2014: 534)

The situation in tertiary education in the European Union has changed towards more globalized and internationalized studies. Practically every European university has international students who study for some time abroad either within the framework of the Erasmus student exchange programme or other exchange programmes or choose to study abroad as full-time students in order to obtain international and intercultural experience, improve language skills, establish valuable contacts or develop a career abroad.

The results of a study on the role of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in 55 countries (EMI Oxford, the Centre for Research and Development in English Medium Instruction) showed that private universities allow English as a medium of instruction in 90.9% cases (Dearden, 2015:10). 'a desire of students to develop English learning skills', 'knowledge of the target culture', 'possibilities for students to study and work abroad' were mentioned as the main reasons for the high percentage of EMI. Teaching and learning through EMI was discussed, the conclusions made were that the policy makers insist on introducing EMI in order to ensure economic growth, prestige and internationalisation, thus sufficiently trained academic personnel, materials and assessment should be considered.

According to the Education Law of Latvia, the use of English or other European Union languages in the implementation of study programmes is allowed in higher education (HE) institutions on several occasions, including "educational programmes, which are being acquired by foreign students in Latvia, and educational programmes, which are implemented within the framework of co-operation provided for in the programmes and interstate agreements of the European Union." (Translation by State Language Centre, 2015: 7). In the present thesis, 'foreign students' or 'international students' are defined as people travelling from their home countries to study at HE institutions abroad and for whom English is not their first language or the medium of instruction in their previous educational experience.

According to the amendments to the Education Law, approved by the Saeima on April 2, 2018, study programmes for international students in HE institutions of the Republic of

Latvia can be realized in the official languages of the European Union. The required level of the English language proficiency for the academic personnel delivering lectures in English in Latvia is level B2, however the recommendation of the Ministry of Education and Science (Online 18) to the higher education institutions in Latvia who work with foreign students is "preferably level C1."

Currently almost all HE institutions in Latvia provide education to international students from all over the world. For example, *Turiba University* is not an exception as it offers professional bachelor study programmes, such as, Business Administration, Tourism and Hospitality Management, Management of International Communication, Journalism and Media; professional Master programmes in Business Administration and Strategic Management in Tourism and Doctoral study programmes in Business Administration, Legal Science and Communication Management in English. There were 111 exchange and 478 full-time international students studying in English in Turiba University in the academic year 2016/2017.

Although Turiba University has international visiting lecturers, lecturers from Latvia constitute the majority of academic personnel. Subject teachers are highly-skilled and experienced professionals in their area with considerable experience in delivering lectures in Latvian, but many of them may lack experience in doing that in English. They possess the knowledge of specialized vocabulary in English, but they may occasionally experience difficulties in conducting their lectures efficiently due to the lack of sufficient communicative language competence in English. Consequently, students may face difficulties in the perception of lectures and may be unable to master these subjects leading to a decrease in student satisfaction levels with the lecture quality and a loss of lecturers' reputation and the university itself.

Considering the growing importance and internationalisation of higher education in a globally competitive environment where HE institutions compete to attract international students, the quality of lectures and the ability of lecturers to teach content subjects in a multicultural environment are immensely significant.

The relevance for this research lies in the practical justification for the need to study reported international students' difficulties in the perception of lectures. Therefore, the author of the present thesis has chosen to undertake research in the area of delivering academic lectures in English in higher education.

The research context

The author of the present thesis has chosen to do research in the area of delivering academic lectures in English in higher education. The target group of the research comprised Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance lecturers and students studying in the English language.

The research hypothesis

There is a direct interconnection between lecturers' communicative language competence to give coherent and cohesive English-medium content lectures at tertiary level and students' perception of lectures.

The research goals

1. to create a theoretical basis for establishing the communicative language competence of the academic personnel required to ensure quality in English-medium content lectures at tertiary level;
2. to analyse and assess the lecturers' competence level on the basis of the research of spoken academic discourse.

The research objectives

1. To study relevant theories pertaining to the use of the communicative language competence that non-native lecturers need to possess in order to function optimally when delivering English-medium content lectures.
2. To explore linguistic theories in order to identify typical features of spoken academic discourse.
3. To compile a corpus of authentic lectures in English given by native and non-native subject lecturers and to carry out their discourse analysis in order to identify the relationship between lecturers' language proficiency and students' perception of lectures.
4. To use theoretical and empirical research methods: a summative analysis of linguistic theories, discourse analysis and a survey and to discover how lecturers assess their language competences and skills in delivering lectures in English, what difficulties they encounter and how they assess their teaching and learning processes in general.
5. To conduct a survey by means of questionnaires and interviews with the aim of exploring students' difficulties and to make a comparison of students' and lecturers' answers.

6. To work out recommendations on how to improve discourse and the communicative English language competence of academic personnel, based on the academic discourse analysis, and to draw relevant conclusions.

The research novelty

1. The novelty of the work lies in the analysis of theoretical data, the development of the model of the move structure of a lecture, the elaboration of a communicative English language competency framework for academic personnel, the development of the table of lexico-grammatical features used for stance analysis of spoken academic discourse, and a table of discourse macro-markers that were encountered in the course of the analysis of authentic academic lecture discourse, as well as recommendations developed by the author. The abovementioned models and tables could serve as reference materials for students and academic personnel.
2. A theoretically grounded analysis of academic spoken discourse was carried out.
3. The integration of academic discourse, genre studies and communicative English language competence has been revealed.

Theoretical significance

1. Detailed theoretical analysis of the academic lecture as a separate genre which could lay the basis for further research in the field of academic lecture studies.
2. The theoretical significance of the research lies in the elaboration of a communicative language competency framework for university teaching personnel, enhancement of the move structure model by Lee (2009) appending it with the 4th move "Concluding the lecture"; the identification of lexico-grammatical characteristics used for stance analyses of spoken academic discourse on the basis of Biber (1999) and the development of a model of discourse macro-markers that were used in the authentic academic lecture discourse.
3. The empirical study of the surveyed students and lecturers laid the basis for further theoretical research in this field.

Practical significance

1. The research provides practical support for academic personnel in delivering high quality lectures in English by improving their lecturing style, using relevant discourse micro- and macro-markers and incorporating the features of the academic lecture genre.

2. The practical value of the research is justified by the fact that a unique corpus of 23 academic lectures in English has been compiled for discourse and genre analysis, which has not been done previously in Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics.
3. The results of the theoretical and practical analysis of note-taking as a separate genre can be used by students in enhancing their note-taking skills and academic personnel in delivering lectures to suit the needs of the target audience.
4. The research outcomes can serve as a framework for the design and development of methodological aids for academic personnel training.

Theoretical research methods framework

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

- We examined the foundations of genre studies on the basis of findings by scholars of the Rhetoric Genre Studies (RGS) (Johns, 2015, Freedman, 1999, 2001; Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; Miller, 1994, 2014; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995), the works by scholars of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), such as Martin (1984,1985,1992, 2001, 2003, 2015), who differentiated between spoken and written genres, Halliday (2007), Halliday and Hasan (1985/1989), Martin (2015), Trappes Lomax (2004), who defined the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions of the language and described meta-functions at the micro-level of clause structure and the macro-level of context. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) genre theory was found to be the most applicable for the present research since the area of interest of these scholars (Swales, 1990, 2000, 2001, 2004; Bhatia, 2004, 2008, 2013, 2017; Flowerdew, 2011, 2015, Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 2002 and StJohn, 1998) included both spoken and written language in academic and professional settings.
- We learnt about the concepts of discourse community (Swales, 1990, 2004), studied the characteristics, relevant to the academic lecture discourse (Flowerdew, 2015), steps in analyzing genres (Bhatia, 2013, 2017), van Dijk's (2012, 2015) discourse genres, based on six dimensions.
- Underlying this study were the concepts of discourse, genre, register and styles explored in the works of Bakhtin (1986), Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), Freadman, (1994), Devitt (1991), Orlikowski and Yates (2002), Gee (2005), Biber and Conrad (2009),

Paltridge (2004, 2006, 2013), Richards and Schmidt (2002) who helped to define and differentiate among often very misleading concepts.

- We explored theories pertaining to the academic lecture genre. We attributed the modern academic lecture delivered through the pedagogic register to the secondary genre (Bakhtin, 1986), being a combination of written and spoken genres. We studied the concept of speech plan (Bakhtin, 1986), involvement and detachment (Chafe, 1982), interactiveness (Goffman, 1981), genre mixing (Helal, 2013), hybrid nature of lectures (Aguilar, 2004), intertextuality (Fairclough, 2003; Allen, 2000) and interdiscursivity (Fairclough, 2003; Hyatt, 2005) in order to use the theoretical findings in the empirical part of the present research.
- We analysed the theory on structuring an academic lecture through the overview of move analysis of SFL scholars (Sinclair, 1972; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Young, 1994) and ESP genre studies (Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 2013, 2017; Thompson, 1994, Lee, 2009; Flowerdew, 2013) in order to create the model most suitable for the structural analysis of the academic lecture discourse.
- We examined the theory on note-taking as a crucial component of the educational experience and its interconnection with the listening skills (Rost, 1990; Chela-Flores, 1993; Al-Musalli, 2001 and 2015), the role of working memory (Bui, Myerson and Hale, 2013; Carter, Greenberg and Walker, 2016) in order to define note-taking as a separate genre of academic writing with its own characteristics.
- Moreover we turned to the dogmas of discourse analysis and characteristics of spoken discourse and explored them in the works by Brown and Yule (1983), Candlin (1997), Schiffrin (2001), Johnstone (2002), Van Dijk (2007, 2008),). Research into the nature of spoken academic discourse (Biber, 2006, Crawford Camiciottoli, 2007), discourse markers for academic purposes (Flowerdew and Tauroza, 1995, Swales & Malcewski, 2001, Crawford Camiciotolli, 2007, Maschler and Schiffrin, 2015), grammatical variations in spoken academic discourse (Biber, 1999, 2006), stance and audience engagement (Biber, 2006; Hyland, 2012) provided a firm grounding for the practical part of the present thesis – analysis of the spoken academic discourse.
- The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001, 2018) and works on communicative competence by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1995, 2013), Schiffrin (2001) was explored in order to determine and elaborate the general language competences necessary for the academic personnel, delivering lectures in English.

Empirical research methods

The present work used four methods of research in order to ensure its reliability and validity.

First, the survey, including written questionnaires and follow-up face-to-face interviews, was carried out. The target audience of the survey comprised students and lecturers of Turiba University, Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance.

Second, the corpus of lecture discourse was gathered in three ways: the author's personal presence at the lectures and recording of the discourse of the lecturers in on the dictaphone IC Recorder Sony ICD – UX71 with the prior permission of the speakers, the collection of the recorded discourse of Turiba University guest lecturers from the homepage of the university and the collection of the recorded lectures of prominent lecturers from YouTube available for free access. Most of the recorded texts were later transcribed with the help of the computer programme *Listen and Write* for further analysis.

The third method included genre analysis. Move structure of lectures was analysed based on the theoretical findings.

Finally, the discourse analysis of academic lectures in English delivered by native and non-native subject teachers was carried out on the basis of the theoretical findings, described in the theoretical part of the present research; the software programme WordSmith *6.0.* was used to gain the data for the analysis of frequency of lexical units in the academic lectures. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the research data, the following was analysed:

- 112 questionnaires, filled in by Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance students;
- 29 follow-up recorded interviews with Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance students;
- 19 questionnaires, filled in by Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance lecturers;
- 23 recorded and 18 transcribed academic lectures.

It is worth mentioning that the preparatory work and the analysis of spoken discourse was laborious time-consuming work that required the author's presence at the lectures, lecturers' permission to record their discourse, transcription of the text; 30 minutes of text took one day of transcription, providing that the text was clear, the lecturer's speech was coherent and the pronunciation was adequate. The analysis could take several days for the episode of one extract of the lecture. The results and findings of the research will be used for the design of the methodological materials and for the development of the course for English language training of the academic personnel in Turiba University.

The approbation of research

1. The author spent nine months working in Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance within the framework of EU Aurora project in academic year 2015/2016; the visit allowed her to work as a lecturer, teaching Intercultural Communication to the international students, to finish the theoretical part of her thesis in the National Library of Russia, to do a survey of students and lecturers at the University and to visit lectures delivered by local and international lecturers.
2. The research findings were presented at 12 international conferences and in 13 publications in Latvia and abroad from 2010 to 2017.

Content of the research

The volume of the present doctoral thesis is 238 pages, and it comprises an introduction, five chapters, conclusions, theses, bibliography of 180 entries, and relevant appendices. The doctoral thesis also contains 19 figures and 16 tables which reflect the content of the conducted research.

The first subchapter of **Chapter 1** describes the rationale for the research; it gives some statistical data on the target group (lecturers and students) and explains general terminology relevant to the research, including *lingua franca, globalization* and *Common European Framework of Reference*. It investigates the nature of the genre of the academic lecture and relevant linguistic theories in order to develop a sound theoretical basis. Works by prominent scholars of the schools of genre studies, such as Hyon,1996; Johns, 2015, Freedman, 1999, 2001; Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; Miller, 1994, 2014; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995 (*New Rhetoric Studies*), Dik, 1997, Martin, 1992, 2001, 2003, 2015; Halliday, 1978, 2007; Halliday and Hasan, 1985/1989; Trappes Lomax, 2004 (*Systemic Functional Linguistics*) and Swales, 1990, 2000, 2001, 2004; Bhatia, 2013; Flowerdew, 2011,2015; Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 2002 (*English for Specific Purposes*) are explored in the context of the present study and the key postulates that are applicable to the academic lecture are discovered. Further we study the concepts of *genre, register, discourse and style*, and move to the specifics of the academic lecture genre. *Involvement, detachment, interactivity, contextuality, genre mixing, intertextuality, hybrid nature of the lecture, interdisciplinarity* and other features of the academic lecture are revealed in the process of the summative analysis of the relevant theories and are determined as specific characteristics of the lecture in comparison to other types of written or spoken modes of different genres. We study theories on the macro-structure of a lecture and design a 4 stage move-structure for the description and the analysis of the academic lecture based on the model of Lee (2009); we investigate the lecturing styles of a modern academic lecture and discuss note-taking, a process that occurs during the lecture, as a separate genre of academic writing.

Chapter 2 examines the theoretical background of Discourse Analysis, looks at the nature of spoken academic discourse elaborating on the micro-features, such as discourse markers; different levels of structure of the discourse – lexical and grammatical levels. We look at discourse micro-markers most frequently used in spoken academic discourse, such as *OK, right, well, so, now* and study grammar constructions that are most typical for the academic lecture, such as dependent clauses, adverbial clauses, temporal adverbial clauses and others. We also explore the importance of *self-mention* and the theoretical background of *stance, hedges and audience engagement* both through the overview of theory (Hyland, 2005a, 2005b, 2006, 2012, Barton, 1993, Biber, 2006) and exploration of the theoretical findings in discourse studies with the help of brief analysis of short extracts from the recorded lectures, using the programme WordSmith 6.0.

Chapter 3 addresses the theoretical considerations that underlie *communicative language competence* referring to the *linguistic competence* by Chomsky (1965), *communicative competence* by Hymes (1972), *communicative competence* by Canale and Swain (1983), *grammatical* and *pragmatic competences* by Widdowson (1984), *communicative competence* by Bachman (1995) and elaborates the model of language competences for the academic personnel on the basis of the model of communicative language competences suggested by Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001,2018). We develop the model that includes such competences as *linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic* (CEFR) and we add two more competences, such as *academic* and *interpersonal* which, in our opinion, are crucial for the academic personnel to successfully deliver lectures in English.

Chapter 4 starts the empirical part of the present thesis. It explains the methodology used for the study: the methods and the techniques and aims to fulfil the objectives of the research by reporting on the results of the survey in the institutional context. The first subchapter reports on the results of the ordinal-polytomous questionnaires administered to the students of Turiba University in Latvia and SPBGUE in Russia (eighty-eight international students, including full-time and Erasmus students filled in the questionnaires) and follow-up face-to-face open-question interviews conducted among 30 students in both universities. The aim of the survey was to discover what problems students experience in the perception of academic lectures in English, the questionnaire included ten questions aimed at finding out background information, length of studies in English and the assessment of their level of proficiency, students' skills and competences of the English language, difficulties they come across while listening to lectures delivered in a foreign language. The follow-up interviews that were recorded, later transcribed and analysed included thirteen questions about lecturers' choice of lecturing styles, differences that students see in studying in L1 and FL, lecturers' choice to present the new concepts, international aspect of studies, note-taking, public speaking skills and presentation skills of lecturers, as well as the necessity of the use of discourse markers as an integral part of spoken academic discourse, the importance and effect of pronunciation during the lecture. The next subchapter included the questionnaire on note-taking; twenty-four students provided answers on the interrelation of students' note-taking and lecturers' competences to deliver coherent lectures in English. The subsequent subchapter presents the analysis of the result of questionnaires and interviews administered to lecturers that aim at looking at the problem of an academic lecture from the perspective of the academic personnel; nineteen lecturers filled in the questionnaires and answered additional questions in individual interviews. The final subchapter presents the comparative analysis of students' and lecturers' self-assessment of their communicative language competences. The results of the surveys allow the author to juxtapose the answers of the lectures and students and to find similarities, differences and contradictions in both target group self-assessment.

The goal of **Chapter 5** is to offer the examination of the subject of the present research – spoken academic discourse. The corpus of 28 lectures was collected, including different ways of information gathering – personal presence of the author at the lectures with the recording of lectures in Turiba University and SPBGUE to the dictaphone, use of recorded guest lecturers available on the home-page of Tribe University and the use of online lectures available for free access on YouTube. All lectures were transcribed and 18 of them were analysed at the micro and macro levels. The chapter presents the analysis of the most frequently used words in the academic lectures and describes their influence on lecture perception, gives the analysis of the use of lexico-grammatical features characteristic of the spoken academic discourse, the use of discourse markers *so, now, OK, well, however, thus, therefore* and *all right* and provides a detailed examination of six extracts from the transcribed lectures, where some lectures can serve as a good example, and some demonstrate hurdles and difficulties that lecturers experience.

The **Conclusions** summarize all the findings and provide the recommendations that can be administered by novice lecturers, who plan to deliver lectures in English, teacher trainers, students and all who are interested in improving their public speaking skills in English.

The **Appendices** include such documents as two types of questionnaires administered to students; results of the questionnaires in tables and graphs; results of the questionnaires and interviews administered to lecturers in the form of tables; extract from the document, showing most frequently used words extracted from the transcribed lectures**,** using the programme WordSmith 6.0; transcripts of nine lectures and a copy of the document with the examples of the layout of the corpus findings extracted from academic lectures using the programme WordSmith 6.0.

CHAPTER 1 LINGUISTIC THEORIES PERTAINING TO THE STUDY OF THE GENRE OF THE ACADEMIC LECTURE

Chapter 1 discusses the key concepts in the framework of which the present research is undertaken. It aims at clarifying such notions as globalization, internationalization of studies, English for Special Purposes (ESP), Erasmus, and English as lingua franca for academic studies.

It investigates the nature of the genre of the academic lecture, its specific characteristics in comparison to other types of written or spoken modes of different genres. It introduces key theories of Genre Schools, such as the New Rhetoric Studies, the Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes, explores the peculiarities of the university lecture as a genre, looks at the structure of the academic lecture and studies the characteristic features of note-taking as a process occurring during the lecture.

1.1 Rationale for the Research

As the present study investigates the linguistic preconditions of lecturers working with culturally and linguistically mixed groups of students, whose language competences vary from B1 to C2 according to Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) the aim of this chapter is to describe the rationale of the research - the circumstances in which lectures are realized.

The situation in tertiary education in the European Union after its expansion has changed towards more globalized and internationalized studies. Practically every European university has international students who study for some time abroad either within the framework of the Erasmus student exchange programme (established in 1987) or other exchange programmes or choose to study abroad on a permanent basis in order to obtain international and intercultural experience, improve language skills, establish valuable contacts or develop a career abroad. The world has become globalized not only with the spread of foreign trade and travel opportunities to any distant place on the globe but also because of the opportunities to get higher education and to develop career in different corners of the world. Consequently, this trend requires higher educational institutions to adapt to the growing demand of academic credentials in tertiary education in the internationalized context. Local universities try to find the most appropriate and relevant ways of providing internationally applicable education to the students of diverse cultural, linguistic and content background studying in a setting foreign to them. By 2025, nearly 8 million students are expected to be educated transnationally (Online 1).

European universities compete in attracting international students to study in their university for at least a semester; as a result, thousands of exchange Erasmus students travel all around Europe and the world to study professional subjects, to learn new cultures and to exchange experience.

Turiba University that is the target university of the present study provides education not only to local students but also to international students. Turiba University in Latvia, for example, has two types of international students studying in English – Erasmus students coming to study in the host university for one semester and full time students who receive higher education only in Turiba University. The second group is represented by people from Eastern Europe and Central Asia – Belarus, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, Georgia, Azerbaijan and Southern Asian countries, such as India, Pakistan and et cetera. The medium of instruction in both cases is English, where both students and lecturers use it as a lingua franca. Educational internationalization and the increasing demand of university lectures delivered in English oblige universities reconsider and improve the quality of teaching in a language that is foreign to the academic personnel.

1.1.2 English as a Lingua Franca in Higher Education

International education is a growing phenomenon worldwide and as it was estimated by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) almost 4.3 million students are enrolled in university-level education outside their home country (Online 2). The European Commission's Action Plan for language learning and linguistic diversity underlined the major contribution that the teaching of a subject through the medium of a foreign language can make to the EU's language learning goals – two languages in addition to the mother tongue. Globalization in many European countries has resulted in plurilingualism and multilingualism - which are embedded in the official policies of the European Union and the Council of Europe, and the Bologna Process for harmonizing higher education promises 'proper provision for linguistic diversity'(Pérez Cañado, 2013: 21). Moreover if we carefully study the provisions of the European Commission concerning higher education in the EU, the recommendations are that "all students should study abroad, preferably in a foreign language, for at least one term, and should gain an accepted language qualification as part of their degree course." (Online 3). The current situation in Latvia shows that apart from education provided in the Latvian language and some minority languages, such as Russian, Jewish, Polish, Lithuanian, Ukrainian, Belarusian, Estonian and Roma (secondary education) part of the tertiary education is ensured in the English language, focusing on the international students and the local students who want to study in English.

According to the data available in "Study in Europe in 2017" seventeen state and ten private higher educational institutions offer study programmes in foreign languages in Latvia. Having interviewed Imants Bergs, the Vice-rector for Study Development and International Relations of Turiba University, the author has discovered that the target audience of students who study at programmes in English constitute exchange students of Erasmus program, international students studying full-time in Latvia and a small number of domestic students who prefer to get higher education at home but in a foreign language. In spite of the recommendation of the EU concerning the necessity of every student to study in a foreign university in a foreign language for at least one semester, the statistics show that not all Latvian students can afford to use the possibility of Erasmus programme.

Another evident fact is that students in Latvia have English in the curriculum only for several semesters (1 or 1,5 years) and the majority of them complain that at the moment of graduation they lose the English language skills due to the lack of practical experience and absence of English language classes in the last years of studies. What could be the possible solution for students if language classes are not provided in the last study years?

It is evident that the requirements of time and the real facts do not coincide and although the opportunities to study abroad in order to improve intercultural and language skills of students have increased from the moment of Latvia's joining to the EU, still there is a big number of students who cannot use this opportunity to the full due to some reasons.

Subjects taught through the medium of the students' foreign language (in most cases, English) are becoming more and more frequent in European higher education, with the aim being twofold. On the one hand, such classes are aimed at favouring student exchanges across institutions and, on the other hand, they are meant to foster foreign-language learning on behalf of local students. It is probable, that the same trend might be appropriate in the higher education in Latvia too.

The possible solution for universities could be the introduction of content subjects in English to the students of third and fourth years of studies, this way both having in curriculum the necessary content subjects and keeping up and improving foreign language skills of learners. Taking into account that according to portal study.eu almost every second educational institution offers programmes in English for international students, it would be possible to provide domestic students with the possibility to have some percentage of content subjects in years 3 and 4 of studies to be conducted in English.

1.2 Foundations of Genre Studies

Genre studies go back to the Ancient Greek times when already Greek rhetoricians pointed out the systemic differences in the purpose and structure between lyrics, epics and other literary forms. Aristotle in his *Poetics*, composed around 335 BC, used the word genre in the meaning of 'kind' or 'form' to refer to major types of literature: poetry, drama and the epic.

The concept genre has been defined diversely in the field of applied linguistics. During the last several decades, linguists have directed their attention to the study of written text and spoken discourse, including the lecture as a central spoken genre in higher education in Europe and many countries world-wide (e.g. Flowerdew 2011, 2015; Miller 2002). The present research is preoccupied with the study of spoken discourse therefore it will not focus on the discussion of written genres.

M. Bakhtin (1986) was one of the first scholars who introduced the notion of speech genres and explored their heterogeneous nature of spoken genres and distinguished between primary (simple) and secondary (complex) speech genres. According to the scholar, primary genres are utterances, forms of speech communication and written texts created originally; they take form in "unmediated speech communion" (ibid.: 62). Primary genres are those of everyday conversation: "single-word rejoinder" , "greetings, farewells, congratulations" , "genres of salon conversations", "genres of table conversation, intimate conversations among friends, within the family, and so on" (ibid.: 79-81). Secondary genres are those that "absorb and digest" primary speech genres, for example "novels, dramas, all kinds of scientific research, major genres of commentary, and so forth" (ibid.: 62).

Bakhtin (ibid.) elaborated on stylistics saying that "where there is style there is genre", any utterance, no matter, oral or written, primary or secondary, and in any sphere of communication – is individual and therefore can reflect the individuality of the speaker (writer); consequently this speaker or writer possesses his /her individual style. Active speech communication is a "multifaceted process": whenever a listener perceives the speech of a speaker, he takes an active "responsive attitude toward it" and "any understanding of live speech is responsive." As a result, the listener becomes a speaker. If the listener does not respond immediately, he still has a "responsive understanding with delayed action." (ibid.: 63-68) Understanding of multifaceted nature of speech is of significance for the present research since the speech of the lecturer which may sometimes look like a one way interaction, involves listeners (students) in the process and encourages them to take the role of active listeners having responsive understanding. In the same way, the discourse created by lecturers has an individual shape and manner; it reflects on the individual style of the speaker, making each lecture different and each lecturer a unique speaker.

Bakhtin (1986: 76) mentioned the idea of “speech plan” or “speech will”, which determines the speech, the “choice of a particular speech genre” for the particular speech, and he stated that “if speech genres did not exist and we had not mastered them, if we had to originate them during the speech process and construct each utterance at will for the first time, speech communication would be impossible.” Interpreting Bakhtin’s terminology one may use the term “lecture plan” that every lecturer has for each individual lecture, and although every lecture is unique and individually created by a lecturer, it follows some specific plan, making a lecture belong to a separate genre of speech.

The university lecture is an example of a secondary speech genre since the text of an academic lecture, created by the lecturer is usually planned in advance before the lecture and is largely based on other authors’ texts; in other words, it “absorbs” primary speech genres. Nevertheless, the lecture is highly individual; every lecturer brings his personality, knowledge, and experience into the speech, has his own idiolect, and peculiarities of his individual lecture delivery style; every lecturer has a “speech plan” or “speech will” that directs his speech.

In the 20th century, three schools of genre studies were formed - New Rhetoric Studies, Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes. Although all three have been preoccupied with some specific study of genres, the distinction between them is often vague, so they can be seen as complementary, rather than competing approaches.

1.2.1 Rhetorical Genre Studies

New Rhetoric Studies (Johns, 2015 Miller, 1984; Bazerman, 1994; Freedman and Medway, 1994; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Coe, Lingard, and Teslenko, 2002) is also called Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) − the term RGS coined by Freedman (1999, 2001) and developed by Bawarshi and Reiff, (2010). Miller (in Freedman and Medway, 1994: 67) considered and one has to agree that what “we learn when we learn a genre is not just a pattern of forms or even a method of achieving our own ends” [...] “we learn, more importantly, what ends we may have.”[...] “For the student, genres serve as keys to understanding how to participate in the actions of a community”. For example, academic genres (a seminar, a workshop or a lecture) are usually tailored in such a way (linguistically) that help learners associate the specialized knowledge (linguistic forms, terminology, functional language) they acquire in the academic setting with their profession, get prepared for the active participation in the discourse community they will be representing or work in the relevant industry.

Miller (1984: 163) proposed to consider genre as a social action: “genres are not merely collections of codified textual forms and characteristic habits of argument; they are typified responses to social exigence.” By ‘exigence’ Miller meant intentions, “recurrent social needs”. He noted that “a genre is a rhetorical means for mediating private intentions and social exigence; it motivates by connecting the private with the public, the singular with the recurrent” (ibid.: 163).

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) claimed that genres “can be modified according to rhetorical circumstances”, “genres evolve, develop and decay” (Miller, 1994), in other words, although genres have a certain form, they should not be viewed as static texts as they can be modified depending on the communicative situation.

As Bawarshi (2000: 336) noted, the main interest of the RGS scholars of is to explore how and why non-literary "typified texts reflect and reproduce social situations and activities … how and why texts as cultural artefacts are produced; how they in turn reflect and help enact social actions; and how, finally, they can serve as sites for cultural critique and change."

It is agreed that “only by understanding the circumstances and the participants’ construal of the situation can a valid interpretation of the cognitive activity be made.” (Resnick in Artemeva, 2008: 35).

The lecturer aims to deliver the knowledge of the professional subject to the target students, and this is achieved through sharing personal experience, professional knowledge and the intention to provide training for students’ future work in the relevant professional community.

1.2.2 Genres within Systemic Functional Linguistics

The Systemic Functional Genre Studies are often known as ‘the Sydney School’ of genre studies (Hyon, 1996). The theoretical foundation of this School builds on the works of systemic functional linguists (SFL) such as Halliday (1994, 2007); Halliday and Matthiessen (2004), Halliday and Hasan (1976, 1985), and Martin (1984, 1985, 1992, 2001, 2003, 2015). They considered language primarily as a resource for making meaning, rather than as a set of rules. The importance of meanings in context is vividly shown in the quotation of Halliday, one of the forefathers of the SFL, (1985: 10) who claimed that “for a linguist, to describe language without accounting for text is sterile; to describe text without relating it to language is vacuous.” SFL involves the notion that language consists of a set of systems which offers the writer/speaker choices in expressing meanings. Systemic functional linguistics views meaning as social, where social meaning impacts on linguistic forms and the role of form is to serve a social function. Genre by SFL researchers is considered:

- social because people participate in genres with other people;
- goal-oriented because they use genres to get things done;
- staged because it usually takes a few steps to reach people's goals. (Martin and Rose, 2003)

Martin (2001 in Nunan, 2008: 57) differentiated between spoken and written genres, where the former may include "casual conversations, academic lectures, political speeches, talk show interviews", and so on, whereas the latter includes: "recounts, narratives, procedures, reports, explanations, expositions and discussions."

Users of different genres may always keep in mind the functions and aims of the texts that they create, whether the aim is achieved and whether the choice of linguistic features is appropriate to the aim of that specific genre. For example, a lecturer may sound unprofessional if he uses only informal examples from his personal experience to illustrate some concepts or ideas in the course of a lecture.

Having investigated findings by Halliday (1978), Halliday and Hasan (1985) and Martin (2015), Trappes-Lomax (in Paltidge, 2004: 138) the following conclusions pertinent to SFL may be drawn:

- Language is seen not only as an autonomous system, but as a part of the wider socio-cultural context;

- language has a meaning potential – speakers and writers simultaneously represent experience (the ideational function), manage their relationship with the co-participants (the interpersonal function) and produce a dialogue or a monologue (the textual function);

- the realization of the above-mentioned meta-functions can be discerned at the micro-level of clause-structure and at the macro-level of context (register features: field, tenor and mode);

- systemic functional linguistics provides a comprehensive theory of text analysis and genre.

1.2.3 The ESP Genre Theory

The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Genre Theory (Bhatia, 1993, 2013, Swales, 1990, Flowerdew, 1993, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 2002, Dudley-Evans, 1998, 2000, St John, 1998) has investigated genres in order to provide a better understanding of how language is structured to achieve goals in specific contexts of use. The term 'genre' was first introduced in ESP in 1981 in an article by Tarone (Paltridge, 2001).The area of interest included non-native speakers' spoken and written language in academic and professional settings. Swales (1990: 141), who has become a crucial figure in ESP, has identified two key characteristics of ESP genre analysis: focus on academic and research English and use of genre analysis for applied ends. Thus, here lies the interest of the present research.

Swales (1990) discussed quantitative studies of the linguistic properties of 'registers' of a language with the purpose of identifying the frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic features in a particular register. The linguist referred to genres as 'communicative events' with special "communicative purposes" that possess their own "structure, style, content and intended audience" (Swales, 1990: 58). The specific 'communicative purposes' are determined by the members of a discourse community who provide the rationale and constrain the discourse structure, content, and purposes of a certain genre, and define its rhetorical functions. By the term 'discourse community' Swales (1990: 466) means a group of people who share common purposes and the setting of communication; for example, university lecturers and students of the same faculty constituted a discourse community. Flowerdew (2015) acknowledged Swales's contribution to Genre Analysis and elaborated on Swales's concept of discourse community and suggested six characteristics which will be studied below from the perspective of an academic lecture:

1. "Common public goals" (ibid.: 24-25) – the common goal of the lecture participants – the lecturer and students in the exchange and acquisition of new knowledge;
2. "Mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" (ibid.: 25) (for example, lecture room, seminar room);
3. "Membership within a discourse community depends on individuals using these mechanisms to participate in the life of the discourse community" (ibid.: 26) (students' and lecturers' background/ experience and the language competence);
4. "Discourse community utilizes and possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of the aims" (ibid.: 26); these genres must be recognized by members of a discourse community (for example, lectures on Sustainable Finance may be better understood and discussed by the students studying finance rather than medicine,

whereas medical discourse will most probably be problematic for the discourse community of business or finance studies);

5. "Discourse community has acquired some specific lexis, which can take the form of shared and specialized terminology, such as abbreviations and acronyms" This way, for example, a student who studies law or medicine might experience initial difficulties in understanding professional financial terminology, especially, acronyms and abbreviations. In other words, representatives of each discourse community possess specialized lexical stocks and schemata knowledge of the profession which can be ambiguous for the representatives of other discourse communities. This may mean that the professional content and the lexical units of the specialized subjects of other fields delivered to students for whom this subject is out of their professional circle have to be simplified to some extent and adapted to the needs of the target audience.
6. "A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise" (ibid.: 27) who can pass on knowledge of shared goals and communicative purposes to new members. So, shared goals and discoursal expertise of lecturers in the specific field are shared with the target audience (students) who in the course of time start belonging to the same discourse community as the lecturers.

Bawarshi (2010: 46) who is a scholar of the New Rhetorical Genre School considered that applying ESP approach to genre analysis should start with identifying a genre within a discourse community and defining the communicative purpose the genre is designed to achieve. After that the researcher has to examine the "genre's organization – its schematic structure" often characterized by the rhetorical "moves", and then to examine the textual and linguistic features such as style, tone, voice, grammar and syntax that realize the rhetorical moves.

In other words, a linguist who wants to do the analysis of some text or discourse will proceed from a genre schematic structure to the lexico-grammatical features, and as Flowerdew noted (1992: 91-92), the process tends "to move from text to context."

Bhatia (2013: 60-66) outlined seven steps in analysing genres; these steps show the ways ESP genre researchers conduct analyses in academic and professional settings. The stages are as follows:

1. Placing a genre-text in its situational context.
2. Surveying the existing research on the genre.

3. Understanding the genre's discourse community by determining the goals and relationships of the participants.
4. Collecting the corpus of the genre.
5. Recommendation to the researcher to conduct an ethnography of the institutional context in which the genre takes place.
6. Moving from text to the context. Deciding regarding which level of the linguistic analysis to explore: lexico-grammatical features (for example, for quantitative/statistical study of tenses, clauses, and other syntactic properties, including stylistic analysis), *text-patterning* (e.g. the patterns in which language is used in a particular genre, such as how and why noun phrases and nominalizations are used in different genres), and *structural interpretation* (e.g. the structural "moves" a genre utilizes to achieve its goals).
7. Seeking a specialist informant from the research site to verify findings.
8. The plan will be further used for the analysis of the academic discourse in the empirical part of the present thesis.

Although the three schools of genre studies developed separately in different geographical areas and they were focused on different objects of study, they have much in common. Both the Sydney School and the ESP Genre School stressed the need to recognize the social dimension of genre; emphasized the addressee, the context and the occasion (Freedman in Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010: 57,). The difference between systemicists and ESP specialists lies in the target audience, where the SFL focuses on students who acquire English as a second language or whose English skills need improvement, while the target group of the latter are students in EFL situations or those who study English for academic purposes. The present research will use findings of all three Schools described above.

Researchers of other schools contributed to the development of genre studies, for example, Van Dijk (2008: 21) a scholar in the field of Critical Discourse Analysis, talks about different discourse genres and offers to analyse genres on the basis of the following dimensions:

- Sphere (e.g. public, private)
- Mode (spoken, written, multimedia, etc.)
- Main social domain (politics, media, education, etc.)
- Institution or organization (university, shop, etc.)
- Participant roles and relations (doctor, patient, MP, student, etc.)
- Goals (impart or require knowledge, advice, service, etc.)

Bhatia and other contemporary researchers have recently shifted from a conventional genre analysis towards a Critical Genre Analysis, emphasizing the change from *text* to *context*, which involves going "beyond a textual analysis of linguistic data in order to incorporate a multidimensional and multi-perspective framework for the analysis of academic, professional, institutional and other workplace genres." (Bhatia, 2008: 166)

1.3 Genre, Register, Discourse, Style

The present research requires the explanation and exemplification of the concepts *genre, register, discourse* and *styl*e since they are often encountered in diverse interpretations in the theories of genre, discourse, corpus linguistics and other studies and can sometimes be confusing and misleading for the readership.

As we have previously seen genre was presented by the scholars of all three schools of genre studies as a multi-dimensional and a complex concept. This subchapter will provide definitions by all three schools and will find those most suitable for the present research. Bakhtin (1986: 60-99) defined genres as "relatively stable types of ... utterances" within which words and sentences attain typical expressions, relations, meanings, and boundaries, and within which exist "typical conception[s] of the addressee" and typical forms of addressivity. The scholars of the New Rhetorical School, for example, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995: 479) considered that "genres are dynamic rhetorical forms that develop from responses to recurrent situations and serve to stabilize experience and give it coherence and meaning", Freadman (1994), Devitt (1991), and Orlikowski and Yates (2002) claimed that genres do not exist in isolation but rather in dynamic interaction with other genres.

Nunan (2007: 209), representing the ESP School of genre studies defined genre as

"a purposeful, socially constructed oral or written text such as narrative, a casual conversation, a poem, a recipe or a description. Each genre has its own characteristic structure and grammatical form that reflects its social purpose."

Nunan's definition of genre in a simple way explains that in order to be attached to a specific genre, the text needs to have some social purpose, it should have different characteristics in structure and grammar, however, the definition does not seem to be complete because it does not explain which characteristics in particular the text may possess.

Representatives of the ESP school of genre theory Bhatia, Cook and Swales in Johnson and Johnson (1999: 151) have defined genres as "types of spoken and written discourse" that are recognized by a discourse community. They provided such examples as lectures, conversations, speeches, notices, advertisements, novels, diaries, shopping lists with typical features characteristic to each genre. Some features may be linguistic (particular grammatical or lexical choices), whereas some are paralinguistic (e.g. print size, gesture) or contextual and pragmatic (e.g. setting, purpose). Genres can overlap (a joke may also be a story) and one can contain another (a joke can be a part of a story).

This perception of genres as if clarifies Nunan's definition by specifying what characteristics/features genres may vary in: linguistics, paralinguistic, contextual and pragmatic. It also states the intertextual or interdiscursive aspect of genres, for instance, the speech of a lecturer may include quotations and stories from other texts by other authors, the so-called process of recontextualisation can be noticed in the discourse.

Some scholars of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1978; Frow, 2006) viewed the concepts of genre and register as synonyms, whereas others, for example, Martin (1985,1992, 2001, 2003, 2015) strongly differentiated between these two concepts. Martin considered genre being realized through registers, and registers being realized through languages. Therefore, the text from one genre may contain elements of tenor, mode and field which can differ from the text from another genre.

In stylistics and sociolinguistics, the term 'register' refers to "a variety of language defined according to its use in social situations, e.g. a register of scientific, religious, formal English. In Hallidayan linguistics, the term is seen as specifically opposed to varieties of language defined according to the characteristics of the users (viz. their regional or class dialect), and is given a subclassification into field, mode and manner of discourse." (Crystal, 2008: 409) The contextual variables of field, tenor and mode, first introduced by Halliday (1985/89: 29, 38) have been elaborated on by Martin and Nunan, who claimed that field refers to what and where something is going on, for example, tennis, opera, linguistics, cooking, building, construction, farming, education and so on. Tenor is connected with personal relationships between the individuals involved in an activity, "e.g. the degree of power between two interactants will determine how a particular event is carried out" Martin (2001: 152), whereas mode refers to the channel of communication, whether the text is written or spoken, if it is a face-to-face conversation or a telephone conversation. Nunan (2008: 59) also suggested that two texts that are delivered to the receiver via different modes can belong to the same genre. The example provided shows that one and the same text produced by the same interlocutors but using different channels (modes: face-to-face and a telephone conversation) brings to different text types within the same genre. Field and tenor remain the same, but the modes change. The difference between the definitions of genre and register proposed by Nunan (2008: 58) is that genre relates to the context of culture, but register relates to the context of situation. The diagram below shows the connection of culture to situation and register to language, as Martin (1997: 37) explained it - register (including field, tenor and mode) puts language in the context and is "contextualized by genre."

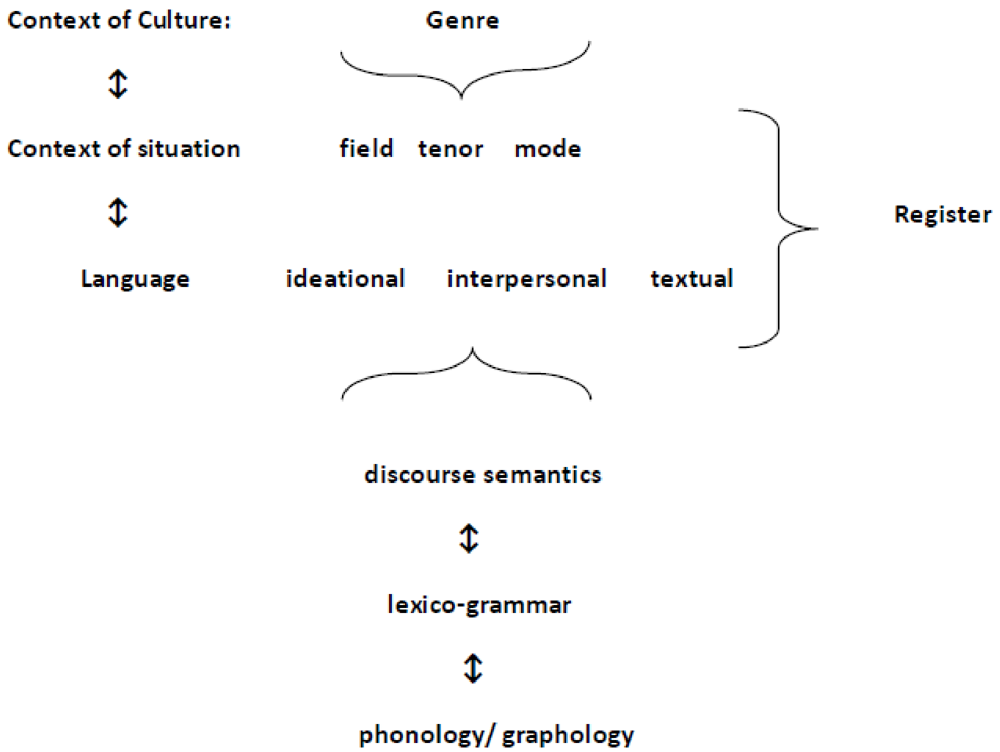


Figure 1.1 **Bawarschi's Model of Register and Genre** (adapted from Bawarschi, 2010: 33)

Bawarschi (2010: 33) summarized Martin's model and explained that the formula demonstrates us how social purposes are linked to text structures and that these are realized as situated social and linguistic actions within register:

"Indeed, this has been the most common trajectory in SFL genre analysis: Moving from the identification of social purpose as represented in generic structural elements [...] to the analysis of a text's register as represented in field, tenor, and mode; to language metafunctions; to more micro analyses of semantic, lexicogrammatic, and phonological/graphological features."

A very clear explanation of how SFL scholars view differences between genre and register was provided by Biber (2009: 80) who recognized the significance of SFL School in the development of genre theory. Biber's definition of genre and register on the basis of SFL School is as follows:

"Genre is viewed as a social process in which participants within a culture use language in predictable sequential structures to fulfil certain communicative purposes; Couture (1986) calls genres "conventional instances of organized text" (p. 80). Register, on the other hand, has been characterized as the "expression-plane" of genre (Martin, 1985), and is more concerned with the typical linguistic choices within different genres. The choices are seen as resulting from contextual variables called field, tenor, and mode in Systemic Functional Linguistics, which roughly mean topics/actions of language, participants/relationships, and mode/organization." (ibid.: 22)

In the present study **genre** will be used to denote "a social process" (Biber, 2009), "a particular type of a communicative event" (Rernkema, 2009) (e.g. a lecture, a seminar, a webinar) in which "participants within a culture" (Biber, ibid) or "users belonging to the same discourse community use language in predictable sequential structures to fulfil certain communicative purposes" (Biber, ibid, Rernkema, ibid). Genre has "distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure and distinctive communicative functions". (Paltridge, 2006, Richards and Schmidt, 2002)

In the context of the present study, the concept **register** is a situationally-defined variety of language. Register will allow relating text and context through the features of *field, tenor* and *mode,* where field refers to the topic, theme of the lecture, a so called social activity, tenor answers the question 'Who' and applies to the status of participants – in our case – the lecturer and students, ascribes the relationship and the interpersonal skills of the participants, whereas mode is concerned with the channel of communication or the format in which communication takes place. Thus, academic discourse might be seen as a register of spoken mode linked to a situation which, broadly speaking, entails the transmission and acquisition of knowledge.(Biber, 1999 in Crawford Camiciottoli, 2007) We agree that the constituencies of register may differ, but not necessarily the genre will change immediately, consequently, the lecture may change from a monologue to the interactive mode of information delivery, however, the genre of the academic lecture will still remain.

Style in its turn is connected with the individual use of language – and will be defined hereinafter as a range of variation within the speech of an individual speaker; that reflects the preferences of the user, for example, the use of a monologue-type lecture vs. an interactive style with a lot of student engagement.

The 'mode' continuum suggested by Nunan (2008: 59) can be adapted to the purposes of acquiring the content within academic genres and can be depicted as follows:

Table 1.1 **The Mode Continuum** (adapted from Nunan, 2008: 33)

Face-to-face interaction (e.g. seminar, workshop)	Monologue type of lecture	Webinar / Skype lecture	Handouts / Report	Use of Internet resources for distant learning and blended learning, e.g. Moodle

Immediate feedback Delayed feedback

Applying the above mode continuum to the current research, it can be said that, depending on the possibility of contact between the interlocutors (e.g. a lecturer and students), the 'quality' of feedback may differ from immediate to delayed. The interactive style of a seminar presupposes a two-way communication, the closer there is the verbal contact between interlocutors, the more chance for the immediate feedback exists there, and the easier way speakers may ask, interrupt and fulfil other communicative functions.

The monologic style involves an active role of the speaker – the speech of the lecturer and more passive roles of students - the listening process of other 'stakeholders' who may have a "responsive attitude" (Bakhtin,1986) toward the speech, the feedback is less noticeable because students do not share their thoughts aloud although they may have inner mental processes taking place, which can be accompanied with the non-verbal behaviour demonstrating their feedback; the feedback can also be delayed until the moment when students have to demonstrate the acquired knowledge in the form of a test.

Communication in a distant form, for example, a lecture by Skype or a webinar may evoke immediate feedback when students ask or write questions and provide comments, however, due to some technical discrepancies that can sometimes occur, students' feedback can be more delayed than during face-to-face communication. Written genres, such as, reports or handouts, which may also serve as a study form, do not presuppose the immediate feedback since they require more time for the cognitive processing of information – reading, considering and only then coming back with the reaction in the form of a test, oral communication with a lecturer or any other form of the test of knowledge.

Biber and Conrad (2009) differentiate among the terms 'register', 'genre', and 'style' referring them to different perspectives on text varieties.

> The key difference of style from the register perspective is that the use of these features is not functionally motivated by the situational context; rather, style features reflect aesthetic preferences, associated with particular authors or historical periods. (Biber, 2009: 2)

Thus, style is connected with the individual use of language; it can also reflect the preferences of the user, e.g. laconic style of writing or speech vs. open and generous use of language or, for example, the use of a monologue-type lecture vs. an interactive style with a lot of student engagement. Likewise, Leech and Short (in Norgaad, 2010: 155) define style as "the way in which language is used in a given context, by a given person, for a given purpose and so on." Style is restricted to the style of an author / speaker and can be characteristic of a situation, a character, a text, linguistic expressions used over time.

Discourse is a more general concept that includes genre and the register of some particular genre. Discourse is a linguistic unit larger than a sentence (Merriam-Wewbster's Collegiate Dictionary); "language above the sentence" or "language produced and interpreted in a real-world context". (Cameron, 2001:13) Discourse implies the use of both spoken and written modes of language.

ESP scholars, such as Paltridge (2006), Richards and Schmidt (2002) defined genre as a type of discourse that takes place in a particular setting, has "distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure" (ibid.: 224) and has distinctive communicative functions. Genre is considered as if a kind of structure for discourse where genre shapes the content and purpose of discourse and consequently any type of genre-based discourse has a particular content that people expect within this genre. So, if we want to organize all the above-mentioned concepts in the framework of their meanings, then genre would be placed between discourse and register in the hierarchy, whereas style would follow register:

Discourse → Genre → Register → Style

Any discourse will belong to some specific genre, dependent on the communicative purposes of the speaker, whereas the genre will use some specific register, for instance a written mode or an oral mode, with the individual stylistic features of the author. So, for example, academic discourse may have different genres within it (lecture, seminar, workshop, conference, class, webinar), whereas all these genres may belong to different modes (spoken, written, face-to-face, monologue, dialogue, conversation, etc.) with one speaker choosing the individual style (e.g. preferring reading aloud, whereas another speaker choosing to interact with students and to engage them in communication).

The table below demonstrates the example of the above hierarchy and the possible variations:

Table 1.2 **Examples of Spoken Academic Genres** (developed by the author)

Genre / Communicative Purpose	Register	Style
Academic lecture / to explain/ deliver new information to students	Field: setting - lecture room, e.g. Marketing; Tenor: lecturer, students; Mode: spoken / written (text in the slides).	**Monologic style** Use of Power Point mode. One way communication. Individual style of the lecturer.
Academic lecture / to explain/ deliver new information to students, to make a discussion	Field: setting - lecture room, e.g. Marketing; Tenor: Lecturer, students; Mode: Spoken / written (text in the slides).	**Interactive style** (involvement of students in communication); use of Power Point mode. Individual style of the speaker.
Seminar / Discuss the subject, find out the ideas, the acquired knowledge	Field: setting - seminar room, e.g. Marketing; Tenor: Students, lecturer**;** Mode: Spoken.	**Interactive style** (involvement of students in communication); use of Power Point mode. Individual style of the lecturer.
Conference / Share knowledge, obtain new ideas	Field: setting - conference room, e.g. Marketing; Tenor: Academic personnel, students; Mode: Spoken / written (text in the slides).	**Presentations** with the use of Power Point mode. Individual style of the lecturer.

The present table demonstrates that the texts of different registers and genres can belong to the category of similar discourse regardless of whether they are of spoken or written mode.

1.4 Genre of the Academic Lecture

The lecture is one of the most common forms of instruction in universities throughout the world. All educational institutions use the lecture as a form of studies, with the aim of conveying knowledge to a large number of students (Buckley, 2000; Custers and Boshuizen, 2002; Pettu, 2001). Lecture is a genre that may take place in different fields and lectures are usually given by experts who possess practical and theoretical knowledge in the field, have excellent presentation and socializing skills; moreover they are able to give examples of practical application and relate personal experience to the content of the lecture. A successful lecture would be presenting relevant content to the motivated audience in the appropriate setting (e.g. the audience with necessary equipment) and delivering "value-laden discourses in which lecturers not only present information to the audience, but also express their attitudes and evaluation of the materials" (Thomson, 1994; Lee, 1990, 1994 in Lee, 2009).

It is important to note that the lecture has changed a lot from the times when it was first used as a pedagogical form to impart knowledge from old-fashioned "chalk and talk" and "sage on the stage" to a more interactive and more constructive "guide on the side" (King, 1993).

Soft science lectures delivered through the spoken channel, since spoken interaction is of interest in the present research, are also characterized by social relations of the participants and their mutual interaction (lecturer – student, student-student, and student - lecturer). However, sometimes lecturers prefer to choose the monologic type of lecture that is deprived of any interaction with the target audience, is speaker-focused and does not expect students' feedback.

Lecture is an example of an 'oral academic genre' which has been studied by such researchers as Giménez (2000), Bellés and Fortanet (2004) or 'pedagogical process genre' (e.g. Thompson, 1994, Lee, 2009) and Carter and McCarthy (1997), representatives the ESP genre school consider lecture a pedagogical genre. Likewise Crawford Camiciottoli (2007: 11), who represents school of Systemic Functional Linguistics, considers that a lecture is a genre realized through the *pedagogic register*, "featuring the informational content of the lecture as *field,* the lecturer-audience relationship as *tenor* and face-to-face spoken language as *mode*" (ibid.). The lecturer is supposed to fulfil different functions during a lecture: to describe objects, notions, concepts or events in their static and dynamic form; to narrate, creating a sequence of events, where there are the stages of problem crisis, and solution or resolution; to inform, explain, discuss, develop cause and effect arguments; to provide definitions, to compare and draw conclusions.

These functions are successfully performed if lecturers take into account the genre specifics of the academic lecture. As Flowerdew (1994: 14) pointed out, lecture research:

> (…) can indicate to teachers and course designers what linguistic and discoursal features learners need to be familiar with in order to understand a lecture and what, therefore, should be incorporated into ESL courses. In addition a knowledge of the linguistic/discoursal structure of lectures will be of value to content lecturers in potentially enabling them to structure their own lectures in an optimally effective way.

Academic lecture as a genre delivered through the pedagogic register may be attributed to the secondary genre (Bakhtin, 1986: 62), since a modern lecture is a combination of written and spoken genres, namely, the text in the Power Point presentation often includes quotations from other written or oral texts.

On the other hand, each lecture is an example of the individual style of a lecturer, each new lecture is unique and cannot be reproduced word for word by another lecturer, even by the same lecturer, because the cognitive and communicative processes are dynamic, ever-changing, and situative (occurring in relation to a specific situation) that may be dependent on such circumstances as the target audience, setting, time of the lecture, et cetera.

The idea of Bakhtin (1986: 68) about “responsive attitude” of speech communication may be applied to the academic lecture – as students’ perception of the lecturer’s discourse does not always result in an immediate response but can lead to delayed action – a student uses the lecturer’s thoughts and words in his further work in the subject – a test, a seminar, creating a written text and later, possibly in the course of his professional life.

Bakhtin (1986: 69) argued that “any speaker is himself a respondent to a greater or lesser degree” as a result, any utterance produced by a speaker is a “complexly organized chain of other utterances.” In other words, both the lecturer and later students become speakers and respondents who reproduce other speakers’ utterances. Moreover, the lecturer may also use students’ ideas and words; the so called cyclic process takes place.

An important characteristic of spoken genre is the fact that there is no direct distinction between a sentence and an utterance in the speech (ibid.). It is important to note that not always the boundaries of sentences are determined by the change of the speaking subject. This peculiarity of speech can cause a problem with the perception of lecture; this may occur in the situation when a lecturer is not a good orator and does not use, for example, pauses for the demonstration of the change of the topic or end of the theme or uses pauses in places that mislead the listeners from the right perception of the lecture.

The idea of a *speech plan* (Bakhtin, 1986: 76) or *educational exigence* sounds applicable in the context of the university lecture – the lecturer has a plan of his speech that he follows, does not matter, how spontaneous or improvising the discourse may sometimes sound; the lecture is a genre that expects a lecturer to choose the most applicable forms of address to the audience, using terminology, characteristic of the subject being taught.

The lecture is characterized by such concepts as *involvement* and *detachment* (Chafe, 1982:45), which are different concerns and relations that speakers have with their audience. Unlike writers who are often removed from their audience, lecturers need to communicate and to reflect their own emotional participation – ‘experiential involvement’ (Chafe, ibid.). The importance of the lecturer, his presence / authority in the discourse he creates, the expression of personal feelings, attitudes and emotions (Biber and Finegan, 1989) and ‘stance’ have been studied by Biber (1994) (see in Chapter 2 on the linguistic features of spoken academic discourse).

The ideal lecture is an *interactive* and an *involving activity*. The characteristic features are the use of special lexical and grammatical elements that serve different functions, for example, inviting students to speak, asking, confirming and disagreeing. The interactional dimension of speech has been elaborated by Goffman (1981: 137), who sees speech as "participation framework". Goffman (1981: 167) distinguished different speaker production formats including "animator" (the person who physically produces the text / speech), "author" (the person who is the author of the speech) and "principle" (the person or organization who endorse the content of the speech). Goffman (ibid.) recognized the triple role of the lecturer as a principal, an author and an animator all in the same person and whose 'status' can change when, for example, a lecturer shifts to a more personal self, for example digressing from the topic of the lecture.

Another characteristic feature of the genre of the academic lecture is the aspect of *contextuality, situationality* or *improvisation*: the lecture is always delivered at the moment of speaking; it is a flow of speech that is dynamic, never static and never the same. The speech of a lecturer should be logical and consistent, systematic and clear in delivery, with the use of cliché-type phrases in the metadiscourse of a lecture; as well as the ideal lecture is objective, unambiguous and laconic and, what is more, the lecture should be intellectually expressive.

Genre mixing (Helal, 2013: 152) has become a contemporary trend of a modern lecture – a combination of spoken and written / formal and informal registers, supplementing of speech with the use of visual materials demonstrated with the help of various modern means. Decades ago it was an overhead projector, today these are programmes such as PowerPoint, YouTube, Prezi, Elluminate Live, VoiceThread, Adobe Captivate and others.

Aguilar (in Camiciotolli, 2004: 17) has mentioned the *hybrid nature* of peer seminars, sharing some features with lectures, conference presentations and written research articles. However, the hybrid nature can be attributed to a genre of the academic lecture too, because lectures today are often a mixture of different pedagogical genres: a research article that may be quoted by a lecturer; a seminar mode encouraging students to interact; group work, a discussion or a conference type lecture when students are asked to present some work.

A lecture today is "a remarkably adaptable and robust genre that combines textual record and ephemeral event, and that is capable of addressing a range of different demands and circumstances, both practical and epistemological" (Friesen, 2011: 95). Böhme (in Friesen 2011: 101) introduced the term "transmedial culture" to denote the significance and the emphasis of media on the modern culture in pedagogy.

The use of multiple sources of information both in oral and verbal ways makes the process of lecture more complex and the perception of lecture by students more intricate. Students today are forced to multitask –not only to listen to the speaker and take notes, but also to follow the speech, read the written text from the screen, and perceive video-recorded volumes of information. As a result, information processing has become more complex.

The academic lecture can be an example of *interdiscursivity* (Foucault, 1969; Fairclough, 2003 and Hyatt, 2005) - one genre interacting with another – for example a genre which represents a combination of spoken discourse (speech of a lecture) and written mode (Power Point presentation) and *intertextuality* (Kristeva, 1986; Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Fairclough, 1992) having texts created by lecturers on the basis of other texts and adding stories or quotations of other authors into the newly-created discourse. Bakhtin (1981, 1986) emphasized the 'dialogic' qualities of texts, that is, how multiple voices are transformed , Kristeva (1986) talked about the ways in which texts and ways of talking refer to and build on other texts and discourses (Kristeva 1986).

Recent ESP approaches to the genre study acknowledge the dynamic and interactive nature of genres (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010: 50); they attend to what Swales calls *genre chains*, *genre systems* (Bazerman, 1994), *genre sets* (Devitt, 1991) – taking into account other genres with which the target genre interacts and *intertextuality*– borrowings from other texts, one genre interacting with another, one genre is necessary antecedent for another" (Swales, 2004: 18) or as Counine (in Fairclough, 1992: 34) called it "separating an interior and an exterior". Fairclough (1992: 47) and Hyatt (2005: 528) use the term *interdiscursivity*. As it can be seen below intertextuality may take various forms.

Table1.3 **Types of Intertextuality** (adapted from Flowerder, 2013: 145)

Type of intertextuality	**Definition**	**Source**
Manifest intertextuality = Horizontal	Using quotation, citation and paraphrase	Fairclough (1992) Kristeva (1986)
Constitutive intertextuality or Vertical intertextuality	Merging of prior texts in new texts which may assimilate, contradict, or ironically echo them	Fairclough (1992) Kristeva (1986)
Functional intertextuality	A text being part of a larger system of texts dealing with a particular issue	Devitt (1991)

All these types of intetextuality are interconnected, although the lecture as a genre is mostly characterized by *manifest intertextuality* when the lecturer quotes the authors he refers to in his lecture, paraphrases or generalizes the citations of others, thus manifesting their ideas in discourse and projecting their identities in his text. *Constitutive intertextuality* in a lecture discourse may be observed when the speaker exemplifies several contradicting one to another authors, for example, or quotes something ironically. Since the course usually contains consequent lectures, *functional intertextuality* may also be observed, when the lecturer continues a new lecture with the use of information from the previous one.

Finally, the interconnected nature of the concepts of interdiscursivity and intertextuality relating to the academic lecture is worth mentioning:

"When preparing lectures, speakers often draw from texts written by others and refer to these explicitly during the lecture itself. While speaking, they may make reference to various written texts, such as a textbooks, handouts, overhead slides or writing on the chalkboard. Thus, formal written texts are transformed into spoken discourse of a more conversational and interactive nature, thus rendering their concepts more accessible to learners." (Crawford Camiciottoli, 2007: 51)

Another important feature of the academic lecture genre is *interdisciplinarity*. It is fully applicable in the context of soft science lectures delivered in English, since the lecturer is not only a subject expert but also a language researcher – one who is obliged to make mental notes on terminology – looking for the explanations and/or translations of concepts, thinking about the appropriate formulation of sentences in English. Moreover, lectures are always interdisciplinary because there is no science that is purely homogenous. Most soft science (Hyland, 2005a) lectures incorporate topics from other disciplines, for example, the subject Intercultural Communication may include information of such subjects as History, Linguistics, Anthropology, Geography, Economics, Social Psychology, Communication, Information Technologies, Globalization and others.

1.4.1 Macro - Structure of an Academic Lecture

It has been admitted (Wijasuriya, 1982; Lebauer, 1984; Chaudron and Richards, 1986, Flowerdew, 2011, 2013) that the inability to recognize macro-structure of a lecture by non-anglophone speakers is seen as one of the main problems of non-native speakers in understanding lectures since this facilitates better understanding, planning and delivery of the lecture to the target audience. The present subchapter aims at eliciting theoretical findings on structuring an academic lecture through the overview of the rhetorical and move analysis of Systemic Functional School of genre studies and English for Special Purposes genre studies and to create the model most suitable for the structural analysis of the academic lecture discourse.

As it has been said above the university lecture discourse is neither purely monological, nor fully dialogical. However, it is oriented towards the audience and it expects the audience interaction. The structural analysis of lecture extracts can allow finding out the successes and possible reasons of failures of the lecturer-student interaction in the course of a lecture.

The Systemic Functional Linguistics that laid the groundwork for the studies of spoken language within the tradition of Discourse Analysis has described the classroom discourse that deals with the interactions between the teacher and individual students in school settings (Sinclair, 1972) as a series of three-part exchanges: Initiation – Response – Feedback (IRF), which contain 21 functional moves, for example, framing, focusing and answering. Coulthard (1992), Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, 2002) studied the classroom interaction and developed the Discourse Analysis (DA) model to analyse spoken discourse that is also known as the Birmingham model or, at the level of *exchange*, the Initiation-Response-Follow-up structure (IRF). They initially differentiated two ranks: *utterance* and *exchange*, where "*utterance* was defined as everything said by one speaker before another began to speak, and *exchange* as two or more utterances" (Coulthard, 1995: 2). Following Bellack, Kliebard, Hyman and Smith (1966), later they added another category *move* to describe the structure of exchanges, because a two-way exchange is not always the case, often "moves combine to form utterances which in turn combine to form exchanges" Coulthard (ibid.: 3).

A three layer structure of classroom interaction functions as follows: *initiation* by the teacher, followed by a *response* from the learner, followed by *feedback*. The boundaries in the lesson were indicated by the functional words 'right', 'well', 'good', 'OK', 'now', which occurred in the speech of all teachers (Sinclair and Coulthard , ibid.: 3).

The term *frame* was used to mark off the "settling-down time" (ibid.), (such as *now, now then*); *focus* was used to denote "metastatements about the discourse", which are statements about the statement. The term metastatement can be interchangeable with the concept *metadiscourse* – that is linguistic features commenting on the content of the text (Hyland, 2005a, 2009).

Other terminology introduced by Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid.) included *transaction, lesson, period* and *act*. The final DA model contained the ranking scale of four components in descending order of hierarchy: *transaction*, *exchange*, *move* and *act*. Thus, the structure of transaction by Sinclair and Coulthard (ibid.) consisted of the units of exchanges, exchange units of moves, and move units of acts. The model has evolved and expanded (Coulthard and Montgomery (1981), Sinclair and Brazil (1982), and Sinclair and Coulthard (1995)) to allow the application of less-structured discourse.

The IRF model is perfect for the analysis of everyday speech and classroom talk, but since the traditional academic speech, which is the object of the present study has lengthy episodes of lecturer speaking with some interruptions for questions and has a more complex structure, this model cannot be considered as the only one or the most appropriate for the analysis of lecture discourse. It can be used to observe interactive parts where speakers' roles (lecturer - student) are equally divided.

Research on move analysis was also conducted by the representatives of ESP school. Swales (1990) and Bhatia (2013) who studied the interconnection of "communicative purposes" and properties of texts and claimed that people who belong to the same discourse community and regularly participate in some genre "share similar communicative purposes" (Flowerdew, 2013: 146) that are expressed in a series of "staged" moves. The CARS model ('Create A Research Space') by Swales (1990) who looked at academic research article introductions and attributed to *moves* and *steps* the characteristics of being 'obligatory or optional', 'sequencing', and even 'embedded one within another' (ibid.: 141) Swales's model is represented by three stable 'moves' and 'steps' which serve as sub-moves. He described texts as a sequence of rhetorical moves: Establishing a territory (Move 1), Establishing a niche (Move 2), Occupying the niche (Move 3) with the corresponding steps/sub-moves (for example, Move 1 including *Claiming centrality, Making topic generalization(s), Reviewing items of previous research*).This model is applicable to professional and academic texts and it has been adapted to teaching research papers. We consider that the CARS model is suitable for the analysis and development of written texts, however, it is not very applicable to the analysis of spoken academic discourse that is less rigid, and less structured and can have more variations in style.

One of the possibilities of investigating the structure of an academic lecture is to look at the six phases proposed by a SFL genre school representative Young (1994), who did research of a corpus of lectures, divided them into two phases (metadiscoursal and non-metadiscoursal) and identified six recurring lecture 'phases' based on language choices: *Discourse structuring, Conclusion, Evaluation, Interaction, Content and Example phases.* They were developed on the basis of three situational functions (ideational, interpersonal and textual) which was influenced by Halliday's (2000) situational factors of field, tenor and mode.

- Discourse structuring phase – aims at indicating the way or direction that the lecture is going to take. This phase recurs frequently throughout the lecture, the lecturer indicates new directions of the lecture.

- Conclusion phase – the lecturer summarizes points that he has made throughout the discourse. As Wu (2013: 1706) pointed out, “the frequency of this phase is determined by the number of new points made in any particular discourse”;
- Evaluation phase – evaluation of material; the lecturer reinforces each of the moves by evaluating the information transmitted. Lecturers realize it by showing the listeners their personal agreement or disagreement;
- Interaction phase – lecturers maintain the contact with the audience. This is realized through the dialogue with the students, questions and pauses;
- Content phase – reflects the purpose of the lecture and transmits theoretical information. “In this phase theories, models, and definitions are presented to the listeners” (Wu, 2013:1708);
- Example phase – explains theoretical concepts through concrete examples, familiar to students.
- Flowerdew (1994: 13) analysed academic discourse and concluded on the basis of the findings of Murphy and Candlin (1977) that although lectures are basically monologues in comparison to school lessons, they do have a number of interactive acts that are characteristic to the latter. Flowerdew (ibid.) proposed the following elements relevant to lectures:
- *marker / discourse marker* (language elements used to move from one theme to another or from one part of discourse to another), e.g., well, right, now;
- *starter* (lexical-grammatical elements used to initiate, start the theme) e.g. Let'*s move to … Let's begin with…*
- *informative* (explanation or definition provided by a lecturer), e.g. Individualism is characterized by interests of an individual put higher than collective interests;
- *aside* (words spoken so as not to be heard by others present), e.g. “running out of blackboard here“ (Flowerdew: ibid.);
- *metastatement* (a statement giving information about another statement);
- *conclusion* (end of an idea, thought or theme summarized by the speaker).

All these interactive features can be encountered in the course of the academic discourse within the genre of the academic lecture. They assist students in lecture processing.

A successful overview of the formal structure of the academic lecture has been presented by Murtuza and Athanasiou (2010: 607), which is illustrated below in Figure 1.4. Thus, the lecture is made up of three themes: type, style and structure. The lecture may be of the expository (the lecture where the lecturer "lectures a lot"), interactive (where the student-to-student interaction is encouraged) and case-study (where the problem-solving strategy is applied) styles. The examples of styles may include: reading, conversational and rhetorical (they are discussed later in the subchapter on lecturing styles).

Davis (1993: 100) provided tools for organizing the lecture and suggested arranging "the course topics thematically, chronologically, spatially, in ascending or descending order, by cause and effect or problem and solution, or according to some other conceptual rationale":

- *Topical*, e.g. a course examines some theory / theories;
- *Causal*, e.g. a course explores various factors that affect something;
- *Sequential, e.g.* a course covers some logical sequence of events;
- *Symbolic or graphic*, e.g. the lecturer uses visual aids projecting them on the screen;
- *Structural*, e.g. the lecturer describes some processes in the consistent format;
- *Problem-solution*, e.g. a problem is raised, the solution is offered.

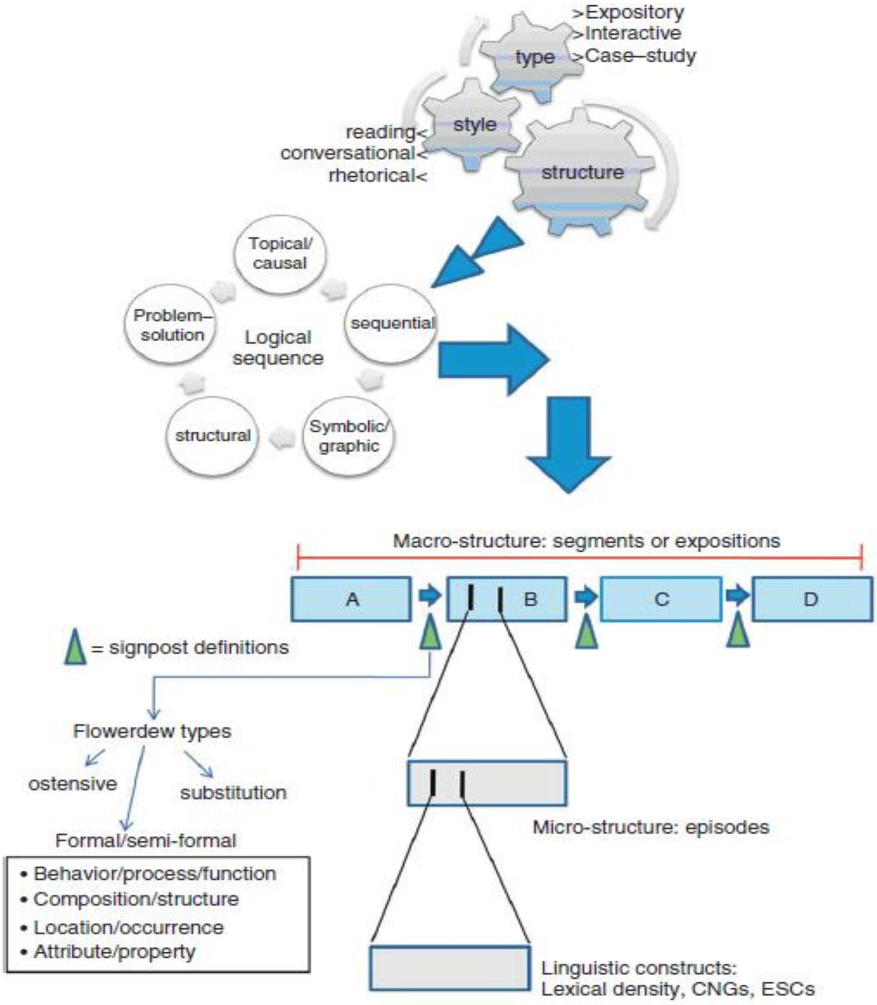


Figure 1.2 **An Overview of the Formal Structure of an Academic Lecture** (Murtuza and Athanasiou, 2010:607)

The structure of a lecture consists of the elements of the macro-structure (A-D) that are called segments or expositions. The expositions are marked by "signposts" (Flowerdew, 2006: 354). A lecturer usually establishes several points to be taken away during the lecture. Each of the intervals should be marked by a change of pace or theme that is achieved by the use of "signposts". In Flowerdew's study (1992: 209-212), there are four types of signpost definitions:

- *Formal*: Precise definitions, usually following the "structure of term, class, and distinguishing characteristic(s)... 'An A is a B which is C'"
- *Semi-formal*: A definition which does not mention the class of the word and which presents a less precise meaning but the key characteristic(s)
- *Substitution*: A word, word-part, or phrase that fits one of three types: synonym, paraphrase, or derivation
- *Ostensive*: A definition "is performed by indicating some visual stimulus such as an object, a photograph, or a diagram"

Formal and semi-formal definitions may be further classified into behaviour/process/function, composition/structure, location/occurrence, attribute/property (Flowerdew, 1992: 210)

Flowerdew's expositions and *episodes* correspond to *moves* and *steps* (Coulthard, Sinclair, 1975; Swales, 1990; Thompson 1994; Lee, 2009). The present research will use the terms *moves* and *steps.* For example, a lecture in marketing might be interactive in type, with a conversational style, topical or sequential logical sequence and may consist of four moves: warming up, setting up the lecture framework, putting the topic in context and concluding.

Thompson (1994) used Swales's (1990) rhetorical move analysis to describe the structure of lecture introductions. She noted that lecturers appear to be ''aware of the need to set up a framework for the lecture discourse and provide a context for the new information to come" (Thompson, 1994: 182), however, she pointed out that lecture introductions seem to lack a preferred rhetorical order and also vary in their move structure. She concluded that rather than having a typical move structure, lecture introductions are a largely unpredictable mix of two discrete functions - *setting up the lecture framework* and *putting the topic in context* and their respective subfunctions (for example, announcing a topic). Thompson (ibid.) proposed a very clear model for the lecture introduction, but it did not include enough information about the introduction of speech and functions because she was mostly concerned with the development of listening to lectures.

The exploratory study by Lee (2009) who investigated the impact of class size on the rhetorical move structures and lexico-grammatical features of academic lecture introductions is of interest to our study because he extended Thompson's model and proposed three moves, including *Warming up, Setting up the lecture framework* and *Putting the topic in context*. As we can see from the figure below, he subdivided the moves into the steps.

Move 1: Warming up
Step 1: Making a digression
Step 2: Housekeeping
Step 3: Looking ahead

Move 2: Setting up the lecture framework
Step 1: Announcing the topic
Step 2: Indicating the scope
Step 3: Outlining the structure
Step 4: Presenting the aims

Move 3: Putting the topic in context
Step 1: Showing the importance of the topic
Step 2: Relating "new" to "given"
Step 3: Referring to earlier lectures

Figure 1.3 **Move Structure** (Lee, 2009)

The researcher marked each step whether it is obligatory or optional depending on the size of the audience. We will use Lee's model in the present research without accounting for the number of students since all the moves were present in the course of observing the lectures, irrespective of the group size. According to Lee (ibid.), Move 1 acts as an introduction to the forthcoming lecture, giving students time to attend to different matters that may or may not be related to the current lecture. Step 1 *Making a digression* allows the lecturer to offer students "general course information and course-related asides (or digressions) (ibid.: 46). Digressions are often unconscious techniques used by lecturers to lighten up the content of the lecture, for example, self-mention, joking. As Crawford Camiciottoli (2007) puts it: "asides or digressions serve as a way for lecturers to create a relaxed environment and maintain a positive lecturer–audience relationship." Step 2 *Housekeeping* may provide information about organizational issues, the lecture that is not going to take place or is postponed; step 3 *Looking ahead* may be connected with the future actions, for example, instructions to read some texts to foster the course understanding, to prepare for the test or exam.

Move 2 is concerned with the introduction of the topic of the lecture realized through step 1 *Announcing the topic*, step 2 *Indicating the scope*, step 3 *Outlining the structure* and step 4 *Presenting the aims*. As the names suggest, step 1 may deal with announcing the theme, step 2 with talking in general about the scope of the lecture, step 3 may provide the plan of the presentation and step 4 would give goals of the lecture. Lee (ibid.: 48) noted that these three steps in move 2 are messier, are not always in a 'linear sequence', and are often sequenced in reverse order. The author of the present research agrees with this through the personal observation of lecture sequencing. Aims (step 4) may be presented before the outline of the structure (step 3) or indicating the scope (step 2). Sometimes lecturers skip some steps from move 2, for example, *Outlining the structure*.

Move 3 *Putting the topic in the context* corresponds to the body of the written text, the lecturer prepares students for understanding the new information and activating the existing knowledge, the steps of move 3 may also occur in different order, and some of them may be even missing, "no sequential pattern is implied by the numbering of the steps" (ibid.: 49). Step 1 as the name suggests aims at proving the newsworthiness, importance and necessity of the lecture topic pertaining to the course. Using step 2, the lecturer relates the given new theme to the old theme of the present or previous lecture or connects the currently-described topic to the future theme; step 3 is often used to connect the new information to the previously acquired information in the previous lectures.

The author of the present thesis was interested in analysing the structure of the whole lecture, including its introductory part, main text and conclusion, however, no research of structuring lecture conclusions has been found, therefore a model on the basis of the one introduced by Lee (ibid.) and considering Cheng's strategies in lecture closings (2011), was worked out. A corpus-based approach to the closings of academic lectures was adapted. Cheng distinguished three main rhetorical stages of lecture closings including 15 strategies that were categorized into 12 teacher strategies (for example, indicating the end of lecture, asking if students have any questions, calling for attention and others), and three student strategies (raising questions about course-related issues, raising questions about lecture content and responding to the lecturer).

The author of the present thesis did the move analysis of randomly chosen seven lectures in soft sciences– three lectures were recorded in Saint Petersburg State University of Economics and transcribed by the author and four downloaded from YouTube – one from Saïd Business School of the University of Oxford and three from Yale Courses that were available online for free access. The purpose was to explore a typical structure of a lecture. To attain this, the author based her model on the three-move model of Lee and added additionally Move 4 called *Concluding the lecture*, the function of which is to indicate the end of a lecture or to come to a conclusion of lecture content. Thus the structure of the lecture looked as follows:

Move 1: Warming up
Step 1: Making a digression
Step 2: Housekeeping
Step 3: Looking ahead

Move 2: Setting up the lecture framework
Step 1: Announcing the topic
Step 2: Indicating the scope
Step 3: Outlining the structure
Step 4: Presenting the aims

Move 3: Putting the topic in context
Step 1: Showing the importance of the topic
Step 2: Relating "new" to "given"
Step 3: Referring to earlier lectures

Move 4: Concluding the lecture
Step 1: Referring to the audience
Step 2: Looking ahead
Step 3: Housekeeping
Step 4: Summarizing the content and concluding the lecture

Figure 1.4 **Move Structure of an Academic Lecture** (based on Move Structure by Lee (2009)

Move/ Step	Name	Communicative Function	Extracts from the Corpus of University Lectures (Recorded in SPBGUE and from Free Internet Resources)
Move 1		**Warming up**	**An introduction to the forthcoming lecture**
Step 1	Making a digression (*)	General course information and course-related asides (e.g., assignments or class hours)	*Lecture 2* [Good morning, everyone. Today we start our course on Development of marketing and services. Ok? So, as you already know [pause] we will have classes throughout the week [pause], six days, four hours a day. [pause] Ahh, and, well, my name is A…G…, I hope you have noticed it yet, I am from Spain…and I was actually, I was I was born in this city (points at the slide)] *Lecture 5* [On the 11th of November you will give a short presentation… you can think about it in the beginning of the course… from 12 to 15 minutes… you can present it as a group. First of all, you are welcome to give any topic… you think it will be interesting for others… I won't limit you… you are welcome to present it… I have a suggestion of course.]
Step 2	Housekeeping (*)	Information about organizational issues; Explaining non-course-related matters	*Lecture 5* [As you know we will be studying just for a week, not longer and there will be one class on the 10th of November, which will be a visit to the museum. Did you get it already? Did you get this understanding? So, on the 10th of November our International Department will take you to the museum which is called Grand Maket Russia. If you visited it already, that's fine, just tell the international department …]
Step 3	Looking ahead (*)	Indicating the plan for the future (e.g., course content or activities for the next class)	*Lecture 1* [All right. Let's start. So, as I already told you the second part of the session will be a practical case. This is again as you already know is going to be for at least on Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday and Friday.]
Move 2	**Setting up the lecture framework**		**Introduction of the topic of the lecture**
Step 1	Announcing the topic	Announcing the theme	*Lecture 2* [So, what I usually do when I start my courses, no matter which course I am teaching, the first class is what I call "the background". The background isn't related directly to service development, but it's a background… it is common to every single course, every single field. And this background…ah…it consists of three things. Ok? People, economy and technology. So, I will go to them, again that at the micro level. So I always need this information, because I think it's important. For later on. Because you will be developing services in my course and you need to keep this in mind. Ok? By the way, my all courses are all about interaction. And I really don't enjoy, you know talking for one hour and a half. I bet you don't enjoy this either, so I am hoping to have a discussion in all my classes.]

			Lecture 4 [This is Financial Markets, and I'm Robert Shiller. This is a course for undergraduates. It doesn't presume any prerequisites except the basic Intro Econ [Introductory Economics] prerequisite. It's about -- well, the title of the course is Financial Markets.
Step 2	Indicating the scope	Talking in general about the scope of the lecture	*Lecture 4* [By putting "markets" in the title of the course, I'm trying to indicate that it's down to earth, it's about the real world, and, well, to me it connotes that this is about what we do with our lives. It's about our society. So, you might imagine it's a course about trading since it says "markets," but it's more general than that. Finance, I believe, is, as it says in the course description, a pillar of civilized society. It's the structure through which we do things, at least on a large scale of things. It's about allocating resources through space and time, our limited resources that we have in our world. It's about incentivizing people to do productive things. It's about sponsoring ventures that bring together a lot of people and making sure that people are fairly treated, that they contribute constructively and that they get a return for doing that. And it's about managing risks, that anything that we do in life is uncertain. Anything big or important that we do is uncertain. And to me that's what financial markets is about. To me, this is a course that will have a philosophical underpinning, but at the same time will be very focused on details.]
Step 3	Outlining the structure	Providing the plan of the presentation	Has not been noticed at any lecture
Move 3	**Putting the topic in context**		**Preparing students for understanding the new information and activating the existing knowledge**
Step 1	Showing the importance of the topic	Showing newsworthiness, importance and necessity of the lecture topic pertaining to the course.	*Lecture 2* [So, I have the map of the world in here and I would like to ask you at the very general level to look at the trends happening in the world at the moment. And I am talking about really big macro trends. What's going on in the world? Which things are happening in the world in the really general level?]
Step 2	Relating "new" to "given"	Relating the given new theme to the old theme of	*Lecture 1* [Hello. Have you read the case/ I was at the meeting today of our department. … we should discuss the case… so, you have this story at facebook and you have this story, printed story… Please tell me who has read the story… Ok, so very good we have already discussed with you … **so we are**

		the present lecture to the previous lecture	**talking about** the strategy… let's start…] *Lecture 7* […it is what we talked about in the first couple of our sessions together especially in the discussion about jobs to be done is a big difference between understanding for this correlated with the outcome versus what causes it and at this point we just have correlation …but if it's a strong or robust correlation then you'll take that in go back and look at other phenomena and you can predict if this is a good correlation what you're gonna see and if in fact you see what you predicted you'd see you might feel good as a researcher but if you leave what you're trying to do …]
Step 3	Referring to earlier lectures	Connecting the new information to the previously acquired information	*Lecture 7* [Right good evening everybody. It's a pleasure on behalf of this business school to welcome Clayton Christensen to his third lecture … yesterday he talked to introduce the concept to the pandas thumb in organizations …evolutionally hangovers whose purpose was completely forgotten and I thought of Oxford University and some of those features he talked about that in each lecture he's been provocative stimulating and fun and that's final lecture …] *Lecture 3* [Hello. You are very kind to come back for the second time. Am… Today I think it will be a different part than last night…. I thought about last night staff a lot…, a part of the [charter] here for me is to give a talk that I haven't given before I've written about. And… so these are the thoughts that I have made and …I would love to have you listen to it mmm and when we have discussing toward the end …have you been able criticize my thinking or …reinforce my thinking if you think that there is something here that is useful…]
Move 4		**Concluding the lecture**	**Indicating the end of a lecture / Coming to a conclusion of lecture content**
Step 1	Referring to the audience	Asking if students have questions; Answering students' questions; Calling for attention; Raising questions or issues for discussion.	*Lecture 2* [So, it will be important if you raise your hand and I'll tell you, please do talk, if you say your name out loud. So, it helps me remember it.]
		Indicating the plan for	*Lecture 6* [There's an interesting book by Robert Frank, I don't have it on the reading list, called Richistan, who talks about what wealthy people are like these days. And if you read his book sometimes they are

Step 2	Looking ahead (*)	the future (e.g., course content or activities for the next class).	disgustingly rich and spending the money on silly things. But there is an idea among many of them that they are going to do their good things for the world. Because I think many of you will do these things, I want to think about the purpose that you'll find in finance. So, that's just the closing thought. I'll see you again on Wednesday. But the closing thought is that this is about making your purposes happen. OK.]
Step 3	Housekeeping (*)	Information about organizational issues, Explaining non-course-related matters.	*Lecture 5* [As you know we will be studying just for a week, not longer and there will be one class on t he 10th of November, which will be a visit to the museum. Did you get it already? Did you get this understanding? So, on the 10th of November our International Department will take you to the museum which is called Grand Maket Russia. If you visited it already, that's fine, just tell the international department …]
Step 4	Summarizing the content and concluding the lecture	Summarizing the content of a lecture; Summarizing or reviewing key points; Indicating the end of a lecture; Coming to a conclusion of lecture content.	*Lecture 4* [Let me just recap. The two themes are that independence leads to the law of large numbers, and it leads to some sort of stability. Either independence through time or independence across stocks. So, if you diversify through time or you diversify across stocks, you're supposed to be safe. But that's not what happened in this crisis and that's the big question. And then it's fat-tails, which is kind of related. But it's that distributions fool you. You get big incredible shocks that you thought couldn't happen, and they just come up with a certain low probability, but with a certain regularity in finance.] Lecture 3 [And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but just it happens to us and we need to be more conscious about it. Anyway, the other two are even worse (the audience is laughing), but we can talk about that another time. If I can go down here and if you guys have questions can you throw that on me (applauses).]

Table 1.4 **The Model of the Move Structure of University Lectures**

*This step may occur throughout the lecture in different moves.

Lecture 1 “Corporate Social Responsibility”, November 11, 2015, SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg

Lecture 2 “Development of Marketing and Services”, October 19, 2015, SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg

Lecture 3 “Clayton Christensen on Management - Clarendon Lectures”, June 11, 2014, Saïd Business School, University of Oxford

Lecture 4 “Financial Crisis of 2007-2008 and its Connection to Probability Theory”, April, 2011, Financial Markets, 2011, Yale Courses, Free Internet Access

Lecture 5 “Russian Civilization”, November 2, 2015 SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg

Lecture 6 “Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes, Financial Markets” (2011) (ECON 252), Yale Courses, Free Internet Access

Lecture 7 “Clayton Christensen about the Process of Research - Clarendon Lectures” 12th June 2014, Yale Courses, Free Internet Access

1.4.2 Lecturing Styles and Multi-Functional Nature of a Modern Academic Lecture

The lecture "remains the central instructional activity" (Flowerdew, 1994: 1). Academic lecture discourse is a complex speech process, which involves communication rather than reading a text. The lecturer encodes the information which is passed on to the student. In the course of a lecture, subject teachers provide output of their theoretical and practical knowledge, use specialized lexicon and professional jargon, demonstrate their ability to construct sentences, show attitude to the theme, express their point of view, argue, summarize and conclude.

Karpińska-Musiał (2009: 7) enumerates the following features of a lecture which remain prone to contextual differentiation: linguistic etiquette, audience reactions, length of speech, physical environment, type of a lecture hall/room, level of stress, modesty topos and its adequate application, style of delivery (spoken/read/presentation/using notes), eye-management, non-verbal behaviour, paralinguistic features of language (tone of voice, loudness, pitch, pace, pausing and timing, clear articulation).

The academic lecture delivered in the English language is likely to develop students' micro and macro skills of the target language. The style of lecture chosen by a lecturer is dependent on the purpose, subject, theme, knowledge of students and their schemata. A lecturer chooses and applies the style which is the most appropriate to the conditions of time, the number of listeners, and subject area. The taxonomy of micro skills worked out by Richards (1983: 199) defines the skills that are important for successful academic listening comprehension.

They include the following:

1. the ability to identify purpose and scope of lecture
2. ability to identify topic of lecture and follow topic development
3. ability to identify relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples)
4. ability to identify role of discourse markers in signalling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines)
5. ability to infer relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion)
6. ability to recognize key lexical items related to subject/topic
7. ability to deduce meanings of words from context
8. ability to recognize markers of cohesion (discourse competence)
9. ability to recognize function of intonation to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key)

10. ability to detect attitude of speaker toward subject matter
11. ability to follow different modes of lecturing: spoken, audio, audio-visual
12. ability to follow lecture despite differences in accent and speed
13. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned
14. familiarity with different registers: written vs. colloquial
15. ability to recognize irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings
16. ability to recognize function of non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude
17. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn-taking, clarification requests)
18. ability to recognize instructional learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions)

The quality of understanding lectures depends on lecturers' competences to deliver information. It is self-evident that the speech of the lecturer should be coherent, precise and cohesive. Subject teachers are to be competent to state the purpose of the lecture, to be capable of generalizing, making hypotheses, initiating ideas, making the right choice of lexical items, inducing meanings of vocabulary, choosing suitable intonation to signal the shift of themes in the lecture, demonstrating their attitude to the topic, being able to apply various lecturing styles, being able to use instruction – to suggest, recommend, advise and instruct.

Although micro skills are important for successful lecture comprehension, the quality of understanding lectures depends on the lecturers' skills to deliver information. The author of the present research tried to match the above-mentioned micro skill needed for successful listening comprehension to the needs of lecturers in order to deliver coherent, precise and cohesive lectures. The following can be mentioned:

1. the ability to state the purpose and scope of lecture
2. ability to state the topic of lecture and follow topic development
3. ability to provide relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples)
4. ability to properly use discourse markers in signalling structure of a lecture (e.g., conjunctions, adverbs, gambits, routines)
5. ability to establish relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion)
6. ability to use key lexical items related to subject/topic
7. ability to explain meanings of words in context
8. ability to use markers of cohesion (discourse competence)

9. ability to vary intonation in order to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace, key)
10. ability to express personal attitude toward subject matter
11. familiarity with different styles of lecturing: formal, conversational, read, unplanned
12. familiarity with different registers: written vs. colloquial
13. ability to avoid irrelevant matter: jokes, digressions, meanderings
14. ability to use non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude
15. knowledge of classroom conventions (e.g., turn-taking, clarification requests)
16. knowledge of instructional learner tasks (e.g., warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions).

(Micro skills needed for lecturers to deliver coherent, precise and cohesive lectures, based on the taxonomy of micro skills important for successful academic listening comprehension worked out by Richards (1983)).

In other words, if lecturers are aware of all the above-mentioned micro skills and are able to apply them in the course of their lectures, it can guarantee higher quality of lectures and better lecture comprehension by students.

A contemporary academic lecture differs much from what it was several decades ago. The former lectures were mostly conducted in the form of a 'reading style' (Dudley-Evans and Johns, 2007: 148), where a lecturer was reading a lecture from the notes previously prepared at home or delivering it as if reading, whereas students had a more passive role in taking notes, interrupting a lecturer from time to time in order to clarify concepts and to check understanding. Bereday's and Mason's (1994: 175) studies on lecture styles identified 'talk-and-chalk style', which was characterized by lecturer's delivering the material with the accompanied use of blackboard. Students were mainly involved in organizing information in the way of note-taking. Goffman (1981: 171) distinguished three modes of lectures – 'memorization', 'aloud reading' and 'fresh talk'. 'Memorization' applies to a lecturing style where a lecturer does not read his/her script, but follows it closely and, thus, it is almost identical to 'aloud reading'. 'Fresh talk' may be characterized by free speech of a lecturer on the topic with the use of notes. Frederick (1986: 45) refers to a 'participatory lecture', which is close to a discussion.

Morrison (in Jordan, 1989: 153), studied science lectures and divided them into two kinds: formal and informal, where the formal style was "close to spoken prose", whereas the informal one was "high in informational content, but not necessarily in high formal register".

With the advance of modern technologies and extensive use of Power Point, in which a lecturer structures his speech according to the logical plan of his presentation in slides, several other characteristics of lectures should be mentioned. The most important shift in the lecture is that it is not a purely spoken discourse. By being accompanied with text from slides on the screen, lectures have 'multi-faceted nature' (Swales,1995 in Crawford Camiciottoli, 2007: 16), where, on the one hand, they serve the function of the 'transmission and dissemination of knowledge' with the use of all professional terminology and concepts (Merlini (1983) in Camiciotolli, 2007: 24), which is more characteristic of written genres of academic writing and; on the other hand, a lot from dialogic devices can be found, for instance, metadiscursive expressions, imperatives, argumentative sequences.

According to Benson (in Camiciotolli, 2007: 50), lectures are becoming less formal and more interactive with the role of the lecturer as more of a 'facilitator' and a 'guide' with "open style" lecturing which allows for better comprehension. If a lecturer provides students with handouts of his presentation, the role of note-taking decreases, since students are preoccupied with following the speaker rather than writing notes. Both the complex nature of the lecture and the interactive approach may be a cause of difficulty for non-native English speaking students studying in English. The fact that students possess ready-made handouts can also have a dubious effect of correct notes made by a lecturer and lack of personal notes that are an integral part of the study process since they foster memorization and improve studies.

Consequently, one of the tasks of the empirical part of the research was to distinguish what lecturing styles are mostly preferred by students and what lecturing styles academic personnel choose in their work, as well as to recognize the role of note-taking in the lecturing process.

1.5 Note-Taking

Note-taking in the university lecture setting is an integral skill of students; it is "a mathemagenic activity", that is the activity that gives birth to learning, facilitates learning (Rothkopf, 1996), "a crucial component of the educational experience" (Dunkanel and Davy, 1989) used to retain information for recall on a test and to promote successful material acquisition. However, the skills of "taking" or "making" notes are often ignored by students who are not always competent in creating coherent notes and by academic personnel who avoid training their students on how to make notes, "restricting note-taking to a self-study skill" of students (Al-Musalli, 2015: 1). For a long time note-taking was ignored as an important skill, although studies have shown in the 21st

century that it requires separate investigation. Note-taking is an important "study skill" as noted by Tabberer who cited Devine (1987: 4-5): "those competencies associated with acquiring, recording, organizing, synthesizing, remembering and using information and ideas". Marshall and Rowland (1998), Chambers and Northedge (1997) differentiated between "note-taking" and "note-making" arguing that the first is done while listening, whereas the second while reading, according to them, these two terms basically mean the same, since they involve "listing briefly, in an abbreviated form for the purpose of speed, the most crucial facts, arguments, or ideas found in a heard or written text" (Al-Musalli, 2015: 44-45). Both terms will be used in the course of the present paper identically.

It should be noted that students who study in their native language (L1) may experience less difficulties in taking notes than students who study in English, and since the target audience of the present research are international students studying in English, it is essential to investigate this topic.

As it was noted by Dunkel (1988: 11) "for those attending lectures given in their native language (Ll), taking notes is the habitual reaction. Many foreign/ second language (L2) students resort to this same metamemory strategy when faced with the task of listening to a lecture given in a language other than their native language. Learning how to listen and take notes in L2 is, in fact, perceived to be "a question of academic survival" for those non-native English speaking students who intend to pursue academic degrees in English-speaking universities".

Apart from challenges of studies in non-vernacular languages, students may experience difficulties with fast-paced lectures, where they may have little or no skill in note-taking and it is unclear whether students' note-taking behaviour changes over the course of their studies.

The present subchapter aims at researching the prerequisites of successful note-taking by students, cognitive mechanisms involved in note-taking and the correlation of note-taking with listening skills; it describes both processes taking place while listening to a lecture by students and the possible strategies that students use to take notes, as well as explores the hindrances that prevent the successful record of lecture material. It is evident that taking notes does not depend only on students' abilities to listen and to take notes, but directly depends on lecturers' abilities and skills to deliver the information.

Note-taking as a skill has been used to promote the study process from the times when lectures started. In the Ancient times listeners made verbatim recordings of speeches made by philosophers and public speakers. Up to the introduction and development of technologies, such as computers, laptops, tablets, iPhones, dictaphones and other technical devices, notes were taken using pen and paper; today both pen and paper and laptop methods are used, which makes it necessary to investigate the positive and negative aspects of both methods and the possible means how lecturers can assist students in this.

Most research on listening and note-taking has been undertaken in a native-speaker context. Bligh (1972, 1980) and Beard and Hartley (1984) have examined the way information is presented in lectures, Gibbs (1981) and Brown (1983) have made recommendations for improving students' study skills.

Holes (1972) investigated the English language problems of non-native English speakers of university level in Birmingham and found that many students' problems were caused "by their inability to interpret either the speaker's intonation or stress, and their ignorance of colloquial expressions and changes of register." Morrison (1974) (quoted in Fahmy and Bilton, 1990: 106-107) has identified the following linguistic features of difficulty that overseas post-graduate students encounter: "the referential system (anaphora, cataphora; transition markers and logical connectors); lexis (especially idiom and nominalized groups) and phonology."

Ewer (1974: 41) mentioned three areas of difficulties students may encounter with note-taking: language and speech, concepts and mental 'set'. According to Ewer (ibid.), students may have difficulties in "identifying the oral forms of words" even though they may have good knowledge of core language of the subject they learn. As regards 'concepts', introduction of unfamiliar concepts or combinations of familiar concepts may create impediment to understanding and "adequate evaluation process". The problem with mental 'set' can be associated with the previous educational experience, where students could have been taught to over-simplify: "knowing what the speaker wants to say better than the speaker himself with consequent misapprehension of what in fact he really does say."

1.5.1. Interconnection of Listening and Note-Taking Skills

A number of researchers have studied students' notes as a means of insights into the listening comprehension process. Trzeciak and Mackay (1994: 20) have worked out listening note-taking strategies. "Unlike reading, you can't stop a lecture and review as you listen." They mention three stages of note – taking: pre-listening research, taking notes during the lecture and work with the notes after the lecture.

Rost (1990), Chela-Flores (1993), Field (1998), Al-Musalli (2001 and 2015) expressed the interconnection of listening and note-taking (NT) skills: "It is hard to think of effective notes without effective listening as the basic step" (Al-Musalli, 2015: 3). These two processes are mutually interdependent, as Al-Musalli (ibid.) stated "effective listening also depends on taking effective notes which is a way of saying that NT enhances concentration". The processes of listening and NT can be described as "decoding aural input" Al-Musalli (ibid.), and they involve listener's ability to make certain judgments and reply to them. These processes require lower-level decoding skills (or subskills). These skills have been developed on the basis of reading skills, since what applies to reading applies to listening. As it was stated by Rost (1990: 8), "although listening and reading are different decoding skills, that is aural versus visual, there are the cognitive strategies common to both." This assumption was explained by Chela-Flores (1993: 24) who stated that after a word is recognized, "the cognitive processes and the mental representations elicited by these two modes are the same".

Despite the similarities between the two above-mentioned skills, there are a number of differences between them. According to Al-Musalli (2015: 4), the reader has more control over the input than the listener, the reader can focus or stop on whatever part of the text he wants, which is impossible while listening, because the spoken discourse is a dynamic non-stop process. Speaking implies the physical presence of the speaker, which means that a listener hears the variation in pronunciation, dialect, idiolect; he is either positively or negatively affected by speakers' pauses, false starts and different discrepancies.

Munby (1978: 123-126) proposed the following set of skills necessary for listening:

- discriminating sounds in isolated word forms and in connected speech;
- discriminating stress patterns within words;
- understanding intonation patterns: use of tone in respect of tone variances;
- interpreting attitudinal meaning through pitch variance, pause, or tempo.

This categorization shows that before a student puts down information in a written form in the way of taking notes, he is obliged to discriminate and interpret words in the connected flow of speech, discriminate and understand intonation of lecturer's speech, as well as interpret the meaning of the speaker through pitch, intonation and pauses. Thus, NT skills are much more-complex multi-staged processes involving listening, comprehension and later writing skills.

Rost (1990: 152-153) proposed three categories of listening skills: skills emphasizing perception, skills emphasizing interpretation and enacting skills. Perception emphasizing skills involve "recognizing prominence within utterances", perceiving and deciphering strong and weak forms, identifying the use of stress and pitch in connected speech, adapting to speaker's variation. Skills emphasizing interpretation mean "deducing the meaning of unfamiliar items and ideas", recognizing the indicators of discourse, differentiating between main and supporting ideas, interpreting speaker's intention, whereas enacting skills are connected with making appropriate replies, providing feedback.

Al-Musalli (2015: 138-140) has developed the classification of listening skills and subskills, having based them on Gray's (1960), Ferguson's (1973) and Al-Jubouri's (1976) levels of reading subskills. The table below shows the literal, inferential, critical and creative levels of listening skills with explanations presented by Al-Musalli:

Table 1.5 **Classification of listening skills and subskills, Al-Musalli** (2015: 138-140)

The Literal Level	
Phonological skills	Control of the phonological system to discriminate the words that sound similar and phrases that differ; knowledge of intonation patters, uses of word and sentence stress, pitch, etc.
Syntactic skills	Recognition of basic grammatical structures and sentence types; focusing on whole parts of sentences and attending to grammatical relationship.
Lexical skills	Getting the direct meaning of words, phrases and sentences; concentrating on specific words and making appropriate choices of what they mean depending on context.
The Inferential Level	
Inferential skills	All types of inferences that the listener makes to understand the message: attitude, intentions, implications, motivations, purposes, making expectations and predictions of what will be said
Textual skills	Grasping the development of the text, the recognition of the main ides, details, cause and effect relationships, which require connecting between the parts of the text, recognizing cohesive devices, handling variation of style, tone and forms of speech, concentrating on details, comprehending the gist of what is said, organizing and sequencing ideas
The Critical Level	
	Making appropriate judgments about the message, the speaker's personality, topic and so forth, and judging how the purpose of the interaction is achieved.
The Creative Level	
	Handling verbal and non-verbal strategies and giving appropriate responses.

The four skills characteristic of listening are integral to the further NT process. The notetaker needs to differentiate between words, recognize the appropriate structure of a sentence, get the meaning of words, understand the attitude of the speaker towards the uttered, distinguish the key information from less important facts, comprehend the gist, make appropriate judgments about the message and to a lesser extent he needs to give response to the speaker.

1.5.2. The Role of Working Memory in the Note-Taking Process

Other significant studies that are necessary to mention are the role of working memory in the encoding and decoding of extended spoken academic discourse and external storage function of memory of university students who take notes.

DiVesta and Gray (1972 in Bui and Myerson, 2013: 12) argued that "note-taking does not just help by recording lecture information in order to restudy later"; it also "helps at the time of the lecture by promoting the encoding of information in ways that facilitate later retrieval".

Carrier (1983) introduced two hypotheses about note-taking - the *Encoding hypothesis* and the *External Storage hypothesis*. The audience of the first hypothesis was divided into *notetakers* and *listeners* (id est those who do not take notes). According to the researcher, notetakers attend carefully to avoid missing critical points; compare new information to stored information; translate lecturer's words into own words; create a larger structure for later use. Listeners in their turn daydream; read other material, doodle and lose concentration.

In accordance with the *External Storage hypothesis,* the real value of NT occurs during later review of the notes. The researcher enumerated the typical activities during NT: recording information in rote, verbatim fashion; copying, but not reacting to or processing information; recording as much as possible without discriminating between essential and nonessential information and during later review: reviewing and rehearsal of information; rewriting notes in own words; seeking clarification of some points and comparing prior knowledge with new knowledge. (Carrier 1983 in Dunkel, 1988: 15)

External Storage has been studied by Carter and Van Matre (1975), Fisher and Harris (1973), Thomas (1978), Barnett, DiVesta, and Rogozinski (1981) who demonstrated improved recall due to NT and rehearsal of the notes taken. Fisher and Harris concluded that NT serves both an encoding function and an external memory function. It was proved that a combination of taking and reviewing notes had maximum immediate and delayed recall. Some researchers (Barnett, DiVesta and Rogozinski, 1981; Howe, 1970) view the encoding function of NT as the more important of the two functions. They argue that too great a reliance on notes as an external memory device can result in inefficient learning if crucial encoding fails to take place.

Although both aspects of NT (external storage and encoding) are significant components, it is to be mentioned that the NT process is cognitively demanding since it requires students to multi-task, that is to do several things simultaneously – following the information, holding it in the memory, writing it down before it is forgotten and listening to the next portion of information. Working memory was mentioned (Baddeley, 1986, 2007; Baddeley, Chincotta and Adlam, 2001; Engle, Tuholski, Laughlin and Conway, 1999; Owen, McMillan, Laird and Bullmore, 2005; Baddeley's (1986, 2007); Unsworth and Engle, 2007; Bui and Myerson, 2013) as an important cognitive ability for lecture NT and has been defined as the "ability to temporarily hold and manipulate limited amounts of information" (Baddeley, 1986 in Bui and Myerson, 2013: 13). Although the concept of 'working memory' has been used in different ways by different researchers: cognitive neuroscientists, neurophysiologists, psychologists the present research mentions only a variety of functions pertinent to the use of memory in the course of lecture note-taking: storage, forgetting, transformation of temporarily stored information.

One of the most well-known models of working memory is Baddeley's model (1986; Baddeley& Hitch, 1974). It was proposed that the working memory system includes not only content-specific storage components but also a processing component (the central executive). The functions of a processing component include

- directing attention;
- inhibiting irrelevant information and/or actions;
- coordinating cognitive processes. (Baddeley, 2000 in Bui and Myerson, 2013: 13)

Cowan (1988, 1995), Unsworth and Engle (2007) have acknowledged that working memory of different people has individual differences. These differences are reflected in the "ability to retrieve information under situations of high interference". (Bui, Myerson, 2013: 14) It was argued that the amount of information that can be maintained in human's focus equals to four items (however it was not mentioned what was meant by an item; most probably scientists meant four concepts or four words.) These items are stored in the primary memory; however the additional items are retrieved from secondary memory. "Processing of each new sentence displaces the last word of the previous sentence from primary memory". (Daneman & Carpenter, 1980 in Bui and Myerson 2013; ibid.) People with better working memory ability have higher spans, they are able to better use cues to search secondary memory. On the basis of the previously mentioned findings, Bui and Myerson (ibid.) have revealed two ideas critical to understanding individual differences in note-taking:

- "the storage capacity of working memory is limited;
- working memory functions consist of not just temporary storage, but also the manipulation and/or transformation of what is stored, and the maintenance of temporarily stored information when attention is shifted to performance of other tasks."

Another important process that working memory and NT ability rely on (Bui and Myerson, 2013: 14 based on the previous studies of Baddeley, 1986, Case, Kurland and Goldberg, 1982, Turner and Engle, 1989) is task switching. When students take notes they have to switch back and forward between listening to a lecturer and writing down their notes, these two processes cannot be done simultaneously; in this case, they use another ability 'tasks-dual-task coordination' (Baddeley, 1986 in Bui and Myerson (2013: 14).

Overall, multiple abilities affect the working memory tasks during NT and involve "short-term memory tasks that focus on temporary storage ability, information-processing tasks that assess the ability to reorganize information, and complex span tasks that get the ability to multi-task while holding onto new information." (Bui and Myerson, ibid.)

1.5.3 Pen and Paper vs. Laptop Note-Taking. The Use of Power Point by Lecturers

Circumstances of contemporary lectures allow students to take notes in other ways than writing down. Students have learnt, although it is questionable whether they had had a special training in it, to take notes on a computer, laptop or I-phone. The question of which method – typing or handwriting is most efficient and effective in the study process and which method is better for the use in the course of a lecture has been investigated by several researchers. For example, Bui, Myerson and Hale (2013) claimed that typing is usually faster than handwriting. The experiments made (ibid.) have shown that participants who chose typing using a computer rather than writing in hand had greater note-quantity, and it led to better memorization of lecture material. Friedman (2012: 13-15) compared both ways of NT and acknowledged that laptop use "may reduce the cognitive resources required for production" that may allow "additional resources dedicated to lecture comprehension". The researcher considers that people who have ease of taking laptop notes may take more notes than they would with pen and paper. The disadvantage seen by Friedman (2012: 13) that may arise in laptop NT is the fact that students may take verbatim notes rather than writing in their own words, as well as much is dedicated to “production and not enough to comprehension which can be detrimental to learning outcomes.” The advantage of handwriting method mentioned by Friedman (2012: 14) is that due to the limitations of handwriting speed, pen and paper NT discourages learners from writing everything the instructor says in favour of selective notes in their own words, “which encourages deeper processing and long-term retention of content”. Other authors (Mueller and Oppenheimer, 2014; Carter, Greenberg and Walker, 2017) consider that students who take notes by hand learn more than those who take notes using laptop. The author of the present research sees another drawback of typing in comparison to handwriting - not any thorough studies were made on how the computer and typing may affect the learning and memorization processes, although it was proved long ago that handwriting activates the left part of brain and fosters memorization, especially it affects memorization processes of those people who have the visual memory. “For adults, typing may be a fast and efficient alternative to longhand, but that very efficiency may diminish our ability to process new information.” (Konnikova, 2014)

It is to be mentioned that lecturers today use Power Point slides or other programmes to accompany their speech and provide students with lecture handouts which can have both positive and negative influence on learning outcomes. The advantage of handouts distributed before a lecture is that they may assist students in pre-lecture material review, although students are obliged to be proactive and responsible, which is not always the case in modern education; well-structured carefully-considered handouts (right amount of information, use of key concepts) may guide students and “make the proper associations between concepts” (Huxham, 2010 in Friedman, 2012: 18). The possible drawback of the use of handouts may be that students stop taking notes effectively since instructor’s notes may “constrain student engagement with the material making them less likely to make connections between idea units that they would have otherwise made with other note-taking procedures” (Peperanm Mayer, 1986 in Friedman, 2012: 16). Moreover, giving students access to such materials prevents them from making generative notes in their own words which can make the learning outcome inefficient and reduce “memory performance for a later test” (ibid.) The compromise could be to provide students with the materials that have only the key facts or concepts, so that they could make additional notes by themselves and, as a result, could be better involved in the information receiving process.

1.5.4 Note-Taking as a Separate Genre of Academic Writing

Note-taking of university lectures can be attributed to a separate genre of academic writing with its own distinguishing traits. Note-taking depends directly on students' listening skills and working memory, students taking notes can have individual traits of, e.g. speed of handwriting, work of short-term memory and memory span, skills to concentrate and keep attention to the lecture; however, in most cases notes will look like short, coherent texts, summarizing what the lecturer says. Using Van Dijk's (2008: 21) dimension, the following analysis of NT as a separate genre may be done: sphere (private) – how students make notes; mode (hand-written, typing on a computer, laptop, I-phone); main social domain (education) – in what circumstances note-taking takes place; institution or organization (university) – what exact educational establishment it is; participant roles and relations (students) – who the participants are and goals of NT process (for example, retain information of a lecture).

Thereby, taking notes is an individual process, carried out in the written form (mode) in the way of writing by hand or typing, realized in the university setting by students with the aim of retaining information of a lecture for its further use.

If students are aware of some techniques of recording information such as the use of 1) shortened forms of words and concepts, 2) abbreviations, 3) "verbal, graphic or numerical forms of concepts" (White, 1996: 90), 4) formulas, drawings, symbols, 5) specialized terminology pertinent to the specific field of studies, this can help them in processing lectures delivered at fast pace (speed) or with high density of new terminology, or when the lecturer uses such referential elements as anaphora or cataphora.

Students' note-taking depends on the quality of a lecture, including the linguistic competence of a lecturer, e.g. phonological peculiarities (such as, intonation, pitch, tone, idiolect, speed of lecture delivery, individual characteristics of the speaker), however, much depends on students' skills and abilities to process the information and to write it down. The following recommendations complied from the advice given by Fahmy and Bilton (1990), Rost (2002), Al-Musalli (2015), Haynes, McCarley and Williams (2015) could help students improve their note-taking skills:

- Use knowledge of the phonological system (intonation, stress, etc.) to discriminate between the sounds and make phonetic decisions;

- use knowledge of the grammatical structure to recognize specific structures in particular settings;
- get the direct meaning of words, phrases and sentences, infer meanings of words from context;
- identify and recognize main ideas, details, sequences, cause and effect;
- recognize cohesive devices, different styles (Al-Musalli, 2015: 10) , "lecturer's cues", for example, discourse markers and logical connectors. (Fahmy and Bilton, 1990: 124);
- make appropriate judgments, assumptions and evaluations about the message (Al-Musalli, ibid.);
- learn to discern important and unimportant information."By increasing the amount of relevant information and decreasing the amount of irrelevant information in their notes, students may increase the quality of their notes and potentially their academic performance" (Haynes, McCarley, Williams, 2015: 183);
- do not take verbatim notes, take structured generalized notes in your own words;
- eliminate whole sentences, write in phrases;
- use abbreviations, shortenings and special symbols; maintain the relationship between the main ideas and supporting details;
- "listen for structural cues (signpost/transition words, introduction, body and summary stages);
- look for non verbal cues (facial expression, hand and body signals);
- look for visual cues (copy the content of any visual aids used (e.g. Power Point slides), note references to names and sources);
- listen for phonological cues (voice change in volume, speed, emotion), handle verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies." (Rost, 2002:407 and Al-Musalli, ibid.)

The above-enumerated recommendations on NT are relevant if the content of the lecture, lecturer's discourse, the manner of speaker's presentation, the speed of lecture delivery are appropriate for the normal perception of the lecture by students. The empirical part of the present thesis (apart from other issues that are pertinent to the present research) looks at how and if the lecturer may affect students' note-taking process, whether the language competences of lecture may influence students' processes of comprehension, perception and note-taking.

Interim Summary of Chapter 1

The present chapter investigated Genre theories and the nature of a university (academic) lecture as a separate spoken pedagogical genre with its specific features, including note-taking as the process realized during the lecture for the better review of the lecture material by students.

It was concluded that the lecture is an example of a 'secondary spoken genre' (Bakhtin, 1986) with 'social exigence' (Miller, 1984), 'speech will' (Bakhtin, 1986) or 'social purpose' to provide new information by a lecturer to a group of students.

Using the findings of Systemic Functional Linguistics, lecture is a social, goal-oriented and staged activity (Martin, Rose, 2003; Martin, 2015) with a logical plan (stages), composed and realized by the lecturer. In the course of a lecture using specific linguistic features lecturers may fulfil different functions, e.g. recounting, narration, procedure, explanation, exposition or discussion.

Swales's concepts of the communicative event, purpose and discourse community are applicable to the context of the university lecture, making academia that is lecturers and students belong to the discourse community that shares common goals and uses a common language. Bhatia's and van Dijk's views on discourse and genre are applicable to conducting an analysis in academic and professional settings.

The analysis of concepts of genre, register, discourse and style has helped in clarifying the terminology, placing discourse on top of hierarchy as the most general term. It is followed by the concept of genre related to a particular context of culture, where genre uses specific register and style, as the narrowest concept.

The lecture is a changing genre which has transformed from a one-way lecture speech imparting knowledge to a more interactive and useful style. The lecture is characterized by the *involvement* and *detachment* of lecturers (speakers) reflecting their emotional participation. It is an *interactive, contextual, situational* and to some extent *improvising* activity of a highly dynamic nature. It is an example of *genre mixing* – a combination of spoken and written registers, use of modern technologies with the hybrid nature of seminars, lectures, conference presentations and written research articles.

The lecture has *intertextual* characteristics – lecturer's discourse is usually based on the previously created texts and quotations of other authors. Moreover, a modern lecture exhibits features of *interdisciplinarit*y, comprising a combination of diverse sciences and disciplines.

The style of a lecture is dependent on the purpose, subject, theme and knowledge of students and can vary from *reading*, *talk-and-chalk*, *fresh talk*, *memorization*, *aloud reading* to *participatory* styles.

Note-taking in the university lecture setting is an integral skill of students used to retain information for recall and to promote successful material acquisition. Note-taking in a contemporary lecture can have pen and paper and typing modes, where the latter is becoming more essential with the growth and extensive use of modern technologies in the lecture room.

Students may encounter difficulties while taking notes in a lecture caused by misinterpreting the speaker's intonation, change of register, use of colloquial expressions, use of the referential system, specific lexis and other factors that are studied in the empirical part of the present research where students are asked to explain the difficulties they experience while taking notes.

Skills characteristic to listening are integral for note-taking, since listening comprehension and note-taking are mutually interdependent processes, involving the listener's ability to make judgments and to reply to them. Note-taking is a cognitively demanding process that requires the use of working memory which has individual differences reflected in the ability to retrieve information under situations of high interference.

Note-taking can be attributed to a separate genre of academic writing with notes as the final product of this activity. The notes usually include key concepts, abbreviations, verbal, graphic or numerical forms, shortenings of words, formulas, drawings and specialized terminology. Students' note-taking depends both on the quality of a lecture and on their own skills to process the information.

CHAPTER 2 SPOKEN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

The aim of the present chapter is to examine briefly the nature of spoken discourse analysis and the linguistic phenomena present in the spoken discourse on the example of scripted text of academic lectures delivered in English.

2.1 Discourse Analysis and Characteristics of Spoken Discourse

For any novice researcher of Discourse Analysis (DA) a vital question would be what it implies and how it differs from Text Linguistics (both of them are concerned with the notion of *cohesion*, for instance.) *Cohesion* (Halliday, 1978; Halliday and Hasan, 1976; van Dijk, 2001, 2008, 2012, 2015; Ducrot, 1980; Roulet, Auchlin, Moeschler, Rubattel, and Schelling, 1985) deals with the relationship between text and syntax. Halliday and Hasan's definition of cohesion concerns discourse relations above grammatical structure, thus excluding coordination and subordination. Such phenomena as conjunction, ellipsis, anaphora, cataphora are basic for cohesion. However, a distinguishing trait of DA in comparison to Text Linguistics is the concept of ***coherence*,** which has to do with the meaning of the text, cognitive structures that are implied by the language used, and thus influence the perception of the message by the interlocutor. Some authors, such as Halliday, believe that *text* is everything that is meaningful in a particular situation: "By text, then, we understand a continuous process of semantic choice" (1978: 137).

According to Schiffrin (1994), all approaches within DA view *text* and *context* as the two kinds of information that contribute to the communicative content of an utterance, thus involving the study of both *text* and *context*. *Text* is used in order *to differentiate linguistic material (e.g. what is said, assuming a verbal channel)* from the environment in which this text exists - *other linguistic productions.* She defines these terms as follows:

> In terms of utterances, then, 'text' is the linguistic content: the stable semantic meanings of words, expressions, and sentences, but not the inferences available to hearers depending upon the contexts in which words, expressions, and sentences are used. […] 'Context' is thus a world filled with people producing utterances: people who have social, cultural, and personal identities, knowledge, beliefs, goals and wants, and who interact with one another in various socially and culturally defined situations. (Schiffrin, 1994: 363)

The important characteristics of discourse are in what cognitive, social, political environment the discourse is produced. Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that 'discourse analysis cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs'. Brown and Yule (1983) and Candlin (1997), hold the opinion of the importance of social factor that discourse refers to language in use, as a social process.

Another important characteristic of DA also called discourse studies is that they are multidisciplinary, and therefore it can be said that they cross the Linguistics border into different and varied domains, as van Dijk (2001: 10) notes in the following passage:

> …discourse analysis for me is essentially multidisciplinary, and involves linguistics, poetics, semiotics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, history, and communication research. What I find crucial though is that precisely because of its multi-faceted nature, this multidisciplinary research should be integrated. We should devise theories that are complex and account both for the textual, the cognitive, the social, the political and the historical dimension of discourse.

Thus, when analyzing discourse, researchers are not only concerned with "purely" linguistic facts but they also pay equal or more attention to language use in relation to social, political and cultural aspects. For this reason, discourse is not only within the interests of linguists, but it is also a field that is studied by communication scientists, literary critics, philosophers, sociologists, anthropologists, social psychologists, political scientists, and many others.

As Johnstone (2002: 25) considered DA is a research method that can be (and is being) used by scholars with a variety of academic and non-academic affiliations, coming from a variety of disciplines, to answer a variety of questions.

Since the empirical part of the present research is devoted to the analysis of spoken academic discourse, it is necessary to specify its characteristics and to explore its typical features. Analysis of spoken discourse depends on many linguistic components. Lexicology, phonology and grammar, for instance, help linguists identify and interpret spoken texts. Discourse analysts focus not that much on the study of the form of the language, but rather on the functions used in communication. Focusing on language as an abstract system, instead, we have to be interested in what happens when people use language, based on what they have said, heard or seen before, as well as in how they do things with language, such as express feelings, entertain others, exchange information, and so on.

Analyzing spoken discourse is a difficult and time-consuming task since the speaker does not follow the same rules of organization that are usually found in examples of written texts. These features may be influenced by some variables such as the speaker's educational background, age, occupation, literacy in his or her target language, or even personality traits.

Some other features have to do with supra-segmental elements of language including sentences and word stress and rhythm. Brown and Yule (1983) stated that "the speaker has available to him the full range of voice quality effects (as well as facial expressions, postural, and gestural systems. Armed with these he can always override the effect of the words he speaks)."

2.2 Nature of Spoken Academic Discourse

The present subchapter aims at outlining the main peculiarities of the spoken academic discourse. As stated by prominent theoreticians in the field of DA of business studies lectures, such as Crawford Camiciottoli (2007) and Biber (2006) the described features are used as the basic model to analyse spoken academic discourse of the university lectures. Further, the author compares her findings with the theory and summarizes on them.

Although DA and text analysis as the sub-branch of linguistics have been studied for over four decades (e.g. Drozd and Seibicke, 1973; Kocourek, 1982; Gläser, 1979; Hoffmann, 1983 and Baumann, 1986), the study of spoken university register (the term introduced by Biber, 2006 to imply academic discourse) began in the 1980-ies. Chaudron and Richards (1986), Flowerdew and Tauroza (1995) focused their attention on the study of discourse markers for academic purposes, Strodt-Lopez (1991) analysed "asides" that serve a similar function. Such authors as DeCarrico and Nattinger (1988), Khuwaileh (1999) described how lexical phrases and chunks serve to signal discourse organization and coherence in classroom teaching. Crawford Camiciottoli (2005) described the use of discourse structuring expressions; Flowerdew (1992) explored the structure and the use of definitions in lectures.

Spoken academic discourse was studied at different linguistic levels. **Lexis** plays an important role in lecture discourse, as terms carry the core meaning of the lecture. One of the differences that may be noticed between academic written and spoken discourses at the lexical level is that lecturing takes place in real time, while the choice of the lexical units in textbooks is carefully planned, revised and edited. Textbook writers have time to write, plan, adapt, revise and edit texts, whereas lecturer's speech (though lecturers prepare and plan the lecture) has more characteristics of improvised speech, as discourse is created in the course of a lecture. As a result, textbooks have higher density and diversity of specialized terms than lectures. In contrast to written mode, an abundance of common words which occur with high frequency are used in lectures. Biber (2006) states that such verbs as *get, say, think, want* and *see* occur 2,000 times per million words in classroom teaching. He contends also that written discourse uses much more low frequency words than spoken discourse. “Writing is more lexically dense than speech” (Halliday, 1990; Eggins, 1994; Stubs, 1996).

As regards **grammatical word classes,** it was discovered (Biber, 2006) that spoken discourse has a bigger percentage of nouns than verbs, and a larger number of adjectives than adverbs. It was also noted that there are some nouns found exclusively in spoken academic discourse, which are rarely present in textbooks. Besides colloquial nouns are not appropriate in academic written register, for example: bug, buzz, cop, chump, fluff (Biber, 2006), whereas we can observe them in the spoken discourse.

An important point that is to be considered is the use of individual features of speakers that can, of course, differentiate one speaker’s lecturing style from another. This will be discussed in the empirical part, though at the lesser extent.

Biber (2006) speaks about the importance of **pronouns** in comparison to nouns in the spoken academic discourse. First person pronouns (I, we) are present in all types of spoken discourse used both to express lecturer’s opinion (I), e.g. ‘I think…’, to make students part of the whole (inclusive) (we), e.g. ‘We can expect…’, or to speak about wholeness and involvement of others and, possibly, the audience into the process (we), e.g. ‘If now we all think about this problem…’.

The second person pronoun *you* is more common in lecture management (e.g. Could you give me some examples of…,) and in the situations where the lecturer turns to students with an offer (e.g. Why don’t you….), initiation (e.g. Could you give me some examples of…,), rhetorical question (e.g. Have you ever thought of…). The third person pronoun in plural *they* is often used to talk about some examples given by others. (e.g. So, the question is, who told them that they need to measure profitability by gross margin percentage?(Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

2.2.1 Grammatical Variation among Spoken Academic Discourse

Another important characteristic of spoken academic discourse is the use of the noun *thing*. Biber (2006) states that the noun is used 3,000 times in the spoken discourse in comparison to 300 times in written discourse per million words. The meaning of the word in the academic context is that of an ‘idea’ or ‘action’, whereas, for example, the expression *things like that* can mean both ‘idea’ and ‘action’:

Now, what also happens is that any anticipated problems and opportunities emerge every day and those ***things*** *we call them 'Emergent opportunities and problems' and they start to compete against deliberate strategy to see what actually gets funded and what doesn't. And as you know, as some of you have run businesses.* (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

According to Biber (2006), the use of *thing* is important to help structuring the flow of information in the course of a lecture, for example, the noun signals the introduction of a new issue: *One final thing I have to say…*

Semantic classes of verbs

Biber (2006) differentiates among six types of semantic classes of verbs: activity, mental, communication, causative, occurrence and aspectual verbs.

- **Activity verbs** are typical of demonstration, that is the type of lectures where participants are involved in physical activities, or they can give directions as to future actions (e.g. invite, bring, leave, etc.)
- **Mental verbs** describe mental processes of the speaker, help in giving advice and solving problems. The list may include such verbs as: *think, remember, feel, remind, know, consider and want*.
- **Communication verbs** describe how a subject communicates, for example, *announce, argue, express, imply, indicate, demonstrate, denote, display, explain, maintain, communicate, convey, declare, depict, embody, enunciate, evince, exhibit, formulate, frame, import, indicate, define, describe* and *characterize*.
- **Occurrence verbs** report events that occur apart from any volitional activity. They include such examples as *become, happen, come up.*
- **Causative verbs** used in spoken academic discourse are such words as *cause, allow, help, enable, keep, hold, let, force, require,* and *make.*

Another category of verbs that occur in spoken discourse are **aspectual verbs** that designate the connection of the action to time, completion, duration, or repetition, e.g. to begin, to start, to finish and to follow.

Considering the category of voice as an important characteristic of the verb, it can be noted that active voice verb phrases are used much more frequently than passive voice forms in spoken discourse. When the speaker uses passive voice listeners may lose the track of following the flow of speech. The active voice is easier to perceive and to process.

2.2.2 Discourse Markers

Research on academic discourse proves a significant role of discourse markers (DMs) (Chaurdon and Richards, 1986, Fraser, 1990, Schiffrin, 1987, 1994, Siepmann, 2005, Fung and Carter, 2007) in the organization of the academic lecture. Swales and Malcewski (2001), Tannen and Schiffrin (2015) studied the use of DMs during the lecture. Buck (2001: 43), who studied listening comprehension by ESL students, pointed out that often students cannot comprehend the main points of the lecture when there is a lack of "devices that explicitly signal the micro- and macro-structure of the text", accordingly students can benefit from discourse markers used in the text.

Fraser (1990: 392) defines DMs as "expressions which signal a sequential relationship between the current basic message and the previous discourse". According to Schiffrin (1987 in Tannen, Hamilton and Schiffrin, 2015), DMs are "sequentially-dependent units of discourse which serve an integrative function in discourse and therefore contribute to discourse coherence." The function of these lexical items in the academic lecture is to start the speech, to connect ideas, to change topics, to indicate important parts in the speech, to summarize, to make a pause, to conclude and many others. Speaking about the perception of lectures by students, DMs are handy tools in the process of lecture comprehension by students in an academic environment.

Chaudron and Richards (1986), Murphy and Candlin (1979), Morell (2001) (in Camiciotolli 2007: 80) differentiate between micro-markers (or lower-order DMs) and macro-markers (or higher order DMs).

Micro-markers indicate links between utterances or function as filler; they are subdivided into the categories of segmentation, contrast and emphasis (Chaudron and Richards, 1986 in Camiciotolli 2007: 80). For example, *so, right, ok, all right* are the elements that are used to indicate pauses and can be attributed to the segmentation category. The pause gives a speaker time to consider what has been said and to prepare for the following part; while a listener uses a pause as an opportunity to process information, to analyse and to create mental feedback. Studies of the previously mentioned authors have shown that the wide spread lexical item of 'contrast' category used in American and British corpus of academic lectures is the particle *but*, (Gomez and Fortuno 2005: 173). Emphasis micro-markers may include (Chaudron and Richards, 1986 in Camiciotolli 2007: 80) such elements as *of course, you can see, actually, obviously, unbelievably, naturally, in fact* and others.

Macro-markers highlight major information in the lecture and the sequence or importance of that information. Some of the macro-markers analysed by Chaurdon and Richards (1986: 123) include *What I'm going to talk about today is, You probably know something about – already, We'll see that, To begin with, The next thing was, This meant that, What we've come to by now was that, You probably know that , As you may have heard* and others. Chaurdon and Richards (ibid.) show that macro-markers "are more conductive to successful recall of the lecture than micro-markers. Micro-markers do not aid the learner's retention of the lecture."

The present research aimed to find out to what extent students' comprehension is affected by the use of DMs by a lecturer, as well as to distinguish whether lecturers apply them in their lectures delivered in English.

2.3 DM most frequently Used in Spoken Academic Discourse

The most influential role in the study of DMs in university setting can be noticed in the works of Biber (1999, 2006, 2009), who analysed and summarised them. Biber (2006) used the term 'discourse connectors' to describe devices that are used as 'bridges between turns (in speech) and sentences', and 'indicate' the logical relations among the parts of a discourse.' He differentiated between 'discourse markers' and 'linking adverbials'. The author of the present work uses the term discourse marker (DM) for all these devices.

Most frequently used DMs in spoken academic discourse may include elements like *OK, well, now* and *so* (Biber, 2006). They primarily are characteristic to spoken rather than to written discourse. DMs that are linking adverbials *however, thus, therefore, for example (e.g.)* and *that is (i.e.)* can be found in both.

Ok is often used as the reaction to what has been said; it shows that the lecturer agrees to what has been said by a student:

Student: *Yes, we can do it.*

Lecturer*: Ok*

In another case, OK is used in the meaning of transition from one topic to another:

Ok, let's move on to…

All right

All right is also used to initiate a new topic:

All right, now let's get to the other theme of today's lecture…

Well is used as a response to some previous utterance, rather than initiation of a new topic. For example, it can be an answer to a student's question, when a lecture does not know the answer, or is not sure.

Student: *Do, I correctly understand…?*
Lecturer: *Well, I do not want to claim 100%, but…*

The word **so** functions more as a linking adverbial than as a discourse marker, it has a resultative meaning:

And now the world has changed… and yet we continue to follow this panda's thumb in our management thinking. So, that's what I wanna talk about, is just proposals about panda's thumbs and another way to put is the way… (Clayton Christensen on Management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

So also summarizes the before-said information:

***So**, I think that it's another reason why I wanted to try to keep as international focus as I am good about…good at doing…ah in this course*.(Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

Another frequently used DM in spoken academic discourse is the word *now*. It can have two functions, first a time adverbial modifier and second a DM:

Time adverb: *When I go to a foreign country and give a talk, I find that people -- it doesn't matter what country -- they're generally very interested in finance, because they think that our modern financial techniques are part of what's making so many places in the world grow at rapid rates **now***. (Professor Shiller, Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes)

Discourse marker: ***Now,*** *I wanted to put this in a little bit broader context. The other major finance course that we have here at Yale is Economics 251 and it's taught by Professor John Geanakoplos, who is a mathematical economist and also a practitioner.* (Professor Shiller, Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes)

Sentence level

Dependent clauses

Another characteristic of spoken academic discourse that is to be mentioned is the use of dependent clauses: adverbial and complement clauses. It is considered (Biber, 2006: 14) that relative clauses are more characteristic to written register, though they can also be noticed in spoken discourse. Two types of relative clauses can be mentioned: finite relative clauses and sentence relatives:

Finite relative clauses must contain a verb which shows tense. They can be main clauses or subordinate clauses: *I'm going to talk today about probability, and variance, and covariance,* *and regression, and idiosyncratic risk, and systematic risk. <u>Things</u> like that **which are** core concepts in finance.*

*It's a financial <u>crisis</u> **that's bigger** than any since the Great Depression of the 1930's.*

(Professor Robert Shiller, Risk and Financial Crises)

Sentence relatives

Sentence relative clauses provide additional information, clarification, and comment to the main sentence:

*So, the theme **that I want** to develop in my book is that part - you know, we live in a capitalist world now and this world is increasingly built on finance.*
*After here they don't seem to be anything, **which means that**, it looks like you never see anything more than up or down 5% or 6%. It just doesn't happen.*
(Professor Robert Shiller, Risk and Financial Crises)

Sentence relatives are also used to express personal opinion:

*...unh-hunh well you know I think that's an interesting question and I think the question you know I guess though there's a briefing dot always so **which I actually believe I think** many people often think that they need to be consistent and I don't think people who are consistent ...* (Rypple Leadership Series | Jeffrey Pfeffer: Power)

Adverbial clauses are more common to spoken, rather than to written mode. Biber (2006) classified the following types: temporal (e.g., After she went back to work. . .), causative (e.g., Because he could not be sure. . .), conditional (e.g., If they made it back. . .), concession (e.g., Although they tried all night. . .), purpose (e.g., They stopped working to have a little rest.) However, Biber (2006) considers that the **conditional** (if), **causative** (because), and **temporal** (e.g. after, before, while, until, as, since) adverbial clauses can be observed in spoken academic discourse more often.

An example of conditional adverbial clause:

*So**, if you look at a small number of data**, you get an impression that well, you know, the stock market goes up between plus or minus 2%, usually not so much, that's the way it is.*
(Professor Robert Shiller, Risk and Financial Crises)

Causative adverbial clauses are less common in spoken discourse than conditional clauses. They provide supporting arguments or explanations, for example:

And as you know, as some of you have run businesses ...what happens in the resource allocation process becomes very complicated ... because some of these things that have emerged are actually bigger, nicer or more exciting ideas than the original strategy that you have. (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

Temporal adverbial clauses are formed by two clauses that are connected with a temporal adverb, for example, such as *after, before, while, until, as* and *since.*

The following examples are from the transcribed lectures:

> *We've had the worst financial crisis* ***since*** *the Great Depression, and it's very worldwide crisis. (time)* (Professor Shiller, Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes)
> *And that means,* ***while*** *they're still young, they have to take their fortune and give it all away before they die. (time)* (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

Biber (2006: 80-83) considers that complement clauses are more common in spoken academic discourse than written discourse. The following types of complement clauses can be noticed in lecturer's speech: that-clause, wh-clause and to-clause.

'That-clause' in an academic lecture usually follows such mental verbs as: *argue, assume, believe, claim, decide, feel, find, hope, mean, notice, realize, see, show, think*, etc. Sentences with the use of **'know'**: 'I know that…', *'we know that…', 'you know that…'* are the most typical examples: *And I'm very pleased to report that I have a lot of people in every imaginable country who have watched these lectures. And I get emails from them,* ***so I know that*** *they're out there.* (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

> ***You already know that*** *tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world creating employment and income to destinations in the developed and the developing world.*(Objectives of tourism development, Responsible Tourism)

Wh-clauses are said to be used mostly with such mental verbs as *believe, explain, know, remember, etc.*…you **know what** I'm talking about….(Corporate Finance by Aswath Damodaran, Lecture 1)

So, I'll have to ***explain what*** *all that means…*(Professor Robert Shiller, Risk and Financial Crises)

To-clause is typically used with such verbs as *get, would like, try, want,* etc. They explain the purpose, wish of a speaker and can give directions:

> (1) *It can be boring and I hope I am not boring in this course but it's in the details that things happen and so I am…**wanna talk about** particular institutions. I am interpreting finance broadly in this course,* ***I want to talk about*** *banking, insurance, sometimes people don't include insurance as part of finance but I don't see why not, so we will include it.* (Corporate Finance by Aswath Damodaran, Lecture 1)

(2) *That's going to be the central question for this week and I know I can give you what I think that objective should be but **I'd like to hear** what you think the objective should be…*(Corporate Finance by Aswath Damodaran, Lecture 1)

The author considers that knowledge of conventions of discourse macro-markers at the sentence level may help to organize the academic discourse in a more coherent and cohesive way.

2.4 Theoretical Background of Stance in Spoken Academic Discourse

Stance expressions convey personal feelings and attitudes of a speaker. In the context of academic lecture, stance is an indispensable element of speech. A lecturer mentions sources of information he used for a lecture and his attitude towards this information; he speaks about his personal experience, especially if a lecturer is a practitioner in the field he teaches and exemplifies theoretical notions. It is possible that sometimes speakers are more concerned with their own opinion than with pure facts:

> …in fact, in some cases speakers and writers in university registers seem more connected with the expression of stance than with the communication of 'facts'. (Biber, 2006, 87)

Lecturers not only aim at conveying information, but also at shaping students' opinion on matters.

This part of the chapter looks at what linguistic features are characteristic of the expression of stance in spoken academic discourse.

Different terminology has been used as synonyms to the concept 'stance': 'evaluation' (Hunston 1994; Hunston and Thompson 2000), 'intensity' (Labov 1984), 'evidentiality' (Chafe 1986) and 'modality' (Palmer 1986). 'Hedging' (Hyland 2005b) and 'stance' (Barton 1993; Beach and Anson 1992; Biber and Finegan 1988, 1989 etc.) have been encountered most frequently. The present thesis uses the terms 'stance' and 'hedging' in the meaning of personal opinion and attitude of a speaker.

It was decided to investigate what grammatical devices are used in the expression of stance. The author studied, summarized and exemplified Biber's (1999, 2006) findings on stance used in academic discourse.

Stance adverbials

Stance adverbials which are usually found in the initial position of the sentence may express attitude of a speaker to the proposition. One word stance adverbials include such words as: *obviously, unfortunately, fortunately, apparently, undoubtedly, amazingly, astonishingly,* *conveniently, curiously, disturbingly, hopefully, inevitably, interestingly, ironically, predictably, quite rightly, regrettably, sadly, sensibly, surprisingly, unbelievably, unfortunately, wisely* (Biber, 1999)

The following examples from transcribed academic lectures borrowed from Internet sources with the use of stance adverbials show speakers' attitude to the subject. In the first example the speaker is not confident about the matter, the adverb *hopefully* demonstrates this:

> *You've heard in a reading a lot about the kind of generic plant climate science and I wanna try to* ***hopefully*** *compliment that industry some pictures about how an insurer with look at the climate science and how they they might kinda digested or interpret it…* (Michael Hanemann, The Economics of Climate Change, Lecture 2)

The same uncertainty can be observed in the next example. The word *obviously* shows that the speaker is hesitant or does not want to take responsibility for his words: ***Obviously*** *there is a high-level dependency I'll on external markets for for income and for resources and at that might include a naval I government…* (Island Tourism Sustainability by Prof. Jack Carlsen)

Complement clauses. Matrix clause verbs

In complement clauses, a verb expresses speaker's stance. Such verbs as *love, hate, believe, guess, doubt, hope* and others followed by a complement clause are used to show attitude to the proposition. For example:

> *So, you have something that's imperfect.* ***I hope*** *you excuse me when you look at the chapters of this book*. (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

Evaluative adjectives

Another linguistic device that is applied by speakers and conveys the meaning of stance is an evaluative adjective. Examples of these adjectives are such as *good, nice, right, sure*. They express speaker's positive attitude towards a situation:

> ***That's a good*** *question. If there's multiple winners, we'll divide it but we'll make sure everyone has a positive winning.* ***Good question****. (Lecture: Game Theory)*
> *…the concept of reciprocity intend that* ***you're probably right*** *about that influence yet another word for tracking power … (Rypple Leadership Series | Jeffrey Pfeffer: Power)*

Stance adverbials and evaluative adjectives are also called 'value-laden words' (Biber, 2006) since they presuppose a particular set of values.

Stance structures with the 1st person object or 1st person pronoun are often used to describe attitude of a speaker: ***I know*** *this is of great interest, because we place a lot of students in good* *jobs in investment banking*. (Clayton Christensen on management – Clarendon, Lecture, 11 June 2013)

2nd or 3rd person pronouns are used mostly to attribute an addressee (a student); however, they do not always reflect the personal stance of a speaker: ***Why do you think** 30% of people are choosing Beta?* Game Theory (ECON 159)

The meaning of stance is also conveyed with the help of modal verbs, stance adverbials with modal verbs and extraposed complement to-clauses.

Such modal verbs as *should, may be, might, could* are often used in the meaning of stance:

(1) *So 25 plus 5 plus 60 is 90. People **should** feel free to correct my arithmetic because it's often wrong, 90 right? (Game Theory)*
(2)*…and that's because in practice a ... it's like having three lakes it is still it a still with only two lakes obviously would standout so it **might be OK** to study economic and say social aspects sustainability* (Island Tourism Sustainability by Prof. Jack Carlsen)

Stance adverbials with modal verbs:

*Okay so it **shouldn't** take you **probably** more than for the 45 minutes to finish the whole…*
(Tourism Asia Video Lecture 2, Types of Tourism)

Extraposed complement clauses are sentences where a clause or a subject is moved to the end of a sentence, and it is replaced by *it* in the initial position, e.g.: *it seems, it is important, it is obvious.* Usually these phrases are followed by *to-clause*:

(1) *But **it seems that** I talked about the Forbes 400 people, and I mentioned last lecture* about Andrew Carnegie's The Gospel of Wealth… (Risk and Financial Crises)
(2) *So **it's important that** we have the world perspective which is something I will try to incorporate in this course.* (Clayton Christensen on management)

On the basis of Biber's findings, the author of the present paper has developed the table of lexico-grammatical features used for stance analyses of spoken academic discourse:

Table 2.1 **Lexico-grammatical Features Used for Stance Analysis of Spoken Academic Discourse** (adapted from Biber, 1999)

Modal and semi-modal verbs	
Meaning / function	**Lexical unit**
Possibility, permission, ability	Can, could, may, might
Necessity, obligation	Must, should, (had) better, have to, got to, ought to

Prediction, violation	Will, would, shall, be going to
Stance adverbs	
Certainty	Actually, always, certainly, definitely, indeed, inevitably, in fact, never, of course, obviously, really, undoubtedly, without doubt, no doubt
Likelihood	Apparently, evidently, kind of, in most cases/ instances, perhaps, possibly, predictably,
Attitude	Amazingly, astonishingly, conveniently, curiously, hopefully, even worse, fortunately, importantly, ironically, rightly, sadly, surprisingly, unfortunately
Style	According to, confidentially, frankly, generally, honestly, mainly, technically, truthfully, typically, reportedly, primarily, usually
Stance verb + that –clause	
Epistemic verbs	
Certainty	Conclude, demonstrate, determine, discover, find, know, learn, mean, notice, observe, prove, realize, recognize, remember, see, show, understand
Likelihood	Assume, believe, doubt, gather, guess, hypothesize, imagine, predict, presuppose, presume, reckon, seem, speculate, suppose, suspect, think
Attitude verbs	Agree, anticipate, complain, concede, ensure, expect, fear, feel, forget, hope, mind, prefer, pretend, require, wish, worry
Speech act and other communication verbs	Announce, argue, assert, claim, contend, declare, emphasize, explain, imply, insist, mention, promise, propose, recommend, remark, respond, say, state, suggest, tell
Stance verb + to-clause	
Probability (likelihood) verbs	Appear, happen, seem, tend
Cognition / perception verbs (likelihood)	Assume, believe, consider, expect, find, forget, imagine, judge, know, learn, presume, pretend, remember, suppose
Desire, intention,	Agree, choose, deicide, hate, hesitate, hope, intend, like, love, mean,

decision verbs	need, plan, prefer, prepare, refuse, want, wish
Verbs of causation, modality, effort	Allow, attempt, enable, encourage, fail, help, instruct, manage, oblige, order, permit, persuade, prompt, require, seek, try
Speech act and other communication verbs	Ask, claim, invite, promise, remind, request, be said, show, teach, tell, urge, warn
Stance adjective + that –clause	
Epistemic adjectives	
Certainty	Apparent, certain, clear, confident, convinced, correct, evident, false, impossible, inevitable, obvious, positive, right, sure, true, well-known
Likelihood	Doubtful, likely, possible, probable, unlikely
Attitude / emotion adjectives	Afraid, amazed, aware, concerned, disappointed, encouraged, glad, happy, hopeful, pleased, shocked, surprised, worried
Evaluation adjectives	Amazing, appropriate, conceivable, crucial, essential, fortunate, inconceivable, incredible, interesting, lucky, necessary, nice, odd, ridiculous, strange, surprising, unacceptable, unfortunate
Stance adjective + to-clause	
Epistemic (certainty/ likelihood)	Apt, certain, due, guaranteed, liable, likely, prone, unlikely, sure
Attitude/ emotion	Afraid, ashamed, disappointed, embarrassed, glad, happy, pleased, proud, puzzled, relieved, sorry, surprised, worried
Evaluation	(In)appropriate, bad/worse, good/better/best, convenient, essential, important, interesting, necessary, nice, reasonable, silly, smart, stupid, surprising, useful, useless, unreasonable, wise, wrong
Ability or willingness	(Un)able, anxious, careful, determined, eager, eligible, hesitant, inclined, obliged, prepared, ready, reluctant, (un)willing
Ease or difficulty	Difficult, easy, easier, hard, (im)possible, tough
Stance noun + that –clause	
Epistemic nouns	
Agreement, decision, desire, failure, inclination, intention, obligation, opportunity, plan, promise, proposal, reluctance, responsibility, right, tendency, threat, wish, willingness	

The empirical part includes a quantitative analysis of stance expressions in the transcribed lectures and qualitative analysis of recorded lectures. This will allowed the researcher to explore the use of stance in the context of the academic lecture.

Interim Summary of Chapter 2

Discourse analysis (DA) deals with *cohesion* and *coherence*, where *cohesion* addresses the relationship between text and syntax and *coherence* has to do with the meaning of the text, cognitive structures implied by the language used.

All approaches within DA study *text* and *context*, where *text* is the linguistic content of utterances and *context* is filled with people producing utterances in various socially and culturally defined situations.

DA is *multidisciplinary* and has multi-faceted nature; therefore the multidisciplinary research should be integrated.

The study of spoken academic discourse at different linguistic levels began in 1980ies and the research was conducted by Drozd and Seibicke, 1973; Gläser, 1979; Kocourek, 1982; Hoffmann, 1983; Baumann, 1986 and Richards, 1983; DeCarrico and Nattinger, 1988; Strodt-Lopez, 1991; Flowerdew, 1992; Flowerdew and Tauroza, 1995; Khuwaileh, 1999; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2005, 2007; Biber, 2006.

Lexical level of spoken academic discourse in comparison to written discourse is characterized by the following features:

- Lecturer's speech is more improvised, the discourse is created in the course of a lecture;
- An abundance of common words which occur with high frequency are used in lectures, e.g. *get, say, think, want* and *see*;
- Spoken discourse has a bigger percentage of *nouns* and *adjectives* than *verbs* and *adverbs*;
- Pronouns are more frequently used than nouns, for example the 1st person object or 1st person pronoun are used to describe attitude of a speaker, whereas the 2nd or 3rd person pronouns are used mostly to attribute an addressee (a student); however, they do not always reflect the personal stance of a speaker.

DMs are units of discourse that serve integrative function and contribute to the discourse coherence. They differentiate between micro-markers and macro-markers where the former can be sub-divided into segmentation, contrast and emphasis markers.

The most frequently used micro-makers in spoken academic discourse (Biber, 2006) are *OK*, *well*, *now* and *so*.

Academic discourse at the *sentence level* can be described by the use of *dependent clauses* (adverbial and complement) and *relative clauses* (finite and sentence relatives). *Adverbial clauses* can be divided into *conditional*, *causative* and *tempora*l, whereas c*omplement* clauses are represented by *that-clause, what-clause* and *to-clause sentences*.

Stance expressions convey personal feelings and attitudes of a speaker and are an indispensable element of speech, especially if a lecturer is a practitioner in the field; he teaches and exemplifies theoretical notions. Stance adverbials (e.g. *obviously, unfortunately, fortunately, apparently, undoubtedly, amazingly, astonishingly etc.)* which are usually found in the initial position of the sentence may express attitude of a speaker to the proposition.

The meaning of stance is also conveyed with the help of modal verbs and semi-modal verbs. On the basis of Biber's findings, the author of the present paper has developed a table of lexico-grammatical features used for stance analyses of spoken academic discourse.

CHAPTER 3 COMMUNICATIVE ENGLISH LANGUAGE COMPETENCE OF TERTIARY EDUCATION LECTURERS

The aim of Chapter 3 is to identify the language competence the academic personnel of a university (henceforth the lecturer) need to possess in order to deliver a coherent lecture in the soft sciences in a foreign language. To conduct comprehensive research, Chapter 3 describes the processes involved in the delivery of academic lectures by lecturers.

According to the communication theory, a successful lecture is an activity that involves the cooperation of a lecturer and a student, where each party becomes the information sender (i.e. the decoder) and the information receiver (i.e. the encoder) at different stages of the lecture (Hall, 1980). The table below shows the interconnection between the two parties of communication.

Table 3.1 **Interconnection between the Two Parties of Communication**.

	Information exchange (message)	
Lecturer		**Student**
Information sender	Information / Spoken discourse	Information receiver
Decoder	→ (Information delivered by a lecturer)	Encoder
Encoder	← (Feedback)	Decoder

In a lecture setting, the lecturer (the information decoder) decodes the information to students (information encoders), who in turn encode the message and provide feedback.

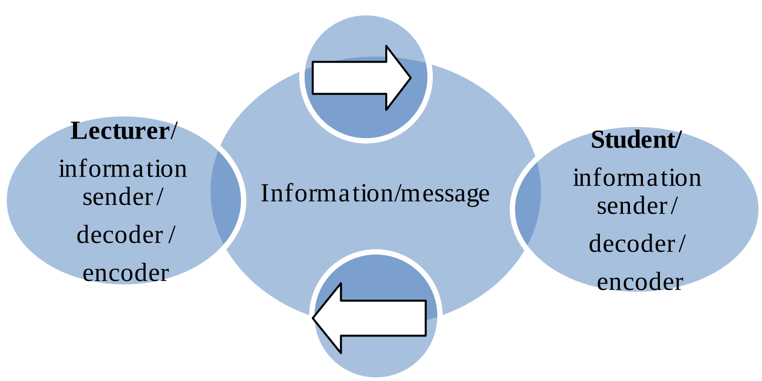


Figure 3.1 **The Model of Information Exchange**

Lecturers often choose such lecturing styles as *memorization, aloud reading* and *fresh talk* (Goffman, 1981: 171), where most of the talking load is shouldered by the lecturer, and the student often does not interrupt the lecturer but may provide feedback in different non-verbal ways, e.g. by nodding the head to show agreement or disagreement, or showing the mental processes of thinking, smiling to support the lecturer , gasping to take a break that may imply mental processes of thinking, and sighing or yawning to show that the lecture is boring. Students' feedback, even if it is given in an implicit way, may signal whether the content is clear and whether there is a need to adjust the style or speech rate, to paraphrase some concepts or to repeat something. The interaction with students allows the lecturer to regulate his discourse. The present research is concerned with the processes occurring from the lecturer's perspective.

In order to discover lecturers' communicative language competence required to deliver coherent lectures in English, the following research question was posed: What are the competences needed for a university lecturer in order to conduct a successful lecture in the soft sciences (e.g. Marketing, Management, Tourism) in English, used as lingua franca and what are the processes taking place during the course of the lecture?

To deliver a successful lecture, apart from being an expert in the subject area, the lecturer needs to possess adequate knowledge of the foreign language comprising different aspects. The lecturer needs to have a reasonably high level knowledge of grammar, lexis, syntax, semantics, cognitive skills and the ability to obtain information in a foreign language, which requires appropriate reading and information processing skills. The lecturer also needs excellent writing skills to prepare handouts or presentation notes, as well as adequate spoken communication, and presentation skills in order to create an effective lecture, to interact with students and to reach the main goal of a lecture that is successful transmission of the subject knowledge of the lecture to the receivers.

A theoretical study was undertaken to look at all of these processes in more detail and to do an accurate and thorough research: the author carried out an investigation of the theoretical findings in linguistics in the field of communicative competence in order to compile a framework of competences needed for academic lecturers.

3.1 Theories Pertaining to the Development of the Communicative Competence and the Models of Communicative Competences

A lot of studies have been carried out in the field of communicative competence since 1960, when the notion was first introduced in a variety of interpretations. The contributions of leading researchers in this field such as Chomsky (1965), Botha (1981), Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1983), Widdowson (1996), Bachman (1995) among other contemporary linguists is worth mentioning. The concept of *competence* is one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics; there is a vast array of theories and models developed for the application of this notion in language teaching, acquisition, assessment and in other areas of language studies.

Chomsky, who was influenced by the studies of de Saussure regarded linguistic competence as "mentally represented grammar"; he formulated this point as follows: Surely [...] the natural assumption is that there is mentally represented grammar expressing knowledge of a language and used in production, perception and prediction. (Chomsky, 1973: 275)

By *prediction,* Chomsky meant the "prediction of properties, especially (un)grammatically, of sentences" (ibid.), mental mechanisms in terms of which the linguistic competence is organized, or structured, must play the role of linguistic performance. Linguistic competence forms part of the speaker's speech production and speech perception mechanisms.

Chomsky and Katz (1974: 364) formulated this point as follows:

...the grammar in the form that it takes in models of speech production and speech perception must structurally correspond to some features of brain mechanism.

Botha (1981) worked out the aspects that influence linguistic performance. Some of which are of interest to the present research:

(a) The nature and limitations of the speaker-hearer's memory, concentration, attention, and other mental capacities,

(b) The social environment and status of the speaker-hearer,

(c) The dialectal environment of the speaker-hearer,

(d) The idiolect and individual style of speaking of speaker-hearer.

(Botha R. B. 1981: 32)

Applying Botha's aspects of linguistic performance to the context of the lecture discourse, it is possible to say that the efficiency of the academic lecture can be ensured when both the lecturer and students have trained memory, concentration, attention and other capacities for the former to professionally deliver a lecture and for the latter to be able to process the information, retain it in their memory and to be able to provide feedback to the lecturer (a). It is possible to assume that differences in social environment and status of the lecturer and students can become a hurdle in the students' full comprehension of lectures; for example, the lecturer delivering a lecture with a frequent use of professional jargon could be unclear for undergraduate students who have just started acquiring basic specialized terminology (b). Another important aspect mentioned by Botha that can foster students' perception of lectures is the *"dialectal environment of the speaker-hearer"*: the efficiency of a lecture is increased when the lecturer and students either share a similar dialect or students are able to understand possible peculiarities of the lecturer's pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary (c). The individual style of the lecturer may both help and obstruct the students' understanding of a lecture, although usually some adaptation period is required for students to be able to comprehend the discourse of certain lecturers (d).

Chomsky (1966: 9) examined a kind of an idealized speaker-hearer living in a homogeneous community and having a perfect command of his native tongue. He was not concerned with the competence of individual speakers.

The Communicative competence studied by Hymes (1972) was more comprehensive than the linguistic competence discussed by Chomsky and included the language user's ability for use. Hymes (1972: 274) opposed Chomsky's theory on linguistic competence, claiming that the idea of assuming an ideal speaker–listener as an example for linguistic study is not appropriate, since it is almost "not possible to view a speaker only in a homogeneous speech community and not to consider his socio-cultural features. Even if he is monolingual, he is a master of functional varieties within one language". In comparison to Chomsky, Hymes (ibid.) considered aspects of competence such as social appropriateness or inappropriateness of an utterance, as well as the necessity "to adjust the use of language to such factors as situation, participants, topic, communicative goal, register," (Hymes (1972) in Peterwagner 2005: 12), for example, the attempt of a lecturer to adapt his speaking style, speech rate and the choice of the language used to the appropriate level of language proficiency of the target audience.

Canale and Swain (1980) defined the communicative competence as "the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication". According to Canale (1983: 5), knowledge refers […] to what one knows (consciously or unconsciously) about the language and about other aspects of communicative language use; skill refers to how well one can perform this knowledge in actual communication (Canale, 1983: 5)".

Canale and Swain (1980) proposed four components of the communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competences. The grammatical competence comprises the user's knowledge and ability to use such aspects of language as: phonology, orthography, lexis, ability to form words and structure sentences. The sociolinguistic competence includes the user's knowledge of socio-cultural rules, the ability of language users to operate in a number of settings with different themes in various sociolinguistic contexts as well as the use of appropriate grammar forms for a variety of communicative functions. The discourse competence implies the user's abilities and mastery to combine language structures into different types of texts, for example, political speech or poetry, whereas the strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction, so it serves as a compensatory strategy: it describes the user's ability to act in situations when he experiences grammatical, sociolinguistics or discourse difficulties; for example, the language user's ability to paraphrase, clarify, find substitutes for grammatical or lexical forms. The strategic competence is the ability to overcome potential communication problems in interaction.

Bachman (1995) based his model of Communicative Language Ability on the model of Canale and Swain and attempted to empirically validate the components of communicative competence. The diagram below shows schematically the language competences proposed by Bachman:

Table 3.2 **Language Competence** (adapted from Bachman, 1995)

	Language Competence	
←	↓	→
Organizational competence	**Pragmatic competence**	**Strategic competence**
Grammatical competence; Textual competence (a) Cohesion (b) Rhetorical organization - (c) Conversational routines	Illocutionary competence; Sociolinguistic competence (a) Variety (b) Register (c) Naturalness d) Knowledge of cultural references	Assessment Planning process Execution phase

The organizational competence by Bachman (1995) comprises the grammatical and textual competences, where the grammatical competence includes the language user's knowledge of vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology and graphology, whereas the textual competence is responsible for the knowledge of rules / conventions of how to join utterances together to form a coherent text. Bachman (1995) included such concepts as cohesion, rhetorical organization and conversational routines in the textual competence. Cohesion, earlier classified and described by Halliday and Hasan (1972), comprises "all those linguistic devices that connect units of language to form a text". Halliday and Hasan (1972) defined five categories of linguistic devices: reference, substitution, ellipsis, lexical cohesion and conjunction.

The rhetorical organization (Bachman, 1995) refers to text composition, ranging from small units, e.g. paragraphs to text types, for example, descriptive, narrative, argumentative or instructive.

Conversational routines (Bachman, 1995) relate to conventions which interlocutors use in order to manage their conversation. According to Schiffrin (1990: 251), participants in a conversation draw on their communicative competence (Hymes, 1972), which includes "the knowledge of linguistic and related communicative conventions that speakers must have to create and sustain conversation maintenance".

The pragmatic competence by Bachman is further divided into the illocutionary competence and the sociolinguistic competence, where the former describes language functions: (a) ideational - to express one's ideas (b) manipulative - used to get someone to do what one would like him/her to do (c) heuristic - the function of language to solve problems and (d) imaginative - to express imaginary ideas.

The sociolinguistic competence (Bachman, 1995) describes the language user's ability to perform illocutionary functions in appropriate ways to the context of specific language use; knowledge of sociolinguistic rules of appropriateness. It requires a number of capacities: sensitivity to differences (a) in variety and (b) in register, (c) to naturalness, and (d) the capability of interpreting cultural references and figures of speech. The sociolinguistic competence shows the importance of considering language user's sociolinguistic differences, e.g. the region of a speaker, his dialect, social class or gender, a group he belongs to (e.g. social dialect). The sociolinguistic competence describes the difference in the use of grammar and vocabulary that language users of different social groups may have. The strategic competence involves the ability to use metacognitive and cognitive strategies in learning, use, and assessment (Purpura, 1999 in Chapelle, 2013: 291)

Widdowson (1989, 1996 in Peterwagner, 2005: 13) differentiated between the notions of "knowledge" versus "ability for use", he stated: "knowing a language is more than knowing linguistic forms, it also involves knowing how they interact syntactically as carriers of meaning being determined by the functions a language has evolved to serve." Language users do not only learn how to create and understand correct sentences as "isolated linguistic units of random occurrence" but also how to use sentences in a proper way to achieve communicative goals.

Widdowson (1984: 28) talks about "the internal function of forms in the language code." He develops the theory on coherence and cohesion. According to Widdowson, the text is cohesive if its elements are linked together and coherent if it makes sense. A text may be cohesive (i.e. linked together) but incoherent (meaningless). Language users are required to know "how to access grammar, and other formal features of language, to express meanings appropriate to the different contexts in which communication takes place" (Widdowson, 1984: 28).

The following figure demonstrates visually the development of some of the linguistic findings on communicative language competence:

Linguistic Competence (Chomsky, 1965)

↓

Communicative Competence (Hymes, 1972) - developed in opposition to Chomsky's Linguistic Competence

↓

Communicative Competence (Canale /Swain, 1981, 1983) - adapted Hymes' notion of *Communicative Competence* (Grammatical competence, Sociolinguistic competence, Discourse competence, Strategic competence)

↓

Communicative Competence (Bachman, 1995) - based on the model of Canale and Swain (1981)
(Organizational competence, Pragmatic competence, Strategic competence)

↓

Communicative Language Competences (in CEFR, 2001, 2018)

Figure 3.2 **The Development of the Linguistic Findings on Communicative Language Competence**

3.2 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

The aforementioned theories on communicative competences formed the basis for the development of the communicative language competences proposed in the document Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001, 2018), which seems to have provided the most comprehensive description of communicative language competences. This framework of competences was chosen for the analysis of lecturers' communicative English language competence in Turiba University. Since there was no any official document in Turiba

University, claiming what level of foreign language knowledge is required of the academic personnel who deliver lectures in English, the author chose levels C2 and C1 (CEFR, 2001, 2018) as standard for the academic personnel.

CEFR provides the definitions of competence, general competence and communicative language competence. Language user's competences "are the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions" and general competences are those "not specific to language, but which are called upon for actions of all kinds, including language activities" (CEFR, 2001: 9). CEFR divides communicative language competences into linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences.

3.2.1 Linguistic Competence

The linguistic competence enables language users to identify phonological, lexical, syntactical structures of the language and to use them in order to form lexical units and sentences.

The ***lexical competence*** entails the ability to use the knowledge of vocabulary. It constitutes lexical and grammatical elements that help to create sentences. The lexical elements of the competence include fixed expressions, for example, phrasal idioms, phrasal verbs, fixed collocations, compound prepositions, single word forms, such as: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and lexical sets. Grammatical elements belong to closed word classes and comprise articles, quantifiers, demonstratives, personal pronouns, question words, prepositions, and conjunctions.

According to the CEFR requirements for levels C2 (mastery or proficient expert) and C1 (advanced) of language proficiency, university lecturers have to "possess a very broad repertoire including idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms" and "show awareness of connotative levels of meaning" (C2 level, CEFR, 2018: 132). They "have a good command of a broad lexical repertoire allowing gaps to be readily overcome with circumlocutions"; "little obvious searching for expressions or avoidance strategies," and "good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms" (C1 level, CEFR, 2018: 134). The vocabulary control (CEFR, ibid.) states that the language user of levels C2 and C1 are able to control their use of lexis and to "consistently correct the appropriate use of vocabulary" (C2); users may have "occasional minor slips, but no significant vocabulary errors." (C1)

The lexical stock of a lecturer who delivers lectures in the soft sciences in a foreign language is comprised of combination of lexical units from General English, English for Special

Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). General English words are mostly high-frequency lexical units and form the basis of the lecturer's discourse; they allow a lecturer to operate with the language: construct sentences, express thoughts in a proper way, form monologues, establish dialogues with the target audience, perform the main functions: ask, answer, instruct, and interrupt.

ESP lexical units may comprise the following types:

- *sub – technical and core – business vocabulary*, that is, the terms which are used in different spheres of science or business and may be applied either in one or the other;
- *technical* – terminology applied in one specific area of science, it accounts for only 9% of the total lexis. (Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 165) in Malavska, 2004).
- *technical abbreviations*;
- *symbols and formulae* , "these items generally form part of learner's knowledge of the subject matter of his speciality"(Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984, 57);
- *sub - technical vocabulary*;
- *highly technical vocabulary*, which equals to the term of "technical "vocabulary (Hutchinson and Waters);
- *other specialist vocabulary* - neologisms, acronyms and coinages which are common in different fields (Cris Kennedy and Rod Bolitho (1984) in Malavska, 2004).
- general language items that have restricted meanings in different disciplines;
- general language items that are used to describe or comment on technical processes or functions in preference to other items with the same meaning, for example *occur* rather than *happen;*
- items used to signal the writer's intentions or evaluation of material presented. (Baker (1988: 92) in Dudley 1998: 82).

EAP vocabulary is a component of a lecturer's metadiscourse and may include academic and research vocabulary that allows delivering a coherent and cohesive lecture in a foreign language, for example, sub-technical vocabulary needed to deliver a lecture professionally. These may be more general than specialist (ESP) words that allow discussing ideas in the academic environment. The ***grammatical competence*** involves the language user's knowledge of morphology and syntax, his knowledge of language rules and ability to form words and sentences. These may include, for instance, elements (e.g. morphs, morphemes-roots, affixes and words); categories (for example, number, case, gender, concrete/abstract, countable/uncountable, (in)transitive, active/passive voice, past/present/future tense, progressive, (im)perfect aspect); classes (e.g.: conjugations, declensions, open word classes: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, closed word classes), structures (e.g. compound and complex words), phrases: (noun phrase, verb phrase, etc.), clauses: (main, subordinate, co-ordinate) and sentences: (simple, compound, complex). The grammatical competence of academic lecturers who deliver soft science lectures (Kashina and Heng, 2013: 133) in a foreign language involves not only the knowledge of basic rules of grammar for everyday use, but also the ability to use the language accurately and efficiently in order to be clear and comprehensive for students. Common reference levels C2 and C1 of language users provide for the minor inaccuracy of a language user, supposing that the user is able to "maintain consistent grammatical control of complex language, even while attention is otherwise engaged (e.g. in forward planning, in monitoring others' reactions)." (C2 in CEFR, 2018: 133) C1 level language users are supposed to "consistently maintain a high degree of grammatical accuracy; errors are rare and difficult to spot." The grammatical competence of academic lecturers comprise not only a solid knowledge of the rules of morphology and syntax, including the ability to make an argumentative public speech, make the analysis of, describe and define concepts, notions, theories and processes, but also to be able to construct complex sentences (e.g. parallel clauses, conditionals, complex clauses, etc.) and to be able to freely make a choice of one grammar form over another, determined by the function of an utterance.

The ***semantic competence*** deals with the language user's awareness and control of meaning. The lexical competence studies meanings of words, whereas grammatical semantics deals with the meaning of grammatical elements, structures and processes.

The ***phonological competence*** is connected with the language user's ability, knowledge of and skill in perception and production of different phonetic elements, including, phonemes, the phonetic features which distinguish phonemes (e.g. voicing, nasality, plosion); the phonetic composition of words (e.g. word stress, word tones), sentence stress and rhythm, and intonation. Lecturers are expected to produce clear and comprehensive spoken discourse, as well as to understand students' speech. Phonological control of C2 and C1 level users implies that they can freely vary intonation and place sentence stress correctly in order to express different shades of meaning, meaningless to say that a lecturer is expected to have clear and natural pronunciation.

The ***orthographic competence*** involves knowledge and skills of language users to produce and to decode the symbols of written language. In the context of an academic lecture, where lecturers use lecture slides in such programmes as Power Point, distribute written handouts and other visual materials to students, lecture presentations and notes are supposed to have the correct spelling of words, the right use of symbols and logographic signs, punctuation marks and contracted forms of words. Except the use of generally-accepted and frequently-used symbols, such as e.g. etc, e.g., i.e., university lecturers have to be able to operate with and to explain the meanings of subject-tailored symbols and signs.

The ***orthoepic competence*** entails the language user's ability to consult a dictionary and the knowledge of the conventions for the representation of pronunciation. Academic lecturers are expected to know the implication of written forms, punctuation marks for phrasing and intonation. C2 and C1 level users' orthographic control expects paragraphing of texts and punctuation to be consistent and helpful (C1 in CEFR, 2018: 137), as well as lecturer's ability to write freely without errors.

3.2.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

The ***sociolinguistic*** competence (CEFR) is the knowledge and skills a language user has acquired in order to use a language appropriately in different communicative situations; it is the ability to deal with linguistic markers of social relations, politeness conventions, expressions of folk-wisdom, register differences, different dialects and accents. It enables the learner to know when to say and what is the most appropriate to say in some specific social context.

Linguistic markers of social relations are elements that enable a language user to choose the appropriate language in situations with different factors, such as relative status, closeness of relation, register of discourse. What concerns a university lecture, for instance, a lecturer decides whether to use a formal, informal or familiar address form for students, depending on the relationship that is established during the course of their communication. So, he can greet students: *Mr. Smith!* (a formal form of address), *John!* (informal), *Dear all!* (familiar).

Important elements that constitute part of sociolinguistic competence and that are worth mentioning in the context of a university lecture are expressions of folk wisdom. These can be proverbs, e.g.: *business is the salt of life, God helps those who help themselves*; idioms, e.g.: *in the black, get down to business, money talks,* etc.; familiar quotations, e.g.: *"If you don't make mistakes, you aren't really trying*" (Coleman Hawkins), *"Patience, persistence and perspiration* *make an unbeatable combination for success"* (Napoleon Hill); expressions of belief, attitude, and values. These elements bring colour to a lecture, affect the perception of a lecture, and foster the interest of listeners to the subject. They may also have intercultural value, e.g. when a lecturer uses proverbs or idioms which have some cultural connotation, but are not too common to students coming from other cultural background. Without doubt the knowledge of idiomatic expressions, quotations and proverbs require an advanced level of communicative language competence and the use of these elements may add a lot to the lecturer's discourse.

One more component of sociolinguistic competence, mentioned in CEFR is **register difference.** CIF differentiates among different levels of formality: *frozen, formal, neutral, informal, familiar* and *intimate.* Almost all of these registers, excluding *frozen* and *intimate* can be noticed in an academic discourse. For example, depending on the relationship established between the lecturer and students, the lecturer may use different ways to start a lecture: *May we now come to an order?* (formal style, and can also be used to keep order in the lecture room); *Shall we begin?* (informal style that can be chosen by a lecturer in situations when the first contact has been established) or O.K. *Let's get down to business* (familiar style that probably could be preferred by one who feels comfortable with the audience, considers members of the audience as colleagues or friends.) C2 and C1 language users are expected to operate freely with all possible registers and to be able to decide when each register is the most appropriate.

Moreover, "one of the main goals of a university education is to learn the specialized register of a particular profession, whether electrical engineering, chemistry, sociology, finance, or English education. Success requires learning the particular language patterns that are expected for particular situations and communicative purposes." (Biber, 2009: 3) Thus, the proper and the extensive use of specialized register by a lecturer encourages students to acquire and to improve different language styles.

Dialect and accent are also considered integral elements of sociolinguistic competence. The sociolinguistic competence includes the ability of the language user to recognize the linguistic markers of social class, national origin, ethnicity or occupational group. Dialect relates to 'variations that are located regionally or socially' (Spolsky, 1998: 33 in Karapetjana), though in a situation when for both parties (a lecturer and students) English is used as a lingua franca, the question of dialect can be of less significance than accent, since in most cases interlocutors have adapted British or American English dialects. Problems with dialects could be noticed working with students from countries, where English is used as the second language of communication or additional language (ESL) and had been majorly influenced by local dialects, e.g. Indian English in India, Pakistani English, or English in Bangladesh – 'Englishes' which are in daily use in government, education and commerce as one of the official languages. There are a number of students originating from these regions, who study at Turiba University, and where soft science subject lecturers complain about linguistic misunderstandings occurring in the course of communication with them.

Thus, CEFR (2018:138) asserts that the sociolinguistic appropriateness of C2 and C1 language users expects them

- 'to have a good command of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms with awareness of connotative levels of meaning;'
- 'to appreciate virtually all the sociolinguistic and sociocultural implications of language used by proficient speakers of the target language and to react accordingly;'
- 'to mediate effectively between speakers of the target language and that of his/her community taking account of sociocultural and sociolinguistic differences.' (C2 level of language proficiency) and
- 'to recognise a wide range of idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms, appreciating register shifts,'
- 'to use language flexibly and effectively for social purposes, including emotional, allusive and joking usage.' (C1 level of language proficiency).

These requirements may apply to subject teachers, who have to work with international students, using English as a lingua franca in the course of their lectures.

3.2.3 Pragmatic Competence

The pragmatic competence (CEFR) is concerned with the language user's knowledge and the ability to organize and structure the discourse (discourse competence) and to perform communicative functions of the language (functional competence). Levinson and Leech proposed that 'pragmatics is the study of meaning in context'. (Levinson (1983) and Leech (1983) in McCarthy 1991:6). Crystal defines pragmatics as 'the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.'(Crystal, 1997: 301)

The construction of cohesive academic discourse cannot be achieved only by using linguistic and sociolinguistic competences, the pragmatic competence implies that a university lecturer 'can reformulate ideas in different linguistic forms in order to give emphasis, to eliminate ambiguity, to be able to adjust what h/she says to the situation and the recipient and can vary formulation of what h/she wants to say.' (CEFR, 2018: 139)

The ***functional competence*** describes the language user's ability to use spoken and written discourse for a particular purpose. The ***discourse competence*** as a component of pragmatic competence is connected with the user's ability to organize sentences in a coherent and cohesive way, by considering such discourse elements as: thematic organization: topic/focus, given/new, cause/effect; style and register; rhetorical effectiveness: cohesion and coherence.

The delivery of soft science lectures by university lecturers in a foreign language requires the appropriate skills and knowledge of discourse organization and the awareness of making the right choices of language units. They should display evidence of being sensitive to appropriateness of using formal devices in expressing and understanding various meanings in different contexts of language use.

However, apart from communicative language competence, the successful realization of an academic lecture requires the lecturer's 'sociocultural knowledge' (CEFR, 2001: 102): lecturer's knowledge of the society and culture of the target audience (students) which may help to establish rapport and foster students' learning processes and be able to establish appropriate interpersonal relations with students, taking into consideration that students' cultural or religious values, beliefs and attitudes can differ from the values of a lecturer; lecturer's 'intercultural awareness' or 'intercultural competence' (CEFR, 2001: 102) – his prior sociocultural experience and knowledge, relation between culture of lecturer and his / her audience as well 'intercultural skills' and 'know-how' (savoir-faire) (CEFR, 2001: 104) - lecturer's ability to bring his/her culture and cultures of the audience into relation with each other. This is especially significant, since the target audience of a university lecture are international students, representing diverse and often very different from one another cultures, and the role of a lecturer is to be able to cooperate with all of these representatives (e.g. Turiba University students studying in English, year 2014: full time, exchange and double degree programme students from Uzbekistan, India, Russia, Germany, Pakistan, Kazakhstan, France, Lithuania and other countries.)

3.2.4 Academic, Interpersonal and Intercultural Competences

Lecturers are both instructors and researchers. A successful lecture requires the lecturer's preparatory work that includes the research of the materials on a subject area, work on new terminology and processing of information preparing lectures; that is why the author of the present research considers that another important competence that is necessary to mention pertaining to a university lecturer is ***academic competence***.

A research was undertaken by McGrew (2013), who developed the model of Academic Competence and Motivation (MACM) in the field of educational psychology. It aimed at helping school psychologists understand better individual differences of learners when dealing with 'learning-related assessments and instructional planning.' The model included three domains: orientation towards self (motivations), volitional controls (cognitive strategies and styles), and orientation towards other (social ability) (McGrew, 2013: 5). The model described conative abilities; such variables as self-belief, motivation and interests, self-regulated learning strategies and conative styles. The research could be of interest if the present work was in the field of psychology, otherwise the study of this research would require writing another dissertation.

In linguistics the concept of *academic competence* was elaborated by Saville-Troike (2006), Kettler, Davies, Elliott's (2009), who defined it as the knowledge needed by learners who want to use L2 primarily to learn about other subjects, or as a tool in scholarly research, or as a medium in a specific professional or occupational field.

As Karpińska-Musiał (2009: 7) pointed out:

> It appears to be legitimate to claim that structuring a lecture to its formal shape requires a lot of skills (linguistic, communicative) and knowledge (subject matter, structure, logical argumentation, expertise, data etc.) All of them constitute the obligatory components of various models of academic competence and usually are classified as professional/disciplinary skills and knowledge.

In the context of a university lecture, this competence describes the lecturer's ability to prepare for a lecture before a lecture: to process the information, to structure a presentation, to be able to study the information and to arrange it in a competent way. This is the process that employs both receptive abilities (reading the relevant literature, publications, listening to or watching audio and video materials; acquiring the specific vocabulary of the field or subject area in a foreign language) and production abilities (compiling lectures, working out methodology) of a lecturer. However, a lecturer is not a sole person in a lecture room; a successful lecture delivery requires interaction with the audience, face-to-face contact with students and; that is why,

interpersonal competence (a competence in social and personal relations) has to be employed. This competence entails social and personal relationship, skills to comprehend students and to establish efficient communication with them, skills to contact and to cooperate with students.

Scholarly interest in interpersonal competence is multidisciplinary, including such fields of study as psychiatry, clinical psychology, communication, social psychology and linguistics. In general this term is defined as the ability of a person to interact effectively with other people (Bochner and Kelly, 1974).

It was noticed that "an interpersonal encounter becomes an intercultural encounter when cultural differences are perceived and made salient either by the situation or by the individual's own orientation and attitudes." (Barrett, Byram, Lázár, 2014: 16)

A lecturer delivering lectures to international students in a foreign language needs to possess highly developed level of intercultural sensitivity. We may consider that communicative competence with all its sub-competences would remain incomplete without ***intercultural competence*** or intercultural communication competence (Skujiņa, Anspoka, Kalnbērziņa, Šalme, 2011), since work in the international context requires intercultural sensitivity, "understanding oneself and others in a context of diversity"; ability "to interact and communicate with those who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations" (Barrett 2014:16), ability to interact outside habitual cultural environment, that is based on the knowledge of habits of one's social and ethnic groups, critical thinking skills and positive attitude towards unknown environment (Skujiņa, 2011).

The official document on *intercultural competence* by the Council of Europe (ibid.) attributes "specific attitudes, knowledge, understanding, skills and actions" to the components of intercultural competence. All of them are needed "to understand oneself and others in a context of diversity, and to interact and communicate with those who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations."(ibid.: 11)

In the context of the present study the most necessary skills of the lecturer would be the

– skills in adapting one's behaviour to new cultural environments – for example, avoiding verbal and non-verbal behaviours which may be viewed as impolite by people who have different cultural affiliations from one's own;
– linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse skills, including skills in managing breakdowns in communication. (ibid.: 16-17)

Having analysed theories of communicative competences and the models of communicative competences, it has become evident that all of them are important in describing the skills, knowledge and abilities of a successful university lecturer that delivers a lecture in a foreign language; however the most comprehensive model is the CEFR model; therefore it has formed the basis of a model for the present research.

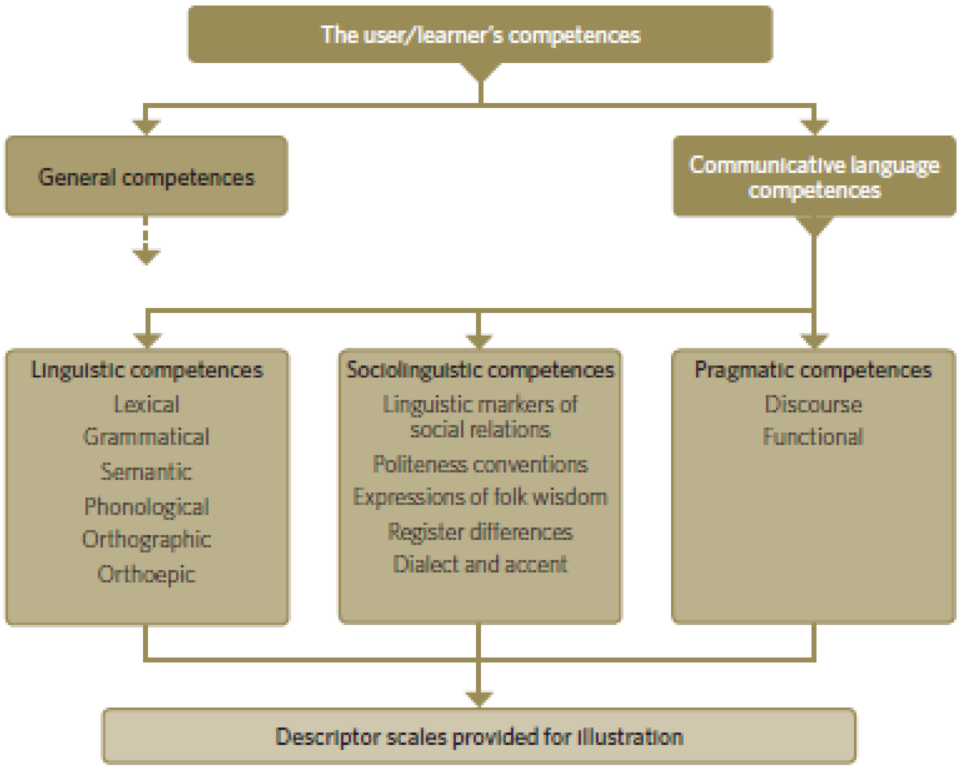


Figure 3.3 **A Partial View of CEFR, The User / Learner's Competence** (CEFR, 2011: 10)

However, the author of the present research considers that a more detailed description of communicative competence of a university lecturer requires adding three more competences: academic, interpersonal and intercultural. These competences require detailed study and analysis and could become the subject for another research.

The present table has been created on the basis of materials presented in *Common European Framework of Reference for Language: Learning, teaching, assessment* (2001) and considering the aforementioned theories on communicative language competence.

Components of the Competence and their Description					
Linguistic Competence	**Sociolinguistic Competence**	**Pragmatic Competence**	**Academic Competence**	**Interpersonal Competence**	**Intercultural Competence**
Lexical competence Lecturer's ability to operate with professional terminology, idioms, set expressions, phrasal idioms, fixed collocations. Lexical accuracy, appropriate use of vocabulary; terminology. **Grammatical competence** Ability to use the grammatical resources of language (e.g. morphology, syntax), avoidance of direct translation of sentence structures from L1 to L2. Ability to comprehend and to express the core ideas, to form phrases and sentences according to the rules of the English language **Semantic competence**	**Registers** Lecturer's awareness and ability to use different registers: frozen, formal, neutral, informal, and familiar. **Sociolinguistic markers** Ability to recognize and to use such linguistic markers as: regional belonging, national origin, ethnicity. **Dialects and accents** Ability to adapt to different dialects and accents and to	**Discourse competence** Lecturer's ability to produce coherent and cohesive discourse, controlling the topic and switching to a new theme. Ability to structure and manage spoken academic discourse in terms of thematic organization, coherence and cohesion, style and register, rhetorical effectiveness. **Functional competence**	Lecturer's ability to learn, to acquire new academic knowledge, the ability to analyse, synthesize the information, to structure a presentation, to be able to study the information and to arrange it in a competent way (compiling lectures, working out methodology) in a foreign language; the ability to present the subject-related information in a	Social, psychological and personal skills that may be independent of other skills. Lecturer's ability to maintain relationships or to establish contact with students; lecturer's wish and skills to cooperate; ability to build the spirit of a team with students; a wish to assist students, the	Lecturer's sociocultural experience and knowledge, relation between culture and his / her audience as well 'intercultural skills' and 'know-how' (savoir-faire) (CEFR, 2001:104). Lecturer's ability to bring his/her culture and cultures of the audience

Lecturer's ability to control the organization of meaning, e.g. lexical semantics (relation of words in context, reference, connotation, collocations, hyponymy, synonyms / antonyms, translation equivalence, etc.) **Phonological competence** Lecturer's proper knowledge and skills in production of phonemes, allophones, phonetic features and phonetic composition of words, sentence phonetics (sentence stress, rhythm and intonation), phonetic reduction. Lecturer's ability to produce clear and comprehensive texts. **Orthographic competence** Knowledge and skills in production of written texts, proper spelling, punctuation marks, etc.	understand peculiarities of students, concerning lexicon, grammar, phonology, vocal characteristics, etc. **Paralinguistics and body language** Conscious and unconscious use of the body language by the lecturer (mimics, gestures, posture, distance) that adds to the verbal information or compensates missing knowledge of the language. (Skujiņa, 2011: 60)	Lecturer's ability to function properly at the micro- functional level of interaction, e.g. : reporting, asking questions, answering questions, expressing and finding attitudes, suasion (suggestions, requests, advice, encouragement), socializing, structuring discourse and at the macro-functional level (description, narration, commentary, explanation, demonstration, instruction, argumentation, persuasion).	coherent and cohesive way.	ability to understand their needs and to respond to them when it is necessary. (Based on the description of Intercultural Efficiency Competence by Vintiša, 2011)	into relation with each other.

Table 3.3 **Communicative English Language Competency Framework for the Academic Personnel**

The diagram below helps to understand the interconnection and the interrelation of the competences required for academic personnel delivering lectures in English.

English Language Competency Framework of the Academic Personnel

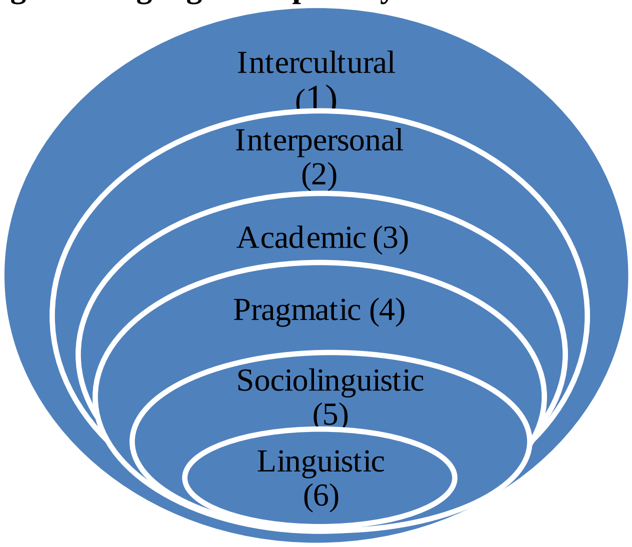


Figure 3.4 **English Language Competency Framework of the Academic Personnel**

(1) Ability to interact with the people of different cultures effectively
(2) Ability to interact with other people effectively
(3) Multidimensional construct consisting of lecturer's skills, attitudes, and behaviours that contribute to success in the lecture room
(4) Functional use of linguistic resources
(5) Knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use
(6) Language, skills and other dimensions of language as a system

We can assume that a person whose aim is to deliver a lecture in a foreign language is a proficient user of the language, who possesses all the possible components of the Communicative competences (CEFR) to function effectively in a language, however if this person does not possess the required academic competence – the skills and ability to acquire new knowledge, he will not be able to succeed in a lecture preparation and delivery. As a result, the whole communication process will fail.

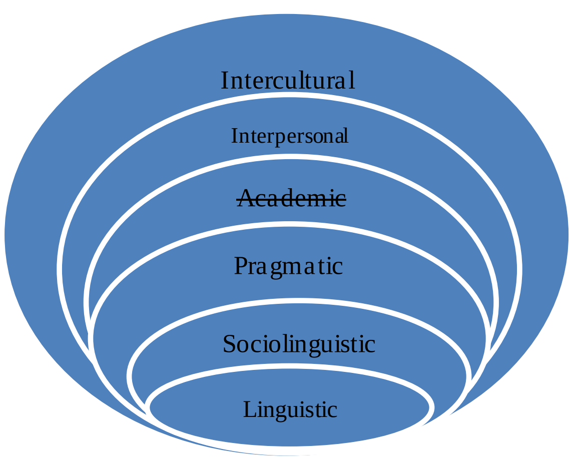


Figure 3.5 **English Language Competency Framework of the Academic Personnel Excluding the Academic Competence**

For example, if a person, who aims to deliver a lecture, possesses all the above-mentioned competences, but experiences communication apprehension (fear to communicate) he lacks interpersonal competence, e.g. he experiences disconfidence, the result may be similar to the previous one – failure of communication, in other words – a lecture will not be delivered, or will be delivered with some problems.

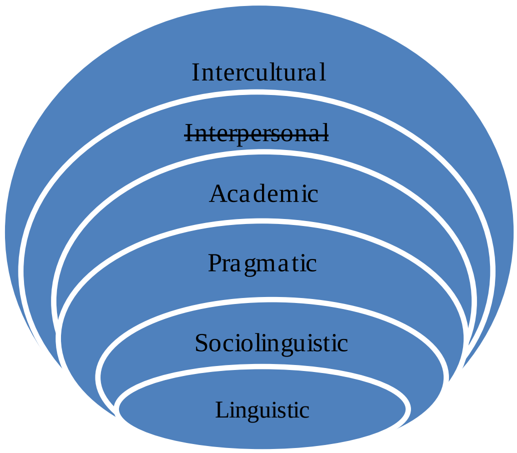


Figure 3.6 **English Language Competency Framework of the Academic Personnel Excluding the Interpersonal Competence**

The last layer – intercultural competence – is of exceptional significance in the context of a lecture, where the target audience is composed of international students with diverse cultural profiles. The lack of this competence may lead to misunderstandings, can result in students' absenteeism and total failure of communication.

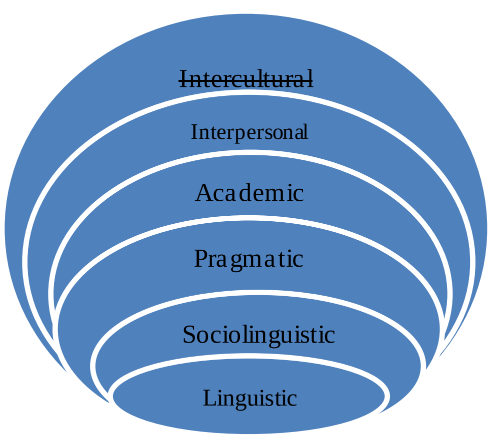


Figure 3.7 **English Language Competency Framework of the Academic Personnel Excluding the Intercultural Competence**

Interim Summary of Chapter 3

The short outline of the development of the concept and models of communicative competence and the overview of how these models can be related to the university academic personnel lecturing in English as a lingua franca enabled to discover the following:

The term competence is one of the most controversial terms in the field of general and applied linguistics. There is a big discrepancy between the initial concept of *Linguistic Competence* by Chomsky and the concept of *Linguistic Competenc*e the way it has been crystallized by contemporary scholars (e.g. Bachman). However, all the models have profoundly benefited the development of the latest version of *Communicative Competence,* which comprises *Linguistic, Sociolinguistic* and *Pragmatic Competences*.

The model of the *Communicative Competence* (on the basis of CEFR) that was developed for the evaluation and assessment of learners' communicative skills can serve as a framework for the model of Communicative language competency of the academic personnel, although any thorough conclusions require further analysis of lecturers' academic discourse.

A soft science university lecture in English, as a lingua franca to international students, requires a lecturer to possess at least 6 language-related competences: linguistic competence (lecturer's knowledge, skills and other dimensions of language as system); sociolinguistic competence (knowledge and skills required to deal with the social dimension of language use); pragmatic competence (ability to produce coherent and cohesive discourse; academic competence (ability to analyse, synthesize and acquire new academic knowledge in order to impact the knowledge of students), interpersonal competence (ability to interact with other people effectively) and intercultural competence (ability and skills to work with people of different cultural background).

CHAPTER 4 SURVEYS OF STUDENTS AND LECTURERS

The present chapter describes the empirical part of the thesis. It explains the methodology used for the study: the methods and techniques and aims to fulfil the objectives of the research by reporting on the results of the survey in the institutional context. It reports on the results of the ordinal-polytomous questionnaires administered to students of BAT and SPBGUE and analyses the data gathered from interviews with students and lecturers. Next, it allows the author to juxtapose the answers of lecturers and students and find similarities, differences and contradictions in the self-assessment of both target groups.

4.1 Exploring Research Methodology of this Research

A broad variety of research methodologies have been in the field of applied linguistics in the recent decades; the author of the present thesis has outlined the approaches employed in this study. Since the aim of the present work was to study the academic discourse in the institutional context, the methodology chosen was varied. The need for this study originated from the reviews of international students about difficulties in the perception of lectures and lecturers' complaints about students' inability to comprehend lectures appropriately. The discussion on the methodology of this study was based on Brown, 2001; Dörnyei, 2007; Litosseliti, 2010; Maxwell, 1992; Tashakkori, and Creswell, 2007. First, the author used the secondary type of research (Brown, 2004), including the study, analysis and review of theoretical literature (books and articles) that enabled to shape the theoretical part (Chapters 1, 2 and 3) and to develop the framework for the empirical part of the present thesis. Primary research, i.e. quantitative, involving data processing that results in numerical data, including questionnaires (Dörnyei, 2007: 24) and qualitative research, that involves open-ended data analysed in a descriptive way including interviews (Brown, 2004, Silverman, 2000) (Chapters 4 and 5) was used. The third method included genre analysis. Move structure of lectures was analysed based on the theoretical findings. Finally discourse analysis that has both the analysis of examples from the corpus and the analysis of the transcribed authentic lecturers' discourse was carried out.

The following contextual factors were considered (Brown, 2004: 479): institutional context, since the study was carried out in universities (a research site), with the target group (population) being university lecturers and students and with the purpose of serving institutional needs; the local context, including social context (language background of lecturers and students) and pedagogical context (teaching methods and lecturing styles of lecturers and note-taking skills of students) (ibid.).

Discourse analysis was chosen as the empirical research method (ibid.: 488), where the object of the present study is the language of the university lecturers (spoken academic discourse). The research employs various research techniques: interviews, questionnaires, lecture observation and recording, discourse analysis. The instruments used to collect the data were designed on the basis of theoretical studies and the patterns revealed were investigated through a corpus of discourse data. Mullany in Litosseliti (2010: 39) considered that mixed methods contribute to the research and "have a role to play in overcoming some of the challenges of the workplace and as a site of research that is notoriously difficult in terms of gaining access and collecting data". Therefore the author used mixed methods for data collection and analysis, including lecture observations and recordings, interviews, and questionnaires. Data gathering, the study and the analysis of data were carried out with the help of different software, by means of mechanization (Davies and Elder, 2007: 142):

- the lecturers' discourse was recorded on a Dictaphone- IC Recorder Sony ICD – UX71 with the prior permission of the participants;
- the recorded texts was transcribed with the help of the computer programme *Listen and Write*
- WordSmith Tools 6.0 allowed to create and to analyse the concordances from the selected lectures.

The outcome of this research has been presented in a descriptive manner. It focused on the research of naturally occurring spoken language of lecturers in the context of its use, i.e. through discourse. The discourse analysis focused on lexical and grammatical features as well as the functional language within the corpus of authentic lectures.

The participants included lecturers and students from BAT and SPBGUE; they were chosen randomly from the groups that were visited by the author, based on their desire to participate in the study. Difficulty with data collection (recording lectures) was determined: firstly, by the complexity of the access to the lectures - since the author, a lecturer herself, was not able to attend the lectures of her colleagues during the semester as her working times coincided with other lecturers' working hours; secondly, by the sensitivity to ethical issues (Davies, 2004: 497) - some lecturers were reluctant to deliver lectures in the presence of the researcher. As a result, the target group was chosen randomly.

The lectures that were visited, recorded, accessed online and transcribed were all soft science subjects rather than hard subjects, because study programmes implemented at BAT are in the field of soft sciences.

The data on the quality of lectures delivered and its perception was gathered through a survey of students and lecturers and through observation of lectures; the data gathered was then compared and analysed.

To ensure the reliability and validity of the research the author employed triangulation (Brown, 2004: 141) which is the use of different types or sources of data, multiple theories, or multiple methods. Denzin in Litosseliti (2010: 34) provided a taxonomy of triangulation that is divided into data triangulation (the use of more than one method for data collection), investigator triangulation (work of more than one researcher), theoretical triangulation (the use of more than one theoretical stance) and methodological triangulation (the application of more than one methodology).

The author of the present research used

- data triangulation by means of collection of data for the research from different sources (e.g. lecturers, students, recorded lectures);
- theory triangulation, i.e. several theoretical frameworks were used: foundations of genre studies on the basis of findings by scholars of the Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) (Johns, 2015; Freedman, 1999, 2001; Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; Miller, 1986, 1994, 2014; Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), such as Halliday (1978, 1985, 2007), Halliday and Hasan (1985/1989), Martin (2012, 2015), Trappes Lomax (2004),the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) genre theory that was the most applicable for the present research since the area of interest of these scholars (Swales, 1990, 2000, 2001, 2004; Bhatia, 2004, 2013; Flowerdew, 2011, 2015; Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 2002 and StJohn, 1998) included both spoken and written language in academic and professional settings; discourse studies (Swales, 1990, 2004; Flowerdew, 2015; Brown and Yule, 1983; Schiffrin 1994; Candlin, 1997; Van Dijk, 2001, 2008, 2015; Johnstone, 2002; Biber, 2006; Crawford Camiciottoli, 2007; Chaurdon and Richards, 1986; Hyland, 2005a, 2005b, 2006, 2009, 2012; Young, 1994; Flowerdew and Tauroza, 1995; Swales & Malcewski, 2001); steps in analyzing genres (Bhatia, 2013), van Dijk's (2008) discourse genres; theories pertaining to the academic lecture genre (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Chafe, 1982; Goffman, 1981; Helal, 2013; Aguilar, 2004; Kristeva, 1986; Fairclough, 1992; Foucalt, 1969;

Fairclough, 2003; Hyatt, 2005); the theory on structuring an academic lecture through the overview of move analysis of SFL scholars (Sinclair, 1972; Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975, 2002; Young, 1994) and ESP genre studies (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 2013; Thompson, 1994, Lee, 2009; Flowerdew, 2013); the theory on note-taking and its interconnection with the listening skills (Munby, 1978; Rost, 1990; Chela-Flores, 1993; Field, 1998; Al-Musalli, 2001 and 2015); the role of working memory (Mueller and Oppenheimer, 2014; Carter, Greenberg and Walker, 2016); the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001, 2018) and works on communicative competence by Halliday and Hasan (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), Bachman (1995), Schiffrin (2001), Bagaric (2007) as well as

- methodological triangulation by using qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection (survey, genre analysis and discourse analysis).

4.2 Analysis of Students' Questionnaires and Interviews

The empirical research was carried out in Turiba University during the first semester of the academic year 2014-2015 and Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance (SPBGUE) during the second semester of 2015-2016 and consisted of two stages – administration of written questionnaires and follow-up face-to-face interviews. The participants constituted a group of Latvian, full-time international and Erasmus students studying at Turiba University in the English language, and Erasmus students studying at SPBGUE. Questionnaires were sent to three hundred students. Eighty-eight students, chosen on random basis, filled in self-completed questionnaires, the results of the questionnaires filled in by Turiba University students are shown in the tables in the appendices. The questionnaire consisted of ten open-ended and closed-ended questions. The advantages of open-ended questions considered by the researcher included the possibility to get qualitative data and that the responses were not influenced by a pre-arranged set of answers. Respondents could provide information to clarify their answers. Closed–ended questions provided quantitative information that was possible to count. The questionnaire included multiple choice questions (multiple responses). The advantages of closed-ended questions included quantitative data (counted in numbers and percentage), the meaning of questions was clearer to the respondents; respondents were more likely to provide the exact information that was sought. The first two questions aimed at finding out background information about students – their national identity, first language; questions three and four provided information about the year of studies and the field of studies, including such as Business Administration, Finance and Banking, Tourism and Hospitality, Law, Public Relations and others. Questions five and six aimed at discovering how long students studied English and their assessment of their level of proficiency (C1 - advanced, B2 - upper – intermediate, B1 – intermediate, A2 - lower-intermediate or elementary, CEFR, 2018). Question seven aimed to find out if it was the first experience of studying in English or students had had this experience before. Question eight aimed to find out students' skills and competences of the English language, the requirements for B2 level were chosen. Students were asked to assess their language fluency, for example, if they have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English or if they can read in English with ease all forms of the written language; or if I they can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English and others – eight statements altogether. Question nine gave a number of subjects and expected students to choose the subjects which they studied in English. Question ten aimed at discovering what difficulties students come across while listening to lectures delivered in a foreign language. A number of problems were offered to students to choose from, including: having difficulties to understand a lecturer's speech because s/he speaks fast; does not repeat the main idea; has problems with pronunciations; makes grammatical mistakes; is not able to make understandable a context/ idea of the professional topic; fails to give a logical and clear lecture; uses complicated professional terminology.

The first version was piloted among 15 Latvian and Erasmus students who attended the author's course on Intercultural Communication. The answers allowed understanding the necessity in additional points to be added to the last question. The author asked the next groups of students to feel comfortable adding additional comments to the questions, especially the last one. Statistical data on students and their answers given in percentage are shown in detail in the Appendix 2. Here the analysis of the question ten and students' additional remarks are provided.

Eight students provided additional comments to the questionnaires. All of them were of Upper-Intermediate (4) and Advanced (4) levels of the English language proficiency, in which three students were from Latvia and 5 were international students from France, Malaysia, Belarus and Uzbekistan (2). The answers helped to understand students' individual learning needs as well as different cultural aspects of education. The author kept the original students' texts, so that to see and to be aware of the language problems they have.

The additional remarks helped to understand the students' expectations from a lecture and a lecturer. A female student from Uzbekistan (Upper-Intermediate, second year of bachelor's programme) noted that some lecturers chose a monotonous style of lecture, as well as mentioned that when a student had to prepare for assessment he needed to find extra information by himself. She emphasized that a lecturer should provide more additional information for students: “When I should prepare to exam or test I should find extra information by myself and it takes a lot of time”. This could be explained by the fact that culture of education in the countries of Central Asia is different from the Baltic States. In an Islamic-rooted high-power distance high-context Uzbekistan, the lecturer is an authority, a trustworthy person who performs a role of a Guru; students show bigger “respect for scholars” (Lewis, 2006:386), expect the lecturer to be the major source of information, whereas Latvians, for example, belong to a low-context group of people and practise more horizontal lecturing style, where the role of the lecturer is that of a facilitator, mentor, motivator, instructor rather than a sole-information giver. This characteristic could partially explain why lecturers in the universities of Latvia expect independent work and individual student’s involvement in the study process by reading extra materials and doing individual work.

Students from Uzbekistan complained that lecturers in Latvia pay more attention to local students and put them higher grades. This comment can be explained by the fact that the Uzbek people “like personal attention and wish to think that you are doing business on a personal basis,” (Lewis, 2006: 387). In other words, in order to reach successful results in the teaching-learning process, a student – lecturer relationship should be considered also from the cultural point of view.

Several students mentioned the lecturing style of academic personnel as one of the problems that did not add to the learning process: “The lecture should make us as participants in his lecture, not just listeners” (a student from Belarus). A student from Malaysia (Upper – Intermediate, 1MBA) mentioned that some lecturers preferred a reading style: “their lecturing style usually is reading the slide from the computer or paper without much explaining about the point. In this case, probably we (students) can read slides ourselves and understand them ourselves. A lecturer usually spends 1.5 or 2 hours on the presentation and the student just wastes his time sitting and waiting.” Another student from France (Upper – Intermediate, 3 BA) also stated the lack of interactive communication in a lecture: “That's a problem because we should discuss together and participate in lectures.” A student from Belarus added that “some lecturers cannot keep the attention of students, because of a monotonous speech, there is no contact with the audience, (by contact I mean asking questions, opinion, or giving tasks). I'm interested in studies a lot, but after 15-30 minutes, my attention is fading and I thinking of something else. So, I gain knowledge only while preparing for tests." These remarks concern the lack of interactiveness in a lecture, which is an integral part of the learning process. As Northcott (2001: 6) put it, "interactive style is one which provides for and encourages various levels and types of student participation", whereas non-interactive style would have strong teacher control and little audience input (Morell 2004 in Camiciotolli 2007: 50). Thus, one of the most important preconditions of a successful lecture might be an interactive style with students' involvement and ensuring their feedback during a lecture. A Malaysian student mentioned the problem of pronunciation which, in his opinion, hinders appropriate lecture comprehension. However, this could be the question of cultural and linguistic difference of various people whose L1 differs from English which is a FL for Latvian lecturers on dialectical, grammatical, synthetic and on other levels, as well as lecturers' English is often affected by the Latvian or Russian accent, sentence structure and grammatical constructions. The question of pronunciation of academic personnel which was mentioned as an obstacle in lecture perception by the largest number of students will be discussed in more detail later in the present thesis.

The students from Latvia shared the opinion of international students concerning the interactiveness of lectures: "From my point of view, some lecturers do not interact a lot with the audience and consequently don't make students be interested in the subject. So the lecturers are actually just going through prepared slides and that's it. I think it would be better and more interesting if they spoke more from themselves and communicated with the students." (Advanced level, 3BA). Another student (Advanced level, 1BA) mentioned that the lecturers performed quite well, but some students had inadequate language skills and that made the process less efficient.

Regarding the language skills that were mostly developed while studying in English, it was mentioned that in the first two years of studies these were mostly listening and speaking, "because that's what we do during the lectures' time (listening professors or presenting some works), reading skills are "fully on the shoulders of the students, if you want to read some additional literature", whereas writing skills are advanced in later stages of studies, starting from year three. All findings of the students' questionnaire are presented in graphs and tables in the Appendix 2 of the present thesis. The results of questionnaires of students are analysed and compared with the results of the survey of lecturers in subchapter 4.6 Comparative Analysis of Students' and Lecturers' Self- Assessment.

4.3 Interviews with Students

The students' comments in the questionnaire made the author of the present research consider working out an open-ended interview questions for the students. The aim of the interview was to discover in more detail what difficulties the students experienced studying in a foreign language. The main questions that were of interest included those about lecturing styles, differences that students see in studying in L1 and FL, how lecturers choose to present the new concepts, international aspect of studies, public speaking skills and presentation skills of lecturers, as well as the necessity of the use of discourse markers as an integral part of spoken academic discourse. Additionally, the students were asked about lecturers' pronunciation and to what extent it affected lecture comprehension. The interviews were recorded on an IC Recorder Sony ICD – UX71. The recorded spoken discourse was further analysed and typed in the Word version. The data received from the interviews are summarized below as narrative. Eleven students from Poland (3), Ukraine (1), Lithuania (1), Belarus (2), Uzbekistan (1), France (2) and Latvia (1) were asked a range of questions about their study experience in Latvia and Russia. The students ranged from the intermediate to advance level of English language proficiency. The respondents provided feedback on thirteen questions. The questions, recorded answers and the analysis are seen below.

1. Why did you choose to study in English?

The students were asked why they chose to study in English not in their native language. All respondents answered that the main reason was the international status of English; they also emphasized the opportunity to enhance language skills along with the acquisition of subject knowledge. A female student from Belarus mentioned that she did not have a chance to study in English at universities in her home country; a male student from Uzbekistan mentioned the quality and lower tuition fee as well as better employment opportunities in the EU countries upon graduation. All of them stated that the language skills improved from the start of their studies at Turiba University or at SPBGUE. The Erasmus students who studied in L1 in their home university mentioned that they managed to raise their level of English even within one semester of studies. Another factor was that most of the literature was available in English which simplified the study process. The French students stated that knowing another language was highly important in the sphere of Tourism and added that the fact that there was a necessity of changing French mentality in knowing only the French language at least in the sphere of Tourism.

2. What difference do you see in learning in a foreign language? What are the benefits in comparison to studies in L1?

The respondents were asked if they saw any differences between studying in L1 and English. Most of them stated that studying in a foreign language forces "brain work twice harder" by experiencing a double load – first translating into the mother tongue or looking for explanations of new concepts and only then memorizing or activating this knowledge. Some students (from Lithuania, Uzbekistan, Belarus) of lower level of English admitted that they experienced difficulty in expressing themselves due to the limited word stock in FL which is the reason why studying in native language is easier because a student can express himself better.

3. Has the material in different lectures been presented in an orderly way?

To a question concerning the orderly structure of lectures, the students had different answers. The majority said that the material was presented coherently, although it depended on each lecturer. Some lecturers were more eloquent and wandered off the topic which hindered the perception of lectures. The Erasmus students from France mentioned that since some lectures overlapped in time, sometimes it was difficult to learn new material of a missed lecture because lecturers did not provide handouts.

4. Have you been able to understand the content of all lectures?

This question aimed at finding out whether the students experienced difficulties with understanding lecture content. They answered that there was a period of adaptation which took from one to two months. Some subjects were more problematic to understand fully, e.g. when the students of the Faculty of Tourism had to study Information technologies, Psychology, Sociology, Accounting, Financial Management, Commercial Law or Civil Law. When they encountered new terminology outside the business and tourism fields the content was less clear and required more individual work by means of reading, translating, getting consulting lecturers or group-mates. Some students mentioned that they experienced the necessity of reading professional literature in L1 while preparing for tests at the beginning of the study process. Some lower English language level students stated that they experienced difficulty with understanding the content of lectures at the beginning of the study year, so they asked the group mates from the same country to help in translation into their mother tongue; however, after a month of studies, the understanding barrier disappeared.

5. How did you check whether you understood the content properly and was the lecturer helpful in clarifying unclear issues?

The respondents were asked how they checked if they understood the content properly and whether the lecturers were helpful in clarifying unknown concepts. Generally they answered that they applied for assistance to the lecturers who were always competent and eager to explain all unclear issues. Other ways used by the students to check misunderstandings were through individual work after the lecture and checking for explanations and translations in dictionaries on their telephones and tablets in order not to interrupt the lecturer's speech. It was stated that sometimes it was problematic with other students of lower level language proficiency, and then the lecturers were trying to adapt their style of speech to students' needs.

6. Was new discipline – specialized terminology a cause of difficulty?

Answering the question about the difficulty of specialized terminology, all students stated that after the acquisition of basic terminology in the field of study (i.e. Tourism), which took them several months, they did not experience problems with lexis, most of the difficulties were with the terminology from other fields, such as Accounting, Financial Management, Psychology, Law, Sociology and Philosophy. Some concepts were not known in the mother tongue, so it took around 2-3 weeks to get used to the terminology in order to read subject literature in English, although some respondents confessed that they preferred reading in the mother tongue.

7. Was the content illustrated by helpful examples? How was it realized?

The answers to the question concerning what examples lecturers provided for better understanding of content included practical examples to illustrate theory, personal experience shared by a lecturer, examples from literature as well as the use of visuals (e.g. pictures, videos and graphs.) Almost everybody mentioned the role of a student in the process of exemplification. One student stated the necessity of finding her own examples for concepts. All agreed that each lecturer had an individual approach in making examples as well as every student had an individual learning style that made one method more successful than another, e.g. "I have visual memory. The most helpful for me were - statistics, charts, figures, numbers, and pictures." "I like when the idea was explained with samples from a totally different area, simple examples for difficult concepts."

8. Taking into account the international environment of your studies did courses contain international references to the topics presented?

Since the research covered academic lectures and their realization in the intercultural context, the author wanted to discover whether international references were given by lecturers and how this was realized. The respondents mentioned that the majority of lecturers give more international examples than Latvian, and most of the students appreciate that: "all lecturers are aware that it is an international environment and use this for the benefit of culturally-mixed group." The majority answered that they appreciated when the lecturers involved students in example making, invited students to share their practical knowledge about their countries. Interactiveness was emphasized as an integral part of a lecture.

9. What in your opinion should be changed in lecturers' lecturing styles?

The questionnaires showed that one of the reasons why the ability to comprehend spoken academic discourse might fail was an inefficient lecturing style. In order to reveal what lecturing styles were common in the university, and what styles were the most favourable for the students, the opinions were asked of students. Their responses can be categorized into two types:

1. *Participatory or interactive lectures* – "close-to-life" discussions with involvement of students, the smaller the size of the group, the more students can get involved in a discussion. As one student stated; "The most fruitful lectures were when the lecturer forgot about his plan and started an improvised discussion with students."
2. *Conversational style* – a lecturer speaks informally, with or without notes. The students admitted the positive role of Power Point presentations accompanying an oral speech of a lecturer. They claimed that since there was an average group size the best lectures were and consequently better comprehension of lectures was achieved when the students were involved in the discussion.

Inefficient lecturing styles mentioned by the respondents included *reading style* – when interaction is nullified, and the dominant role in communication is of a lecturer. As it was noted by a respondent, when there is "no interaction, there is no contact. Lecturers come, speak what they have to speak and leave and they are not interested in whether they had delivered what they had to deliver." The style on which a lecturer follows notes/slides without eye contact with the audience, without expectation of students' feedback, with the lack of public speaking skills does not add to material acquisition. "Some lecturers read the materials; they do not share personal experience, or do not interact or do not give case studies it does not involve students in the process." When asked why the students thought lecturers chose that inefficient style, possible reasons given were inappropriate level of language skills of the academic personnel and the lack of public speaking experience in the English language. The students noticed correlation between language proficiency and interactiveness - the less confident a lecturer felt himself in his ability to communicate in the foreign language, the more he preferred to choose a self-centred approach of lecturing style, that is, reading from slides.

Another factor to be noted is the cultural aspect of education. The Erasmus students from France noted that the lecture was made in two stages in their home universities – the first was a theoretical course delivered by a lecturer during several weeks and then there was students' practical work – where they worked in a group or individually doing some project work. The difference in style was confusing for those students.

10. To what extent did lecturer's presentation skills affect lecture comprehension?

Although almost 30% of the students, who participated in filling out the questionnaires, mentioned the need to improve lecturers' presentation-making and public-speaking skills, those skills were evaluated higher at the interview stage. The received comments concerning what exactly might be improved showed that some lecturers could work on the development of a more interactive style, could have better contact with the audience, even at the level of establishing eye-contact. The students mentioned the disadvantage of the reading style which did not motivate the audience and so did not foster efficient accumulation of knowledge.

11. Was it time – consuming to study in English?

When asked about whether studying in English is more time-consuming than studying in L1, the students provided diverse answers. Both higher and lower level students admitted that studies in English required the knowledge of basic professional terminology, which is acquired in the first months of studies. Part of them, especially the upper-intermediate and advanced level students, said that they did not notice any difference studying in their native language or in English, although lower level students said that they needed some adaptation period before they could tune in. The strategies students mentioned that helped them in their study process included: translation into the mother tongue during and after the class, extra work outside the lecture room, code – switching while taking notes, reading extra materials in their native language while preparing to take tests and exams in English. The availability of learning materials in English, which are not always available in other languages, was mentioned as a positive factor by the students.

12. Did lecturers use discourse markers (DMs)? Did the markers help to follow the lecturer's speech?

The researcher wanted to know whether the students noticed and saw the necessity of using discourse markers (DMs) in spoken academic discourse. The majority confirmed that there was a correlation between the use of linking words as public speaking elements that, in their opinion, helped to perceive lectures and to comprehend a lecturer's speech. The students said that they understood the function of these expressions: "they help to understand the switch of topics and themes, however the words used were closer to informal style rather than formal conventions, something like: "OK, next slide, let's go further". The change of slide in the screen also helped to understand the shift of topic and idea." The students asserted that DMs make spoken speech easier to process; they make it different from written discourse. The majority of respondents agreed that lecturers used them in the course of their speech: "These elements help to follow the structure, passing from one thought of a speaker to another. They help us to understand where there is a contrast in the sentence." "It helps to follow, to compare things, to conclude. If a lecturer does not use, it is more difficult to follow his speech." Another factor noticed by the respondents was that the use of DMs helped a lecturer to control his mental processes as well as assisted in the perception of a lecture: "Yes, they help lecturers to fill in the gap, as well as, most of the lecturers do not speak English as L1, they help lecturers to fill the gap as well as students to understand. It is more human than written in the book."

13. Did you experience any difficulty with teachers' pronunciation? Do problems in pronunciation affect the listening comprehension of a lecture?

The questionnaires showed that 24 students saw pronunciation as a difficulty or an aspect that lecturers needed to improve. It was interesting to analyse students of which countries they were and what level of language skills they had. It turned out that the problem with the lecture perception was encountered by 20 international students from such countries as Azerbaijan, Belarus, France, Georgia, Germany, India, Malaysia, Russia, Spain, Tajikistan, Turkey, Ukraine and Uzbekistan and only 4 Latvian students. What is more, the problem of lecture comprehension caused by lecturers' pronunciation was mentioned by the students of all language levels almost in the identical proportion: seven students of advanced, ten of upper – intermediate and seven of intermediate levels. The conclusion that might be drawn here is that irrespective of a language level, the majority of the students who experienced some difficulty with lecture comprehension because of lecturers' pronunciation were international students both in Turiba University and in St. Petersburg. The reasons could be that domestic lecturers had acquired a local accent which was not familiar with other language speakers as well as often there was "the incorporation of features of the L1 into the knowledge system of the L2" (Ellis, 1994: 28). It was admitted that the difficulty with pronunciation was a temporary one until the students got used to individual characteristics of each lecturer. Due to the lecturers' imperfect pronunciation, international students experienced some difficulties in the perception of lectures, that is why, they often could not recognize some words and while focusing on them lost the track of a lecturer's speech. The respondents from Latvia and Lithuania in Turiba University and the Russian Federation from SPGUEF responded that they did not notice a lot of pronunciation problems since their pronunciation was close to that of local lecturers', however, some of them noted that they experienced difficulty in following some guest lecturers' speech since there was a strong affect of their L1. The students also stated that they sometimes experienced problems in understanding each other: "I cannot understand some students from Turkey, Azerbaijan, and India when they speak" (a student from Belarus). Higher level students from the Baltic States, who did not indicate pronunciation as a big problem that complicated their lecture comprehension process, mentioned, however, that the only difficulty they might experience was that bad pronunciation "makes you put an effort in listening, your ear works harder" (a student from Latvia).

Interim Summary of Subchapters 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3

Having questioned and interviewed a number of students about their experience of studying in English in Turiba University and SPBGUE, it has become evident that the environment of a foreign language used in lectures, socializing with other students and fulfilling tasks in English develop all English language skills. However, in order to improve the language, to develop professional lexical competence, students need special training in lecture comprehension. Besides, subject teachers should have adequate communicative English language competence to deliver the lectures successfully. To make a clear and coherent speech a lecturer should organize his speech and provide practical examples from the subject area. The presentation is successful when a lecturer has good contact with the audience, keeping eye-contact and involving the audience into the discussion.

Interaction with students and the involvement of them in discussion is one of the factors enhancing academic lecture comprehension. Student – focused communication during the lecture and group work assists in lecture comprehension of international students using English as the language of studies.

Academic personnel can help in clarifying ideas while delivering a lecture, however, students can sometimes use peer – help thereby not interrupting the lecturer.

Students with lower level language competence may experience difficulties in following fast speed of lecture delivery; this should be considered by a lecturer choosing the speed of delivery and consequently having more repetition of the main concepts and ideas.

Theoretical subjects with abundant number of concepts, new professional lexis and ideas should be provided with sufficient theory, adequate clarification of terminology and good international examples for students for whom the topic area is new.

Successful perception of lecturer's speech may be fostered by good presentation skills of a lecturer – where the speech rate is controlled, the intonation and pitch of the voice are changed.

The most successful lecturing styles according to students' answers are the *conversational style* and *participatory lecture*, which actively involve learners in the process of discussion rather than making them passive listeners.

Discourse markers assist in lecture comprehension, helping to follow the start, shift of the topic and conclusions.

Lecturer's accent and difficulties with pronunciation may cause misunderstanding of lecture content by students and may affect discourse comprehension.

4.4 Note-Taking as a Separate Genre of Academic Lecture. Questionnaires and Interviews

The next stage included a more detailed study of students' lecture comprehension through the analysis of their note-taking skills. A questionnaire and an interview were designed to check the reliability and validity of the theoretical findings of the research on note-taking.

The questionnaire (attached in Appendix 4 of the present thesis) was sent to 100 students in Word format, PDF format and using the programme Google Format. Twenty four respondents provided feedback on the questionnaire. The target audience were Erasmus and full-time students of Turiba University and Erasmus students of St. Petersburg State University of Economics. All students study in programmes where English is used as a lingua franca both by lecturing personnel and students.

There were eight students from Germany, three students from Turkey, five students from Latvia, two students from Belarus, one from Portugal, one from France, one from Korea, one student from Netherlands, one student from Tajikistan and one student from China. In total there were two students of B1 level, representing Portugal and Turkey, three students of B2 level

(Latvia and Turkey), thirteen students of C1 level (Germany, France, Turkey, Belarus, Tajikistan and China) and six students of C2 level (Latvia, Netherlands and Germany). All respondents were bachelor level students.

In addition to the questionnaire interviews were conducted at Turiba University with eleven bachelor programme students of B1, B2, C1 and C2 levels. The interviewees represented Poland, Latvia, Belarus, Lithuania, Ukraine, Uzbekistan and France. All of them attended lectures in English as Erasmus or full-time students.

4.4.1 Analysis of Feedback on the Questionnaire

Twenty four respondents provided feedback on the questionnaires. Question 1 helped to reveal the level of students' language competence. Questions of Section 2 aimed at finding out whether students take notes and whether they consider note-taking an important element of the study process. Nineteen students out of 24 answered positively that they regularly take notes, five confessed that they do not take notes on a regular basis; however answering the question about the necessity of note-taking skills the majority (22 students) of respondents answered positively.

The researcher wanted to ascertain which method of note-taking (questions of Section 3) is the most popular among students today. Respondents had to choose among Pen and paper, Laptop note-taking or both methods. Twenty three students replied that they preferred the Pen and paper method, 9 students chose both ways of note-taking and 1 student admitted taking notes solely using the laptop.

Since the goal of the study was to determine the extent to which students are good at note-taking, as well as whether the note-taking process is more dependent on the students' skills of taking notes or the lecturers' competence of delivering coherent and cohesive lectures, two-fold questions were asked.

One category of questions (Section 4) was aimed at identifying how proficient students are at taking notes, id est., to discover whether students use special note-taking techniques, for example, abbreviations and short forms, special symbols, non-verbal cues (facial expression, hand and body signals), as opposed to writing full sentences when taking notes.

Having analysed the answers provided it was discovered that 21 students out of 24 use abbreviations and short forms, only seven students use special symbols, nine students look for non-verbal cues and nine students write full sentences when taking notes. These findings showed that although the majority of students are C1 and C2 level students this does not guarantee highly developed note-taking skills.

Another set of questions (Section 5) was aimed at finding out what exactly students may misunderstand in lecturers' discourse. There were 11 questions based on Al-Musalli's (2015) table of classification of listening skills and included phonological skills: the ability to discriminate the words that sound similar, knowledge of intonation patterns, stress and pitch; lexical skills: getting the direct meaning of words, phrases and sentences, making appropriate choice of what they mean depending on the context; inferential skills: lectures' attitude, intention, motivation and purpose and textual skills: recognition of the main ideas. Table 4.1 shows the number of positive and negative answers to the questions concerning listening skills of students.

Table 4.1 **Possible Difficulties Students Encounter while Listening to Lectures in English**

When listening to a lecture I **sometimes do not understand**:	Yes	No
1. Lecturer's intonation or stress	**11**	**13**
2. Some specialized terminology	**17**	**7**
3. Idioms (they are not clear)	**11**	**13**
4. Pronunciation of some specific words because I do not know them	8	16
5. Pronunciation of some specific words because the way they are pronounced by the lecturer differs from how I am used to pronouncing them	**16**	**8**
6. Use of anaphora	3	21
7. Use of cataphora	4	20
8. Where the lecturer starts the new idea and where he finishes it	8	16
9. The oral form of a word (I do not recognize the word)	9	15
10. Lecturer's dialect	**12**	**12**
11. Lecturer's idiolect	6	18

It is to be noted that irrespective of the language proficiency all students face difficulty in listening and consequently understanding lectures to some extent. However, the major problems identified by students were the lecturers' use of specialized terminology (16 respondents marked it as an obstacle to understanding the lecture) and the pronunciation of some specific words by them. Almost half the respondents mentioned the lecturers' intonation as well as the usage of idioms (11 respondents out of 24) as a source of difficulty. Twelve students marked the lecturers' dialect as a barrier to understanding their lectures.

Ten questions of Section 6 (Table 4.2) helped discover what difficulties in note-taking students may encounter in connection with the quality of the lecture. Students were asked to choose what problems they have while listening to a lecture. The table below demonstrates positive and negative answers provided by students.

Table 4.2 **Students' Feedback on Some Deficiencies in Lecture Delivery by Lecturers**

Choose what is characteristic to you while listening to a lecture	**Yes**	**No**
1. I sometimes miss the idea while taking notes	**16**	**8**
2. I cannot always manage the lecturer's speech rate, it is too fast	**11**	**13**
3. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer does not explain the new concept	**11**	**13**
4. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer changes the theme too fast	**14**	**10**
5. I cannot take proper notes because I do not understand the meaning of unfamiliar items and ideas	**7**	17
6. I cannot recognize where the main and supporting idea is	3	21
7. I cannot take notes because sentences are too long and I lose the track of the main idea	**7**	17
8. I cannot take proper notes because I do not understand the meaning of a word in that specific context	6	18
9. I cannot take proper notes because the lecturer does not give clear hints where the ideas start, finish, change (no use of discourse markers or logical connectors)	**10**	**14**
10. I do not understand the attitude of the lecturer to the message	4	20

The results showed that the major problems students experienced with respect to the quality of a lecture were as follows: they sometimes miss the main idea while taking notes (16 students out of 24 admitted it), the speed of the lecture was too fast for eleven respondents, the lecturer failed to explain unclear terms (11 out of 24) and the inadequate use of discourse markers or logical connectors by lecturers (10 students of 24).

The researcher was interested in ascertaining whether there is a correlation between the note-taking skills and the language competence of students, as well as whether the quality of the lecture comprehension depends only on the students' level or also on the lecturers' competence in delivering lectures.

A more thorough analysis of the answers (Table 4.3) based on the students' levels showed that almost all B1 and B2 level students faced problems in understanding intonation and stress, specialized terminology and idioms, as well as the pronunciation of some specific words by the lecturer that may differ from their own pronunciation.

Table 4.3 **Major Difficulties Students Encounter while Listening to Lectures in English**

Language level →	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**
Total number of respondents → (100%)	2	3	13	6
Lecturer's intonation or stress	1 (50%)	3 (100%)	5 (38%)	2 (33%)
Some specialized terminology	2 (100%)	3 (100%)	10 (85%)	2 (33%)
Idioms (they are not clear)	2 (100%)	3 (100%)	6 (46%)	0 (0%)
Pronunciation of some specific words because the way they are pronounced by the lecturer differs from how a student is used to pronouncing them	2 (100%)	2 (66%)	7 (54%)	5 (83%)
Lecturer's dialect	1 (50%)	1 (33%)	6 (46%)	4 (67%)

Students of C1 level constituted the majority of respondents, which may mean that the biggest percentage of students who study in Erasmus programmes or full time programmes in English as the language of instruction are usually C1 level students. 85% of C1 students admitted to having problems in understanding specialized terminology while listening to lectures, 54 % of C1 students may encounter problems in understanding the lecturers' pronunciation of some specific words; 46% of C1 students sometimes misunderstand idioms used by lecturers.

It was curious to note that even C2 level students admitted facing difficulties occasionally with note-taking, including the pronunciation of specialized terminology by the lecturer (83%), the lecturer's dialect (67%) and to a lesser extent by the intonation and misunderstanding of some specialized terminology (33%). It was noted that the choice of answers varied among students of different levels. It can be summarized that if B1 and B2 students had all 6 problems, id est. almost all respondents had chosen them, C1 and C2 level students marked selective problems – misunderstanding of terminology as the biggest problem (C1 level students) and the lecturer's pronunciation of specific words and the lecturer's dialect (C2 level students).

Further analysis of the feedback provided on the lecturers' competences was depicted in Table 4.4. It is to be noted that irrespective of the level of language proficiency students can have problems in the comprehension of a lecture if the lecturer has some imperfections in the delivery of a lecture. Students of all levels admitted that they can sometimes miss the idea while taking notes. The biggest percentage of answers for this question was among C1 level students (85%), which proves that high level of language competence does not guarantee that students are experienced note-takers and would follow the lecturer's discourse in full. Over half the respondents in each category chose fast delivery of a lecture as the reason for losing track of the lecture and forgetting what had been said, as well as noted the necessity of lecturers to explain the new concepts. Regardless of the level of language skills almost half the respondents do not always follow where lecturers start, finish and change the idea because of the inappropriate use of discourse markers and logical connectors.

Table 4.4 **Major Weaknesses in Lecture Delivery Noted By Students That Hinder Proper Listening and Efficient Note-Taking**

Language level →	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**
Total number of respondents → (100%)	2	3	13	6
1. I sometimes miss the idea while taking notes	1 (50%)	2 (66%)	10 (85%)	3(50%)
2. I cannot always manage lecturer's speech rate, it is too fast	1 (50%)	1 (33%)	6 (46%)	3 (50%)
3. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer does not explain the new concept	0	2 (66%)	6 (46%)	3 (50%)
4. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer changes the theme too fast	1 (50%)	2 (66%)	7 (54%)	4 (67%)
9. No clear hints where the ideas start, finish, change (no use of discourse markers or logical connectors)	1 (50%)	1 (33%)	6 (46%)	2 (33%)

4.4.2 Analysis of the Follow-Up Interviews

The follow-up interview included two questions. Question1 (*Did you experience difficulties while taking notes? What kind of?*) was an open-ended question and aimed at finding out more about the possible difficulties with note-taking that were not noticed by the researcher.

The interview question about note-taking helped to clarify how students take notes and to what extent it is helpful in a typical lecture. Seventeen respondents were asked about the correlation of handouts (copies of presentation slides) and note-taking. Three ways of the use of handouts were mentioned by students :1. when handouts were distributed before the lecture, 2. when the lecturers sent the materials or handouts to the students' emails before or after the lectures (students did not always have printed copies for a lecture) and 3 .workshop – type of lectures where some processes were demonstrated, e.g. Food and Beverage, where handouts were not always available.

Some students (Belarus) stated that they preferred to have handouts with minimum text so that they could take additional notes by themselves. It is important to acknowledge a cultural difference: they stated that in their home country the lecturing style is mostly with a focus on the lecturer reading information, and students writing word-by-word transcript of the lecture. Another opinion was that handouts should include only the main information and some visuals (e.g. graphs, pictures and diagrams). Students wanted to structure additional information around the main ideas themselves, often adding personal examples; it is more characteristic to students with good visual memory.

Another C1 level student from Latvia remarked that slides have to include the minimum of information and should allow students to take individual notes, instead of having full notes in slides.

The necessity of handouts distribution was also a controversial issue. According to the respondent handouts are helpful in preparing for exams; however notes taken individually assist better in revising before the exam since they allow students to remember better what they had recorded.

Demonstration type of lecture was described as the most complicated for note-taking since it included simultaneously several processes, that is, observation of the demonstration, following a lecturer's speech in a foreign language and note-taking. It was noted that it was easier to take notes during demonstration when the lecturer used the whiteboard.

Asked about the quality of notes taken, the majority of the respondents answered that at the beginning of the study process they often switched from English to native language (L1). Some of them put down concepts and ideas in English, while examples were written in L1. It was concluded that irrespective of the students' learning styles, all of them still prefer to take notes during a lecture, either in L1 or in English.

Since the majority of students mentioned the speech rate of a lecturer as one of the hurdles students experience while listening to a lecture, the interviewer wanted to know in more detail how and why exactly it occurred. That is why the purpose of the second question *(Does the speed of lecturer's talk affect your comprehension of the lecture?)* was to discover to what extent the speed of lecture delivery affects lecture comprehension and as a result note-taking by students. The speed of lecture delivery as a hurdle in lecture comprehension was mentioned only by international students (France, Turkey and Uzbekistan). In the case of students from Turkey or France it should be stated that the experience of work with them always proved that their level of English language proficiency was lower in comparison to domestic students. As Comiciotolli (2007: 49) stated, there are "two factors that influence speech rate: individual propensity, but also a setting where lecturers and audiences may or may not share the same speech community". Thus, lecturers in Latvia working with lower-level students of foreign origin should consider that their speech rate may be too fast and can create difficulties in lecture comprehension. C1 and C2 level students stated that the speed of lecturers' speech was adequate: it was easy to follow the speech when a lecturer changed intonation and made pauses, asked rhetorical questions and invited them to participate in discussions. The students noted that when a lecturer's speech was monotonous without the change of the speed and tone, it created difficulty in comprehension and caused the loss of concentration after 15 minutes of listening.

An exchange student from Lithuania (B2 level) who usually studied in Lithuanian noted that some lecturers' fast speed complicated the process of auditory perception of lectures. While the student was busy assimilating information and simultaneously translating chunks of the lecturer's speech, the lecturer had already gone ahead to a new piece of information. As a result, he often did not have time to take any notes. Whereas a student from Ukraine of C1 level noted that for her the speech rate of lectures was slower than that of Ukrainian lecturers and her personal speed of speech: "in Ukraine all lecturers speak faster than here, here it is slower; my speed is faster than that of some lecturers. It is cultural. Ukrainians speak fast". That is why she managed to translate the lecturer's speech into L1, add her own examples and take proper notes.

Interim Summary of Subchapter 4.4

The study conducted allows drawing conclusions on the contemporary situation with note-taking skills of target group of students and the interconnection of students note-taking and the lecturers' competences in delivering coherent and cohesive lectures in English.

The result of the questionnaire showed that note-taking is still a significant element of the students' study process and, albeit the technical development and the use of laptop to take notes, Pen and paper note-taking is still the most preferred technique among students. The questionnaire showed that the students' level of language proficiency varies from B1 to C2 and the majority of students possess C1 level, whereas B1 and C2 level students are in the minority. This might mean that lecturers do not have to be ignorant of the specific needs of lower level students or students of high level English competence.

It was discovered that students have occasional difficulties with note-taking irrespective of their language competence, which might mean that special note-making training should be provided at least for bachelor programme students during their first year of studies.

The results showed that students have major difficulties in understanding specialized terminology and cannot decipher the meaning of words if they are pronounced in a different manner than they are used to. Sometimes the lecturers' intonation and stress as well as the dialect of some individual lecturers are not clear enough for students.

The majority of students confessed that they sometimes miss the idea while taking notes, as well as cannot take notes because lecturers change themes too fast or the speed of lecture delivery is fast. It was noted that they sometimes cannot take good quality notes because the lecturer does not explain the new concepts.

Students stated that note – taking is successful when lecture handouts are distributed in advance or straight before the lecture and they add personal notes in the handouts. In a demonstration – type of lecture it is especially advisable to provide students with handouts since it is difficult to fulfil note-taking and process observation simultaneously. A lecturer may need to use Power Point presentation or a whiteboard to assist the demonstration.

The students interviewed suggested using visual presentations (for example Power Point slides) with only the main ideas depicted enabling them to take additional notes. They recommended the distribution of handouts only with key concepts on them rather than full-text slides as well. Students pointed out to the necessity of controlling the speed of lecture delivery by lecturers, which is especially important for students of lower level of language competence.

The current study was limited in terms of the number of participants and therefore may be considered to be a generalization of findings. Further research needs to be undertaken to study the problem faced by specific audiences.

4.5 Analysis of the Results of the Questionnaires Administered to Lecturers

To look at the problems of an academic lecture from the lecturers' perspective, a survey was administered to a group of Turiba University lecturers who deliver lectures to Latvian and international students in English and lecturers at SPBGUE in St. Petersburg who deliver lectures in Russian and English. Nineteen respondents filled in the questionnaires and answered some additional questions in individual interviews. Additionally, two respondents were the experts from foreign universities in Moldova and Finland. All lecturers had experience in delivering lectures in the English language from one to 20 years; seven lecturers can be put into the category one to five years, seven lecturers five to ten years, one lecturer – 20 years. The results of the questionnaires and interviews are presented below.

1. What subjects do you deliver in English?

The subjects the lecturers mentioned included soft science subjects (Corder 1990; Hyland 2005a), e.g. Marketing, Human Resource Management, Management, International Management, Strategic Management, International Marketing, Strategic Marketing, Russia in the World Economy, Creative Methods of Decision Making, Human Resource Management in International Companies, Tour operating in International Tourism Business, International Geopolitics in International Tourism Business, Planning and Development of International Tourism Business, Tourism Economics, Complex Development of Tourism Industry, Intercultural Communication in Business, Russian History and Culture, Introduction to the Russian Civilization and hard subjects, such as Information Technologies, Accounting Competitiveness Analysis and Forecasting, Investments, Sustainable Finance, Green Economics and Policy and others.

2. What is your professional education?

The qualifications mentioned by the lecturers almost all included the pedagogical or educational field - MA Soc., MA Phil., MSc of biology and pedagogy, MBA, PhD in Philosophy, PhD in Management, Dr. paed. and an English philologist. Some lecturers had qualifications in business, e.g. bachelor's degree in Economics and Business Administration, European Master in

Tourism Management; some were practitioners in the field and did not have higher pedagogical education.

3. Have you received any specialized training to deliver lectures in foreign languages?

The respondents were asked if they had received any specialized training to deliver lectures in foreign languages. 15 lecturers out of 19 stated that they had not had any special training, but they mentioned that they had attended language courses, had written scientific publications in English, had used English in seminars, conferences and project work, had had international experience through research programs and working with exchange semesters. One lecturer stated that he had obtained the certificate of teaching business English (London Chamber Commerce of Trade and Industry), one more had a vocational teacher training. The following comments were made:

"No, not for the lecture courses that you mean here, but I don't need it, since my doctor's degree is in Pedagogy I am absolutely aware of the methodology." (Latvia)

"There was no specialized course devoted to delivering lectures in English but we had a lot of cases in English teaching methodology." (Moldova)

4. What lecturing style / styles do you usually use in the course of your work?

Respondents were able to choose from the following styles: reading, conversational, rhetorical, give–and–take. As we can see from Figure 4.1 64% of lecturers chose conversational style. Twenty eight per cent of them stated that they preferred give-and-take style which is an interactive type of lecture. The reading style was mentioned by 19%, three respondents had experience of delivering lectures in English from one to four years, which could be the reason that they did not feel comfortable having a more interactive style. The other types of lectures mentioned by the respondents included: case studies, an interactive style, telling and giving comments, seminars, and workshops with a conversational style. Some of them stated that the choice of a lecturing style depended on many circumstances: the course, the number of contact hours, and the target audience. The reason of choosing the less interactive mode of a lecture was the limited number of contact hours with the audience, the emphasis on delivering information with a lot of work expected to be done on behalf of students. For example, a lecturer of the Civil Defence course stated that he applied a mixture of different styles, including conversational style and presentation, involved the audience in the lecture and tried to make lectures more interactive.

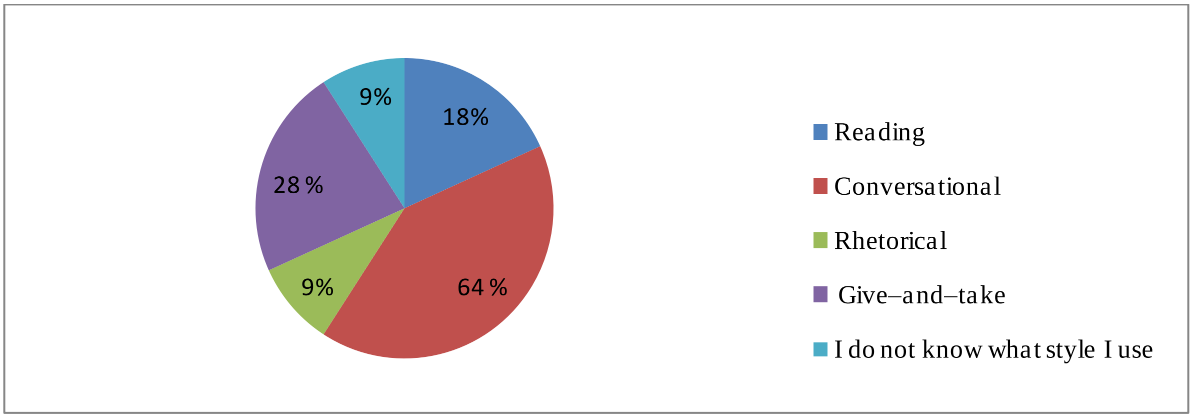


Figure 4.1 **Lecturing Styles Preferred by Lecturers**

5. What types of activities do you use in your lectures?

Most respondents mentioned that they used a variety of activities in their lectures and stated that the choice of activities depends on a subject. The most frequently mentioned activities include: discussion – 19 %, students' presentations – 15% and group work – 15%. It is interesting to note, that the younger the lecturer and less experienced s/he was, the more diverse activities were chosen. The lecturers also stated that the choice of activities was determined by such factors as the target audience, the subject, and the year of studies.

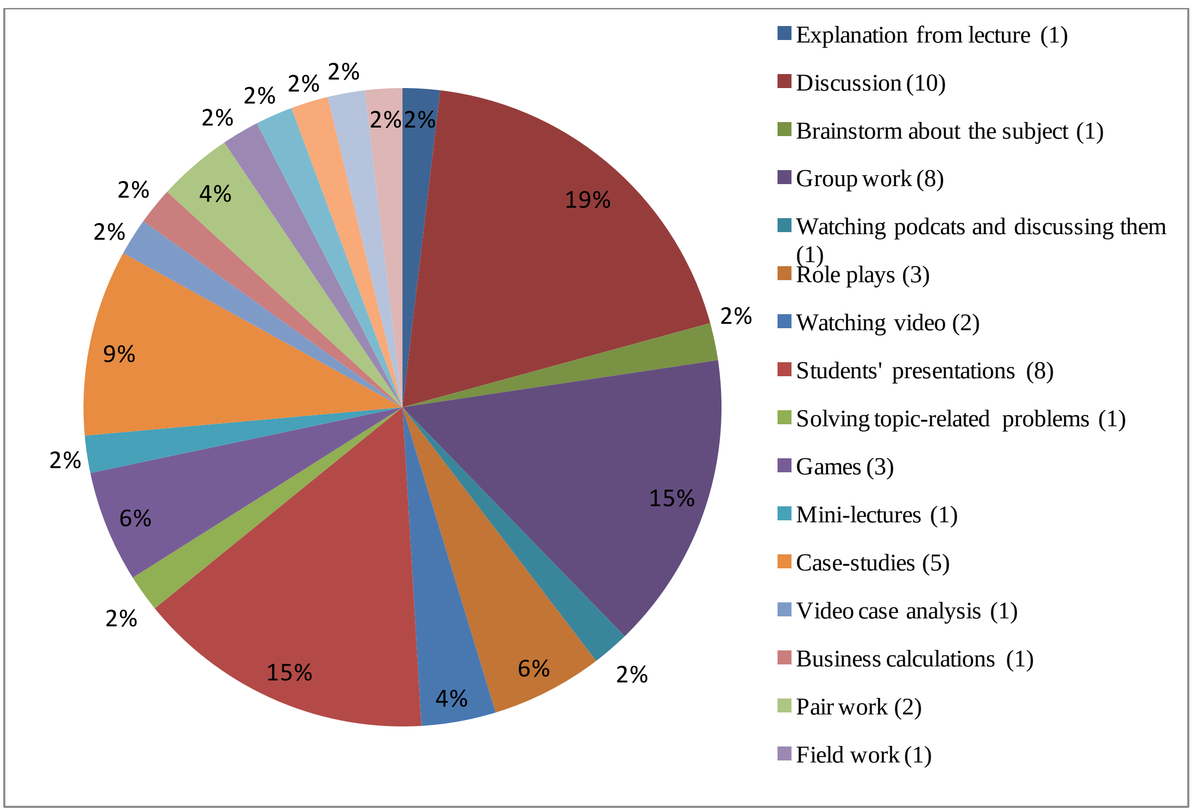


Figure 4.2 **Types of Activities Used in the Course of a Lecture**

6. How do you ensure learners' understanding of your lecture?

One third of the respondents chose to ask questions and to have discussions in order to clarify whether the students followed their discourse. Six respondents mentioned that they followed students' feedback and body language which helped in understanding whether the point was clear or not. The other answers were provided by one respondent: to begin the next lecture with the repetition of key ideas from the previous lecture, to repeat the point again, and to provide handouts with abundant text on it when explaining complicated terms. Two respondents mentioned that they adjusted vocabulary and their speech rate to the needs of students. Four respondents checked learners' comprehension only at the moment of assessing them – with the help of presentations or tests. One respondent did not mention any method of checking students' understanding: "I hope my students understand me." The results have shown that ways of communication for feedback were diverse: some lecturers tried to adapt to the learning styles of by repeating, clarifying or discussing new concepts. Some lecturers used only tests to check students' knowledge.

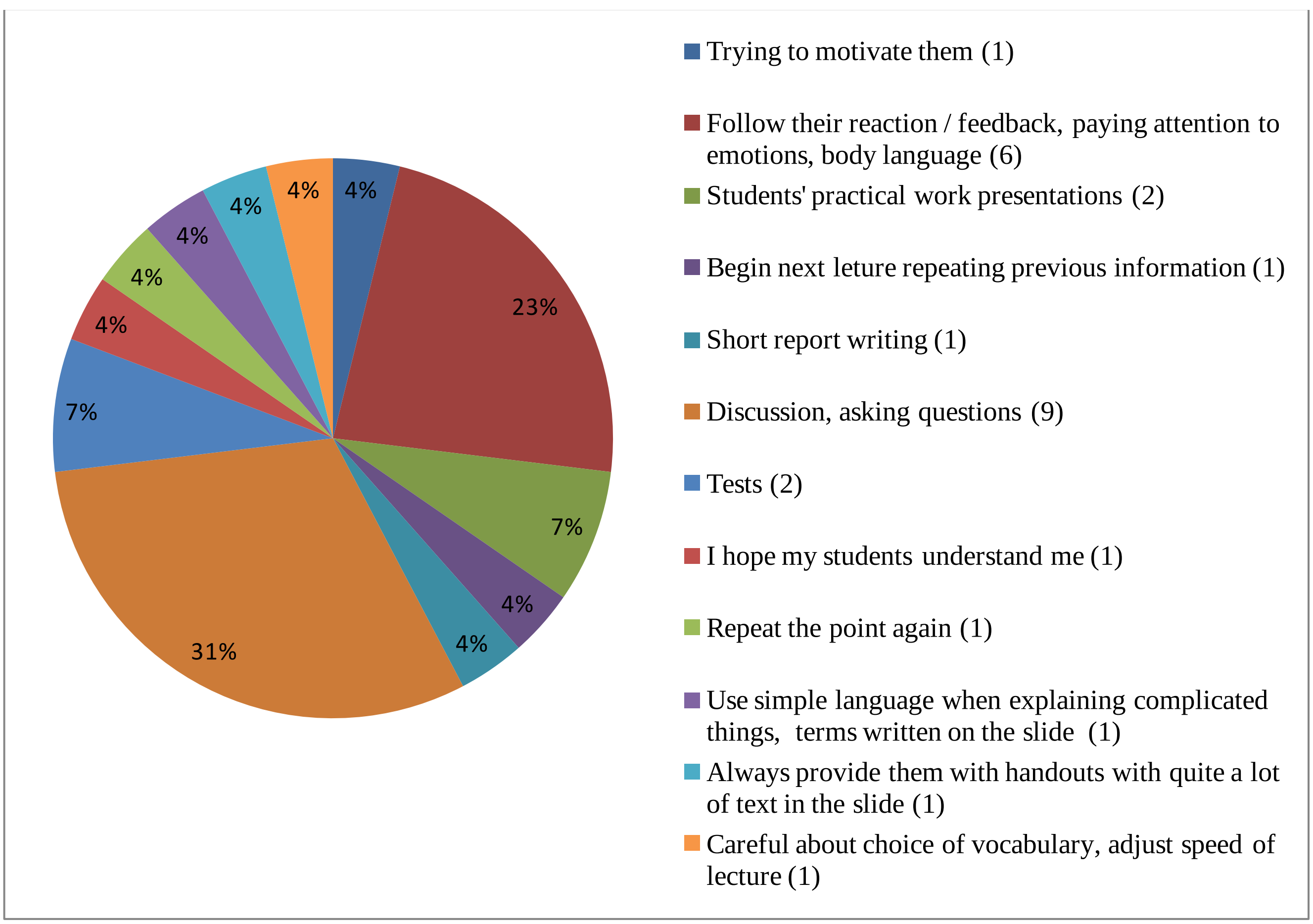


Figure 4.3 **Ways of Ensuring Learners' Understanding of Discourse by Lecturers**

7. Do you assess students' content knowledge or the language knowledge too?

Eleven respondents stated that they assessed only the content knowledge without assessing the language knowledge. Three lecturers (two of them having language teaching education and experience) stated that they assessed both. It has been stated above that one of the reasons why students chose studies in a foreign language was a wish to improve their language skills, then this statistics do not look very optimistic, which means that the students did not get feedback on their language knowledge; as a result, they were not able to fully enhance their speaking skills, extend professional terminology knowledge or writing skills. This also means that for the students of lower level of English proficiency, there was little chance of improving their knowledge if there was no regular feedback on their mistakes. However, this assumption might be discussible.

One lecturer, who delivered both soft science subjects in English and taught English as a subject, mentioned that language knowledge affected content knowledge, if it was not a native knowledge: "I try to assess content knowledge rather than - spelling mistakes or grammar."

8. Do the lectures delivered in a foreign language improve students' language skills?

Eleven respondents confessed that the studies in a foreign language improve students' language skills. Three respondents specified that all 4 language skills are usually developed since "students are exposed to listening to the material in the foreign language." Similarly, they'll read and write in that language. And they will be asked to give their feedback also in that language." Two respondents stated that the possibility of students' language enhancement depends largely on how professionally the lecturer can deliver lectures in a foreign language: "if a lecturer is incapable of producing a cohesive and coherent discourse in English, the consequences might be disastrous."One respondent provided the answer "should be", which can mean that he does not think about the interconnection of studies in English and language improvement. On the whole, the lecturers who have pedagogical education or have been language teachers understand the necessity of paying attention to students' language development more than their colleagues who are only professionals in the field of their subjects.

9. What way do you usually explain the professional terminology that students are not aware of?

It was important to find out what means and techniques the lecturing personnel used to explain new concepts. The majority of the respondents - 32% stated that they provided definitions while explaining new concepts, 17% said that they let students decipher the meaning from the context, 15% mentioned exemplifying as a technique to explain new terminology. Paraphrasing was mentioned only by 6% of respondents. It is possible to suggest that some limitations in language proficiency prevent lecturers from using of this technique of explaining new concepts. Translation as a method of explanation was chosen by 12% of the respondents: because there are several of domestic students in a group, the majority of lecturers prefer other ways of making new concepts clear for both international and domestic students. Other methods stated included: defining concepts with the help of real life examples (9%), using simple terms (3%), providing examples from other students' diploma papers, students seek definitions on the web or the lecturer gives terms and students apply them in answers (3%).

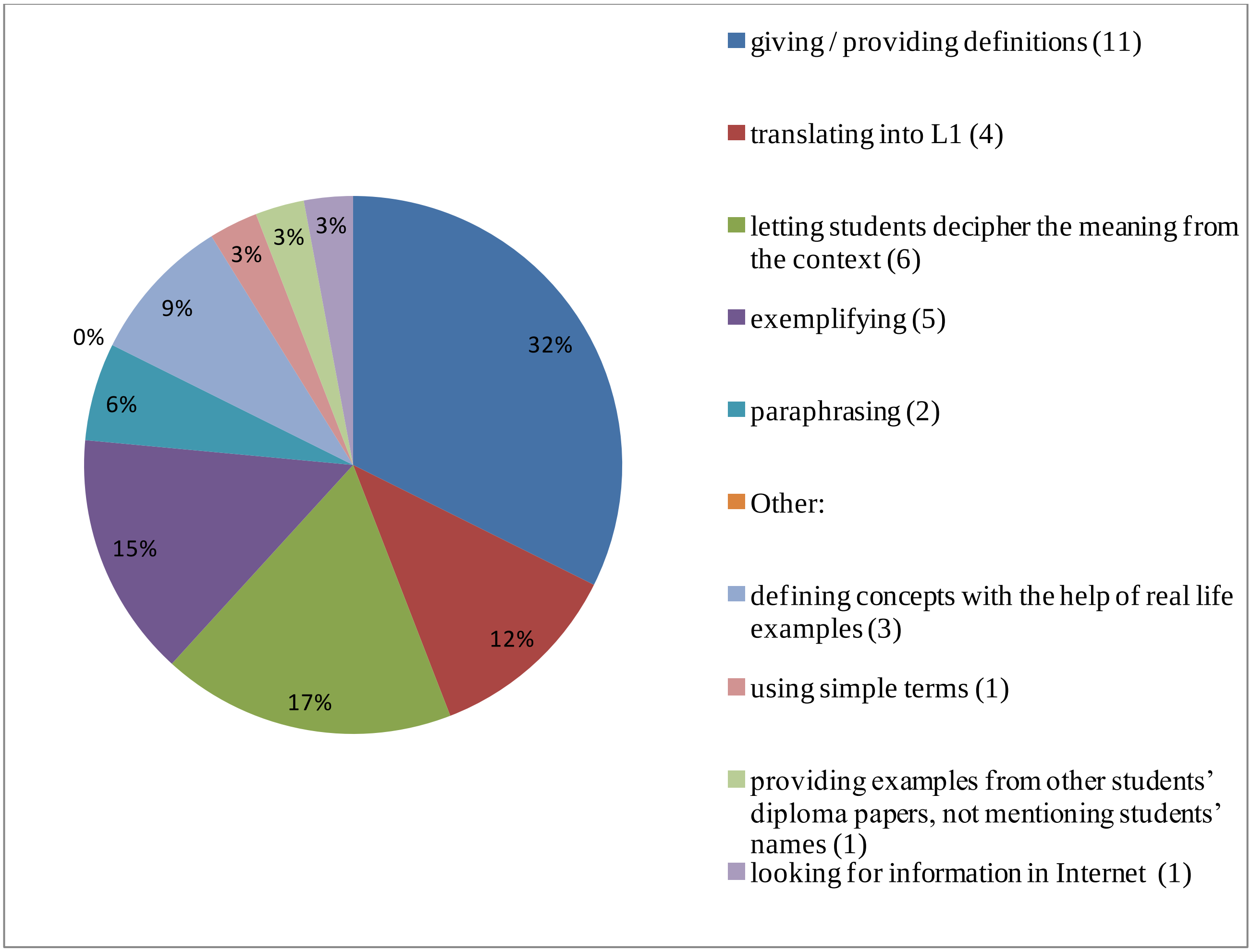


Figure 4.4 **Techniques to Explain New Terminology Used by Lecturers**

10. Is there any need for the academic personnel who deliver lectures in foreign languages to complete specialized language training?

It was important to learn the lecturers' opinion on the necessity to have specialized language training in order for delivering lectures in English. All respondents answered in the affirmative. Some noted that the necessity for language training depended on lecturers' language skills; some stated that there was an absolute necessity, since often lecturers were not able to evaluate their language skills accurately and were confident about the skills they possessed, although not all students were satisfied with that level.

11. Can one acquire the subject knowledge in English without knowing the professional terminology in his/her mother tongue?

The lecturers' opinion about the possibility of students acquiring professional terminology in English without knowing it in their mother tongue differed. Eight respondents answered that the acquisition of professional jargon, irrespective the field does not require preliminary knowledge of concepts in the mother tongue, although some of them agreed that there is a need for extra work of lecturing personnel and students in order to make the process of acquisition more efficient: "he/she should study extra hard. It is advisable to translate the newly learned terminology into the mother tongue, for it may come very useful when working back at home." Six people stated that there is a need of knowing professional lexis in L1 in order to successfully acquire it in English. One respondent stated that a student needs" the will to learn and a basic knowledge of English."

12. What linguistic difficulties do you encounter while delivering lectures in English?

When asked about language difficulties, the lecturers were reluctant to talk about this question. Five respondents stated that they did not have any language difficulties in delivering lectures in English. One person did not provide any answer. Two people confessed that they experienced a difficulty in the translation of professional terminology. Two respondents stated that paraphrasing was sometimes difficult: "Sometimes it is difficult for me to say things in an easier way". One lecturer confessed that students could experience difficulty with his speed of speech: "For students with poor English language skills my speech tends to be too fast." Three lecturers who had pedagogical experience in teaching English (except teaching subjects in English) admitted that they saw a big benefit in their experience of language teachers: "A great advantage – being the lecturer and the language teacher."

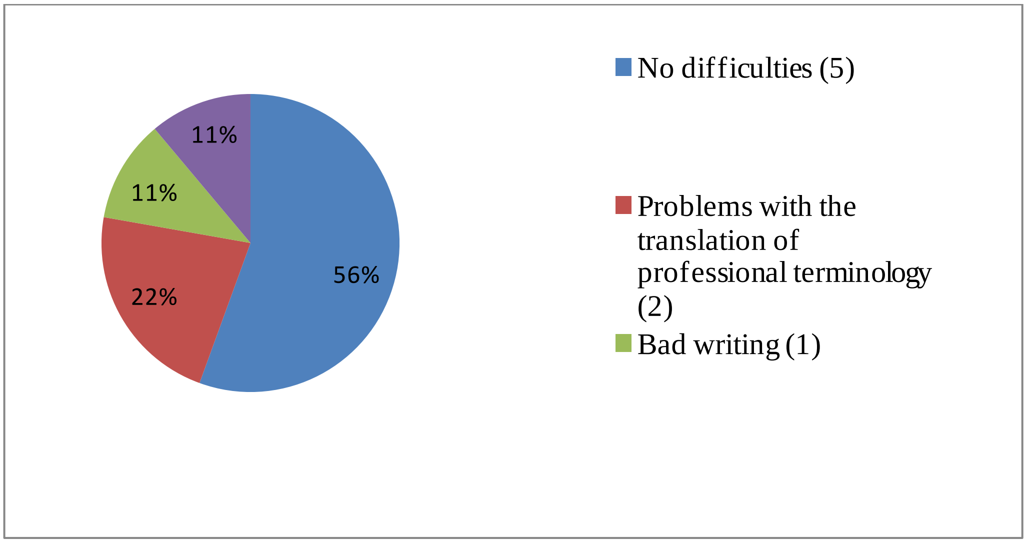


Figure 4.5 **Lecturers' Self-Assessment of their Linguistic Difficulties**

13. Do you notice any difference in the quality of students' outcomes attending the same course in Latvian / Russian and in English?

The present question aimed at discovering differences between the outcomes of students who studied in Latvian / Russian and those who studied in English. Forty-six percent of lecturers said that they did not notice any differences in the results students achieved, one person stated that there was a difference, but she did not specify what exactly. Another lecturer noted that the international students had better language skills, wider horizons in professional matters and more practical skills than domestic students.

One opinion revealed that the success of studies in a foreign language was in direct correlation with the level of students' foreign language knowledge: "Students with poor language can't follow a lecturer. There is more possibility of misunderstanding." Some lecturers stated that they were unable to answer the question, since they read lectures only in English. One respondent stated that the success of studies depends on the competence of the lecturer and a student: "It depends on the language skills of both parties." Two people said that the lecturer can explain issues better and more professionally when he delivers lectures in his native language.

14. What problems do students usually have learning in a foreign language?

The lecturers were asked to evaluate general language difficulties students experienced in the course of their lectures. One respondent stated that students did not experience any difficulties. Five people mentioned some students' poor language skills, including such problems as "difficulty of expressing their ideas on the deep level", "failure in terminology", “understanding definitions, understanding the content, being able to express opinion in discussion, being able to present a given topic well.” Two respondents stated that there was a strong cultural factor that should be considered working with international students – a learning style that depends on a cultural factor. For example, students from Central Asia are reluctant to ask questions or to participate actively in a discussion, since in their home countries, the lecturer is the authority and a student has a role of an obedient listener who follows lecturer’s instructions. The lecturers complained that this attitude obstructed students from successful interaction in the lecture and made them social outsiders in the class. One more problem mentioned by the lecturers was a difficulty of switching from L1 to English: “It’s difficult for them to realize that speaking in a foreign language is different from speaking in your mother tongue. It takes time to realize the particularities of the foreign language they are studying, to start thinking in that language. A foreign language can’t be simply resumed to its grammar or vocabulary.”

15. What would you like to change and / or improve in your lecturing style?

Questionnaires administered to the students showed that one problem that needed improvement was the lecturing style of academic personnel. This is the reason why the researcher wanted to find out how the lecturers assessed their lecturing style and what in their opinion should be changed if anything. One respondent evaluated his lecturing style as perfect and said that there was no need for any improvements at that moment. Another respondent said that it was hard for her to assess herself correctly because she was a newcomer in the profession. All answers were provided by one or two respondents, including 1) the need to change the content not a style, since every year lecturers have different groups, levels of target audience and programmes change; 2) the necessity to plan topics and to structure lectures better; 3) the need to make lectures more interactive and to add videos, to have more students’ involvement and immediate feedback, to use more group work; 4) to control the speed of speech and to adjust it to the needs of the target audience. Some respondents added the fact that the majority of difficulties the lecturers experienced were connected with the course development and the lack of time for it – impossibility to prepare properly as well as the lack of time for students’ active involvement in discussions during a lecture. On the whole, the lecturers’ answers matched with the students’ evaluations on lecturing style improvement.

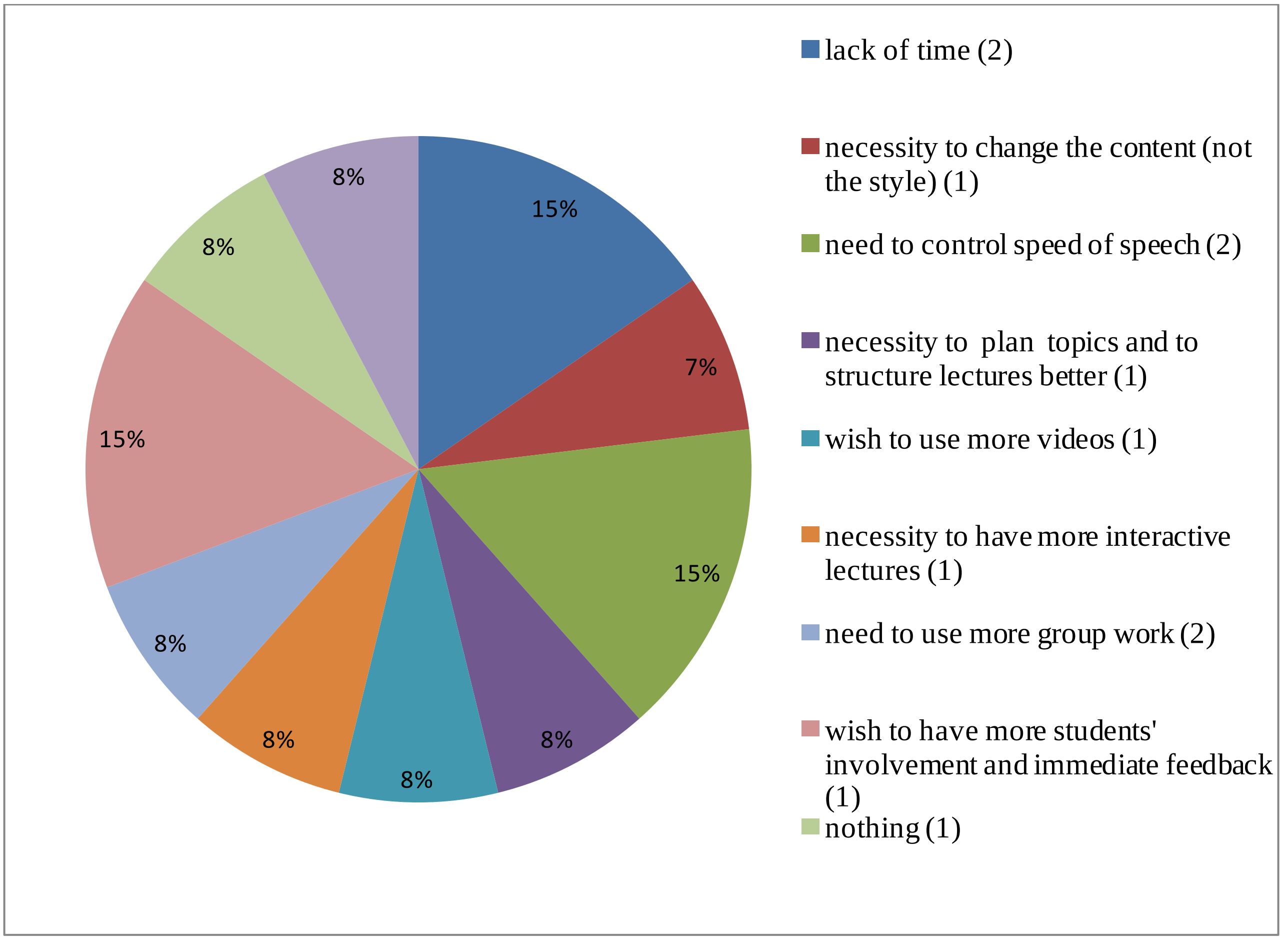


Figure 4.6 **Areas of Improvement in Lecturing Style**

4.6 Comparative Analysis of Students' and Lecturers' Self-Assessment

Having analysed students' and lecturers' questionnaires (subchapters 4.2 and 4.5) the researcher decided to conduct a comparative analysis of their answers in order to ascertain whether lecturers are aware of students' problems in lecture comprehension and if lecturers are able to assess themselves (problems they have and what aspects of their competences could be improved).

Lecturers were not asked to state their language level. Face-to-face interviews with lecturers showed that their levels varied from B2 to C2. Lecturers openly answered about the lecturing style, the activities they used during the lectures, however they <u>were reluctant to talk about problem areas they had</u>. Much was said by lecturers about the necessity of students to improve their skills; students' responsibility to take care of lecture comprehension and only two respondents mentioned the possibility of a lecturer to influence students' language skills development during the lecture. The majority stated that it was the students' but not lecturers' responsibility.

Lecturers were not provided with the variants of answers in the questionnaire concerning the problem areas they might have. Students were provided with the choice.

Lecturers mentioned several problems lecturers had that were not mentioned by students of any level, such as *bad writing skills* and *problems with translation of professional terminology*; however lecturers did not admit having such problems as *pronunciation, grammar mistakes* and *the ability to make the context / idea of the professional topic understandable*. Supposedly, lecturers were either aware of their problem areas but were afraid to talk about them, or they were not aware of the problems and could not make self-assessment.

Students of different levels emphasized different problems in lecture comprehension. Twenty-six B1 and B2 level students participated in the questionnaire and all of them marked all eight difficulties with different percentage points (*fast speech rate (A), lack of the repetition of main idea(s) (B), problems with pronunciation (C), grammatical mistakes (D), inability to make the context/ idea of the professional topic understandable (E), failure to give a logical or clear lecture (F), the use of complicated professional terminology (G)*).

The bar chart below shows difficulties in lecture comprehension as acknowledged by students (A2 and B1 level):

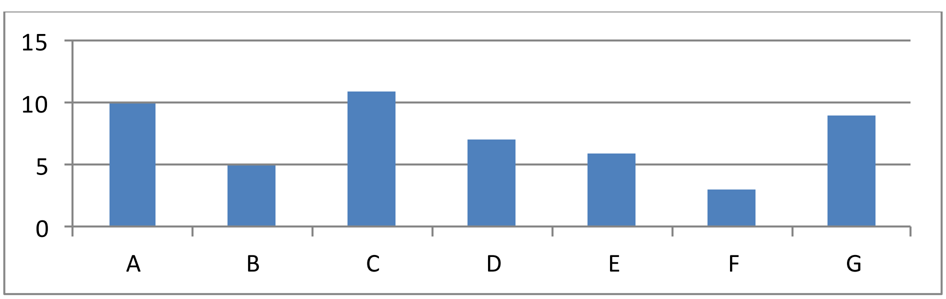


Figure 4.7 **Difficulties in Lecture Comprehension Acknowledged by Students (A2, B1 levels)**

It can be noticed that the biggest number (11 respondents, 42%) of A2 and B1 level students mentioned problems connected with *lecturers' pronunciation*. Another area of concern was connected with the *fast speech rate* (10 respondents, 38%), *the use of complicated professional terminology* (9 respondents, 35%) and *lecturers' grammatical mistakes* (7 respondents, 26%). Students marked other three variables as less problematic: *inability of lecturers to make the context/ idea of the professional topic understandable* was mentioned as a problem only by 6 respondents (23%), *lack of repetition of main ideas* was chosen by 5 students (19%) and *lecturers' inability to give clear and logical structure of a lecture* was mentioned by 3 students (11%) only.

Answering the question about what lecturers might need to change in the course of lecture delivery, the majority of A2 and B1 students mentioned *fast speed of lecture delivery* (9 respondents, 35%) and *choice of words in explanations* (9 students, 35%). *Pronunciation* (8 respondents, 31%) was chosen as another factor to be considered by lecturers, as well as *ways of explaining professional terminology* (7 respondents, 27%), *the need to improve lecturing style* (6 respondents, 23%) and *the need to enhance public speaking skills of lecturers* (6 respondents, 23%). Smaller number of respondents of A2 and B1 levels noticed *lecturers' grammatical mistakes* (4 respondents, 15%) as a problem to be considered, stated the need *to control word order* (2 respondents, 8%) and *to use linking words* (3 respondents, 11%).

Table 4.5 **Comparison in the Analysis of Lecturers' Language Competences by Lecturers and Students**

Problems in lecture delivery admitted by lecturers	**Difficulties students encounter during a lecture connected with lecturers**	**Students' answers on what difficulties they encounter while listening to a lecture that prevent successful lecture comprehension**		
B2, C1, C2 (19)		**A2 and B1 (26)**	**B2 (40)**	**C1 (22)**
Bad writing skills	-	Students did not mention this as a problem (-)	-	-
Translation of professional terminology	-	-	-	-
Too fast speech for lower level students, the need to control speech rate	Fast speed of a lecture	**39%**	10%	4%
Lack of paraphrasing skills, the need to provide extra explanations	The use of complicated professional terminology	**27%**	15%	9%
Lecturers did not admit having this problem (*)	Main ideas are not repeated	19 %	-	-
Lectures are not always well structured	Failure to give logical or clear lecture	11%	13%	**27%**
*	A problem with pronunciation	**42%**	**48%**	**40%**
*	Grammar mistakes	27%	18%	27%
*	Inability to make the context / idea of	23%	10%	27%

	the professional topic understandable			
Lecturers' problems in lecture delivery admitted by lecturers	**Areas of improvement in lecture delivery**	**Students' answers on what should be improved by lecturers**		
B1, B2, C1, C2 (19)		**A2, B1 (26)**	**B2 (40)**	**C1 (22)**
Lacking paraphrasing skills	Choice of words in explanations	**35%**	10%	5%
The need to provide extra explanations	Ways of explaining professional terminology	**27%**	10%	14 %
To have a more interactive style	The need to improve lecturing style	23%	28%	**27%**
To structure lectures better	Word order	7%	8%	9%
*	The need to improve public speaking skills	23%	25%	**27%**
*	Use of linking words, discourse markers	11%	10%	9%

As we can see from the comparative table above, problems admitted both by A2 and B1 level students and mentioned as a problem by lecturers, included *fast speech rate*, *the use of complicated professional terminology* and *lecturers' failure to give logical or clear lecture*, which might mean that lecturers were aware of them and could control these two factors of lecture delivery.

Lecturers did not admit having problems with *pronunciation, making grammar mistakes* and *being unable to make the context / idea of the professional topic understandable,* although these answers were chosen as considerable difficulties by A2 and B1 students.

Comparing how lecturers (B2, and C1, C2) assessed themselves and what students (A2, B1) expected from lecturers to improve, the answers varied. Both lecturers and students admitted the *problem with paraphrasing; the need to provide extra explanations, to structure lectures better* and one lecturer mentioned the *necessity to have a more interactive lecturing style* (as opposed to 6 of 26 students). None of the lecturers admitted *a problem with public speaking skills* or *the need to use linking words* better, although it was mentioned by students.

Upper-intermediate level students (B2) constituted the majority of population of the surveyed students (forty), most of them noted *lecturers' pronunciation* as the biggest problem they had while listening to lectures (19 respondents, 48%), other problems of less significance mentioned by them were *lecturers' grammatical mistakes* (7 respondents, 18%) and *the use of complicated professional terminology* (6 respondents, 15%). Other problems were less significant. However, when asked what areas required improvement the majority of B2 level students mentioned *pronunciation* (15 respondents, 38%), *the need to improve lecturing style* (11 respondents, 28%) *and the need to improve public speaking skills* (10 respondents, 25%). Again, comparing with the answers by lecturers, we may notice that lecturers did not mention any difficulties, except the necessity to change to a more interactive style of a lecture.

It is to be said that there were twenty-two C1 (advanced) level students participating in the survey. Although most of them noted that they had no problems in lecture comprehension, a small percentage (9 respondents, 40%) admitted that they sometimes had problem connected with lecturers' *pronunciation*, some (7 respondents, 31%) noted *grammatical mistakes* and some (7 respondents, 31%) experienced *difficulties when lecturers were not able to make the context / idea of the professional topic understandable*. The answers concerning the need of improvement by lecturers included *pronunciation* (10 respondents, 46%); *the need to improve public speaking skill* (7 respondents, 31%) and *lecturing style* (7 respondents, 31%*);* as well as *the necessity to correct grammatical mistakes* (7 respondents, 31%).

Lecturers were more concerned with students of lower level, they stated that most of the difficulties experienced by students during lectures were due to the low level of students' language competences; they did not mention higher level students (B2, C1). However, as the survey showed these students also sometimes experienced difficulties in lecture comprehension. Comparing A2/B1 and B2/C1 level students' answers it became evident that students of all levels experience some difficulties in lecture comprehension. Moreover, the comparison showed that the areas where students of all levels pinpointed difficulties included: *lecturers' pronunciation, grammatical mistakes and the use of complicated professional terminology without explanations or paraphrasing.* However, the survey of lecturers showed that none of them stated pronunciation and grammatical mistakes as a problem; only several confessed the need to improve paraphrasing skills and the need to provide extra explanations.

Interim Summary of Subchapters 4.5 and 4.6

Having analysed the results of the questionnaires and interviews administered to students and questionnaires filled in by the academic personnel, the following conclusions were drawn:

By choosing studies in a foreign language, students want both to acquire professional knowledge and to improve language skills; this is a factor that is to be considered by the lecturing personnel;

Lecturers are responsible for delivering lectures at a highly professional level of English, without ignoring the language skills of students and paying strict attention to the development of their personal language skills, having well-structured plan of lecture, following the guidelines of good public speaking skills, and considering students' intercultural aspect;

Abundant number of concepts, new professional lexis and ideas should be provided with sufficient theory, adequate explanation of terminology and high-quality international examples;

The speech rate of lectures has to be tailored to different language levels of students, more repetitions, paraphrases of the main concepts and ideas should be done. There is a need to adjust lecturer's speech to the needs of different students.

Conversational style and *participatory lecture* are the most appropriate lecturing styles. Students' interaction and feedback are expected. On behalf of lecturers there is a need to improve interaction, to have more group work, discussions, to follow learners' feedback.

Lecturers' accent or pronunciation mistakes may cause misunderstanding of lecture content by students of different language levels.

Lecturers are either reluctant or are not able to fully assess their competences in lecture delivery. Students' questionnaires revealed problem areas that were not mentioned by lecturers in lecturers' self-assessment, including pronunciation, making grammar mistakes and being unable to make the context / idea of the professional topic understandable.

Students of lower levels (B1 and B2) experienced almost all difficulties in lecture comprehension in different percentage as mentioned in the questionnaire.

Students of all levels admitted that they had difficulty in lecture comprehension when lecturers did not consider lecturers' pronunciation, grammatical mistakes and the use of complicated professional terminology.

One should definitely consider the fact that students often belong to different cultural and educational backgrounds and their English language communicative competency also differs. Consequently, on the basis of our findings we cannot fully extrapolate that all students expect lecturers to have C1 or C2 English levels. It is possible to assume that sometimes lecturers who are non-native English speakers and have less-advanced level of language proficiency may have a lecture structure that is easier to understand, and that the above-mentioned students may understand the discourse of non-native speaking lecturers better than that of native speakers.

CHAPTER 5 ANALYSIS OF SPOKEN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

The purpose of Chapter 5 was to provide an overview of findings in the research which was done in the area of academic discourse analysis and comprehension of academic lectures delivered by the academic personnel in English in tertiary education. The idea was to find out what academic and linguistic hurdles are experienced while listening to lectures and taking notes in English, as well as what challenges are faced and how studies in English foster the development of students' language competence. The chapter presents the analysis of the most frequently used words in the academic lectures and describes their role in lecture perception, gives the analysis of the use of lexico-grammatical features characteristic of the spoken academic discourse, the use of DMs and provides a detailed examination of six extracts from the transcribed lectures, where some lectures can serve as a good example, and some demonstrate hurdles and difficulties that lecturers experience.

5.1 Example of the Analysis of Spoken Discourse

The present subchapter gives an example of the analysis of an academic lecture on psychology downloaded from *You Tube* and transcribed by the author of this research. The speaker was Dr Edward Hoffman Lectures on Maslow: Osaka 2007 **(**Edward Hoffman, Ph.D., is a licensed clinical psychologist in the New York City area.) He has authored/edited twenty books on psychology and related fields. Currently, he is an Adjunct Associate Psychology Professor at Yeshiva University (a private university in the New York City). In 2007, he was a visiting professor at the University of Tokyo. The listeners were Tokyo University students and in Episode 2 - students and academic personnel of Tokyo University. Thus, it was particularly important for the present study that the speaker and the audience are of different cultural background, and it was reflected in the speech. The text was an excellent example of spoken academic discourse since it illustrated almost all the features which are characteristic of spoken discourse.

Episode 1

The discourse of the first episode was analysed from the point of view of how the lecturer organized his speech and how he managed it thematically. For this purpose, the whole body of the scripted text was divided into moves and each move was analysed separately. The genre of the text was the academic lecture. The audience were undergraduate students of Tokyo University. (The full version of both episodes is given in the Appendices).

Move 1 (Greeting the audience, presenting oneself)

Good evening.
Ah ....after all the introduction…
*it **does** make me think back*
to the time of my graduation…
*I **did** graduate when I was 20 …*

At the beginning of the lecture the speaker greeted the audience and gave background information about himself by saying *it **does** make me think back to the time of my graduation… I **did** graduate when I was 20…*This was done in order to establish rapport with the audience, to engage the audience, to establish the area of common ground. The auxiliary verbs were used to emphasise the idea and to show the importance.

Move 2 (What it is all about)

So…, tonight
there are so many aspects that
we can talk about…
which relate to management theory eh…
and to motivation. ..
We gonna have
the whole course on this subject.
But …as an export on the life and work of Abraham Maslow…
*I want to focus **specifically** on Maslow's life and ideas and*
*to focus **specifically** on the issue of motivation. Eh...*

Then, he proceeded straightaway to the purpose of his lecture, giving the theme of the lecture in general *So…, tonight there are so many aspects that we can talk about… which relate to management theory eh…and to motivation. .. We gonna have the whole course on this subject.* He stated that the theme of Management was broad and required much time and contact hours in order to cover everything. However it was impossible to deal with everything since his time frames were limited, thus, he defined the *global theme* of the lecture, of what the discourse was about.

According to Fraser (1990), *global theme* facilitates text comprehension which evokes a mental model in the comprehender.

*I want <u>to focus</u> **specifically** on Maslow's life and ideas and <u>to focus</u> **specifically** on the issue of motivation."* The speaker signalled the theme by repeating the verb *"to focus"* and by using the adverb *"specifically"* after it. The significance was also noticed from the fact that in both clauses he used nominal phrases but not pronouns - *Maslow's life and ideas… on the issue of motivation,* where the second nominal phrase specified the first general phrase and defined more exactly what the lecture was going to be about. The use of the nominal phrase instead of pronominalization also demonstrated that the author introduced a new theme to the audience.

The speaker's tendency to repeat phrases can be noticed.

Move 3 (Presenting the topic of a lecture)

Eh. .. It's been sixty years since
Maslow developed the concept
of Hierarchy of Inborn Needs. ..
You ***probably*** *all know*
the famous pyramid,
(drawing) (pause) this was that
Maslow developed about 1945….
And *I'll talk about it*
with you in class this evening…

It's been sixty years since Maslow developed the concept of Hierarchy of Inborn Needs. In the present sentence, the author emphasized time by putting it in the initial part of the sentence with the help of *It's been* construction. He expanded on the topic using stance adverbial *probably*: *You* ***probably*** *all know the famous pyramid, (drawing) (pause) this was that Maslow developed about 1945….*And move 3 was concluded by a less nominal ***And*** *I'll talk about it with you in class this evening…*

Move 4 (Soft science vs. hard sciences)

But *since then*
no theory of motivation
has replaced
Maslow's theory.
So*… in in psychology,*
in social science
this is very ***remarkable****.*
Theories keep changing every five years – ten years.
It's not like *physics or chemistry.*
Einstein's theory of Relativity
is still accepted
after a hundred years.

The idea of the importance of theory was developed further; the speaker wanted to highlight that although Maslow's theory was developed 60 years ago, it was still fundamental. He returned to this later when he talked about the significance of Maslow's theory in Psychology: ***But*** *since then no theory of motivation has replaced Maslow's theory.* The sentence was started with the modifier of time '*But since then'* which said that time was of essence for the speaker. The use of '*no'* before the noun '*no theory of motivation'* emphasized the importance of the Maslow's theory for the speaker.

The speaker developed the theme of '*theory'* further using a contrastive approach – he compared hard science and soft science theories. To show the longevity of Maslow's theory in comparison to other soft science theories, he claimed: *Theories keep changing every five years – ten years.* In order to make the idea clear for the audience who were university undergraduates, he contrasted *psychology* with *physics* and *chemistry*: ***It's not like*** *physics or chemistry. Einstein's theory of Relativity is still accepted after a hundred years.*

Move 5 (Significance of the theory)

But *in social sciences*
theories come into ...being
much more frequently
and replace all the theories,
because the social sciences
are very new.
So, ***in fact*** *for sixty years now*
Maslow's theory
is the most important well-accepted theory,
means that this is ***probably*** *true.*
It's probably *accurate scientifically,*
because no other theory has replaced it.

In move 5, the word *theory* is thematic, it was repeated four times, the nominal phrase *social science* was used twice. We can see in the first sentence that the speaker operated with these terms in both dependent and independent clauses: ***But*** *in social sciences theories come into ...being much more frequently and replace all the theories, because the social sciences are very new*. By putting result which was given in the subordinate clause, before reason in the main clause, the author emphasized the **outcome**: *because of the fact that* <u>*social sciences are new*</u> ***(reason)*** <u>*theories change more often*</u> ***(result)****.*

He concluded the idea by saying: ***So****,* ***in fact,*** *for sixty years now Maslow's theory is the most important well-accepted theory, means that this is* ***probably*** *true.*

In spite of the author's emphasis on the importance of theory, which was especially marked by him with the use of the compound adjective *well-accepted* next to the superlative degree *the most important*, we can feel some hesitation:*... means that this is* ***probably*** *true.* ***It's probably*** *accurate scientifically, because no other theory has replaced it.*

It shows that although the speaker had strong arguments proving the current significance of Maslow's Theory, he did not declare it certainly. We can feel personal attitude of the speaker.

After the introduction, where the speaker had presented the theme and had highlighted the importance of the theory, he summed up the aforesaid by the statement: ***So, I just wanted to begin the evening*** *eh…with that…*

The speaker presented the topic of the lecture to the audience; he mostly operated with noun forms which all formed one thematic field: *the issue of motivation, the concept of Hierarchy of Inborn Needs, the famous pyramid, theory of motivation, Maslow's theory, the most important well-accepted theory.* Later when he thought that this new information had already been cognitively activated by listeners, he used pronominalization: ***this is*** *probably true.., **it's** probably accurate.., to begin the evening eh…with **that**.*

Move 6 (Maslow's Theory today)

But now
that we are in the 21st century,
this concept, this approach
that we talk about
is still the most widely accepted approach
to understand the human motivation.

The key thematic elements of move 6 are *concept* and *approach* which are from the same thematic field as *theory*. The use of other terms for the same idea was probably done on purpose in order to relate this theory to modern days. The words *concept* and *approach* in comparison to the words *theory* and *science* are less scientific in their connotation. This way the speaker wanted to make the theoretical idea of Maslow sound more comprehensive and to be more applicable for modern students, who were future businessmen, and the author explained how business people could benefit from Maslow's theory - *is still the most widely accepted approach to understand the human motivation.*

Move 7 (History)

Before I go into history…
history sometimes can be boring..
***I think**,*
I'll try
to make it interesting.

The next move presented a new theme, which was verbalized by the speaker in the word *history*. This paragraph links the previously mentioned theme *theory*, word *history* and the personal name *Maslow* from which we decipher that it will be the story about the author of the

Theory of Motivation. The *situated meaning* (Gee, 2005:53) of this word in the present context is *story about Maslow* but the listener can decode it only on the basis of old information about *theory, Maslow* and *social sciences.*

Before I go into history, history sometimes can be boring, ***I think****, I'll try to make it interesting.*

This episode consists of three clauses. When a listener hears the first clause: *Before I go into history,* he logically expects it to be continued by a clause like *I would like / I want / let me…* as a reasonable continuation. However, it is characteristic of spoken discourse that it is online interaction with the audience, and the production of utterance is the result of thought – a cognitive process, consequently not always the produced speech is the same logically structured as it would be with written discourse.

In the next clause, the author included a personal comment about history: *history sometimes can be boring,* ***I think*** – here he meant stories narrated by any lecturer about some concepts, theories or historical events. The third clause was a promise *I'll try to make it interesting* - again very personalized and with the use of stance of self-mention.

Move 8 (Creator of the Theory of Motivation)

The issue of motivation
is very-very important.
Maslow is known as the father of the Theory of Motivation,
of the field of Motivation…

Unexpectedly, he turned from the theme *history* to *motivation* which can be deduced as a part of the story he wanted to tell. He emphasized *the importance of motivation* by repeating twice the word *very. The issue of motivation is very-very important,* mentioning Maslow's name and the name of his theory. This episode is an example of how spoken discourse differs from written discourse in sentence structure, in the way speakers may organize their thoughts. It is often produced spontaneously and we are able to see the process of its production as someone speaks.

From the analysis of the part of the lecture by Dr Hoffman which originally lasted for 2:52m, and a scripted version comprised 312 words we see that it is presented by the following moves, each with its own communicative purpose:

Move 1 (Greeting the audience, presenting oneself)
Move 2 (What it is all about)
Move 3 (Presenting the topic of a lecture)
Move 4 (Soft science vs. hard sciences)
Move 5 (Significance of the theory)

Move 6 (Maslow's Theory today)
Move 7 (History)
Move 8 (Creator of the Theory of Motivation)

It is possible to notice that the relationships between the clauses in the present discourse are much more spread out and with more complex relations between each other, yet we still manage to keep track of these relations. The speech is less logically structured in comparison to how it would be in a written text, although it also follows a logical plan of introduction – body – summary or conclusion. The speech is produced in a way of small spurts, each spurt is one clause which may be or may be not interconnected. Some parts of texts are more implicit and leave what is to be understood unsaid.

Episode 2

The second episode from Dr. Hoffman's lecture looked at the expression of a lecturer' attitude - stance and engagement (hedges, boosters and self-mention), the use of pronouns and their meanings in different contexts, and the role of questions. The author wanted to point out that this time the audience were both teachers or university professors and university students. This episode is a good example of how a speaker (lecturer) expressed his opinion and how successfully he engaged the audience into the speech. Below are the examples of some categories of both stance and engagement present in this discourse:

Stance, Hedges

So*…(pointing at the blackboard),* ***you probably*** *all studied something about the hierarchy of Inborn Needs of famous Maslow's theory …*

The speaker addressed the audience. He believed they shared common knowledge. He checked to see the reaction, no answer was expected rather than the reaction of the audience which is usually expressed in a way of nodding or smile. This was done by the speaker at the beginning of the lecture in order to choose the appropriate manner of speech, to see to what extent his speech had to be detailed, conceptualized, how much he should have spread on one topic.

But perhaps every teacher *wants to know how to motivate students.*

The speaker wanted to believe that the idea of *'students' motivation'* which was of importance for him was essential for the audience. This was also done in order to check whether the audience was interested that he continued talking in that direction.

Self-mention

(1) ***I'd like to believe*** *that because* ***my "peers"*** *encourage* ***me*** *and guide* ***me*** *that* ***I am being*** *able*
(2) *to work close to* ***my*** *full potential both with the student and as a professor and as a psychologist…*
(3) ***I*** *travel all over..*
(4) ***I am one of the few*** *people who have developed ways of measuring employee motivation based on Maslow's concepts.*

These are personal examples of the theme the speaker described; by giving personal examples he demonstrated how this topic was essential for him. Another concern of the professor here was to make his examples sound authoritative.

(1) ***I can*** *tell you …there is no magic that exists, every few months …****psychologists like myself****…*
(2) ***But I can*** *give you today the history of Maslow's concepts and help us to understand for the future some of the questions about employee motivation…*

The above sentences contain illocutionary markers which announce speaker's intention.

And I'll talk *about that also.*

This is the example of illocutionary marker naming the act the speaker was going to perform.

(1) *OK,* ***I think we all*** *can understand that….*
(2) *….and* ***I'll*** *go to the employees….*
(3) *Now* ***I think*** *they don't use that any more…*

Because the purpose was to present the speaker's ideas to the audience, it can be said that the speaker often referred to "I" as the thinker in the presentation and in order to express his attitude towards the propositional content.

I am sure *the word 'cooperage' is not in your electronic dictionaries*.

Here the lecturer expressed his personal opinion and engaged the audience into his speech.

Audience Engagement

The present text is abundant in the use of personal pronouns such as *you* and *we*; the author decided to use the term *Participatory Pronouns* (Connor, 2008) since their main role is to involve or to engage the audience in the inner conversation with the speaker, to make them feel affiliated. The next extracts demonstrate the function of "you" in Hoffman's speech. By using *you, you're, your* the speaker established rapport with the audience, made his speech more personally appealing for listeners, acknowledges listeners' presence.

You p*robably all studied something about the hierarchy of Inborn Needs of famous Maslow's theory …*

The speaker set up a conversation with the audience addressing them with the pronoun '*you'* which was put in the initial position in a sentence.

> ***So****…****If you*** *as college students know how to motivate* ***yourselves****,* ***you'll*** *do better at school...*

Here the speaker addressed students, engaging them in the conversation.

> ***All of you have*** *been students, if* ***you*** *all have been the students;* ***you*** *all have been in classrooms.*

In this sentence the speaker appealed to the second part of his audience - teachers and professors.

> ***You*** *are competing against Chinese companies now, Korean companies and* ***my country*** *works competing against European eh…companies.*

You in this sentence was not used in the meaning of audience present here, *you* was used at the national level, he, probably, meant the country, business people of Japan competing with those of China and Korea.

> *To be a good salesperson* ***you*** *need to be an extrovert* (writing *extravert* on the board), ***that's you*** *have to be outgoing, very friendly, talk to people, smile…*

You in this sentence is used in the meaning of *'one';* 'anyone' who wants to be an extravert needs to be outgoing and friendly.

> *…or in general* ***when you*** *bring your car for repairs, often* ***you*** *get a bill that* ***you*** *didn't expect,* ***they*** *do things that* ***you*** *didn't ask for and now the law is against that.* ***They*** *have to call* ***you*** *and ask for permission.*

Assuming that the audience needed extra explanation of the idea of coming into *dishonest business,* he gave a personalized example. The pronoun *you* in this example engages the audience in the process, makes the example understandable, the pronoun *they* is a pronominalization of repair companies. By using 'you' and 'they' in one move, the speaker as if makes contrast of good and bad: *you – good, they – bad*. This is also an example of personal aside, showing that both the speaker and listeners are engaged in the same game and have something in common – as if both the speaker and listeners can be in the situation of being cheated by a company.

Use of Participatory Pronoun 'we'

I bear ***we*** *are all teachers, either professors … want to know how* ***we*** *motivate your students*. By using 'we' in this sentence, the author meant himself, academic personnel present in the room and thirdness – other representatives of the teaching profession.

Though some students are smart, they don't do well at school because they don't know how to motivate themselves. …OK, I think ***we all*** *can understand that*. Again the speaker engaged that part of the audience who are teachers. He expressed his point of view believing that the audience shared it with him.

(About using high technologies) *In some countries, like United States,* ***we*** *are very good at* ***them****; this is why at this point* ***Americans*** *are considered the most productive workers in the world.* ***They*** *know how to use* ***their*** *time eh… very well, very efficient. Japanese are also very efficient, very productive. And this is the only way an organization can get a competitive edge …will be the management – how you manage people.*

In the present paragraph, the speaker switched from *we* to *they*, and then shifted to *you*. He stated that he was an American, belonging to the American culture: *In some countries, like United States, we are very good at them…* However, straight after that he used *'they'* as if this time affiliating himself less to those people who were good at using technologies and being productive: ***They*** *know how to use* ***their*** *time eh… very well, very efficient...*

Then he turned to the audience saying that the Japanese were good at technologies and good time managers, the same as Americans: *Japanese are also very efficient, very productive*. By switching from *they* to *you* the speaker wanted to link two cultures and to show that people behave and think the same way in Japan and the USA.

We *live in a global economy.* ***We all*** *know that.*

We used in this example appeals to shared knowledge with the audience, the knowledge about globalization.

The Role of Questions in the Present Discourse

According to Hyland (2005b: 185), the use of questions in discourse is *"to arouse interest and encourage the reader to explore an unresolved issue as an equal, a conversational partner, sharing his or her curiosity and following where the argument leads."*

The questions which were discovered are rhetorical and do not require the answer from the audience, in some cases they serve the function of so called "speaker's assistant", by this the author of the present work means that they direct the speaker in his flow of thoughts and emphasize the significance of the ideas which they answer:

How do you motivate people to work hard and to be… creative?

The speaker did not require any answer from the audience; moreover, he did not provide any answer himself: ***So,*** *the question is what makes one company more successful than another in a global economy?*

The answer followed in the explanation further:

The success of companies is in honest approach to business and in employees' motivation.

Here the answer was not given in a direct way; we decode it from the whole flow of speech which follows.

(1) *Can that be the software if everyone is using the same software?*
(2) *Can that be the hardware - everyone is using the same hardware?*
The speaker answered himself in the second clause of the same sentences. These are examples of speaker's inner dialogue which help him to develop the theme and to formulate answers.

The other phenomena that can be observed in the present discourse are paralinguistic clues such as body language and facial expressions of a speaker, intonation and changing speech rate. It is important to mention the role of the repetition of words, discourse markers, cultural and social aspects of the discourse. Although all these cultural and social aspects have not been analysed deeply in the present thesis they would certainly require much attention in the future study since these are important factors that differentiate spoken and written discourse.

Interim Summary of Subchapter 5.1

Subchapter 5.1 gave a brief example of the analysis of two episodes from two lectures. The researcher analysed structure of the lecture (episode 1), the use of stance and engagement, self-mention and the use of pronouns (episode 2). On the basis of the analysis of the two episodes of spoken academic discourse, the following conclusions have been drawn:

- The relationships between clauses in sentences in spoken discourse are much more spread out, with more complex relations between each other;
- Sentences are less logically structured in comparison to how they would appear in a written text, although the speech also follows a logical plan: introduction – body – summary or conclusion;
- The speech is produced in a way of small spurts, each spurt is one clause which may be or may not be interconnected. This can be explained as a reflection of cognitive processes occurring in the speaker's mind during the course of his /her speech;
- Analyzing discourse, researchers are not only concerned with "purely" linguistic facts, they also pay equal attention to language use in relation to social and cultural aspects;
- Some parts of texts are more implicit and leave what is to be understood for decoding by listeners;

Spoken discourse is rich in speaker's attitude and audience engagement elements, such as use of self –mention, participatory pronouns, rhetorical questions etc.

5.2 Key Words – Analysis of the Most Frequently Used Words in the Transcribed Lectures

The transcripts of academic lectures (AL) were used for the analysis of spoken academic discourse. These lectures were chosen so that to include different subjects in soft and hard sciences, including Finance, Economics, Management and Tourism. Some extracts from the lectures are available at Appendices 6- 13 of the present thesis. The transcripts from Internet resources included the following lectures:

1. *Clayton Christensen on Management - Clarendon Lectures 11th* (AL1). Length (60:33) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ei57yFEljrI
2. *Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes* (AL2). Length (74:12) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WQui_3Hpmmc
3. *Risk and Financial Crises* (AL3). Length (69:43) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QbosMr2JVrc&index=2&list=PL8FB14A2200B8718
4. The *Economics of Climate Change* (AL4). Length (104:54) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CrSfIoRDLL8
5. *Game Theory* (AL5). Length (68:32) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nM3rTU927io&list=PLwy3d3shfRNiXgFHkrYscDit-4uKa9yRC
6. *Rypple Leadership Series | Jeffrey Pfeffer: Power* (AL6). Length (51:17) Subtitles are available: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-exu8UGieVQ
7. *Entrepreneurial Opportunities-Babson College's Brush* (AL7). Length (6:00) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JAnqh4VHINk
8. *Corporate Finance by Aswath Damodaran Lecture 1*(AL8). Length (79:17) Subtitles are available: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cKp28uT0qP0
9. *Objectives of Tourism Development - Unit 12 Responsible Tourism* (AL9). Length (5:01) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=1na77oAkYCU
10. *Tourism Asia Video Lecture #2 Types of Tourism* (AL10). Length (21:03) http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ctrBMn7alAE

The first stage of the qualitative analysis aimed at studying key words in three academic lectures – AL1, AL2, AL3. The aim of the analysis was to discover what elements, excluding frequently used words such as articles, the personal pronouns, auxiliary verbs, prepositions and modal verbs, are used frequently in the course of the lectures, but can make students misinterpret the content of the lectures or make them lose attention during the lectures.

Appendix 5 provides the list of key words compiled with the help of the programme WordSmith Tools 6,0.

The key word analysis revealed that the most frequently used elements in all three lectures are:

- Demonstrative pronouns 'this' (AL1-38, AL 2 – 16, AL 3- 105 times) 'that' (AL 1-78, AL 2 – 24, AL 3- 250 times), 'these' (AL 1-12, AL 3- 45 times);
- Personal pronouns 'they' (AL 1 – 56, AL 3 – 76) and 'we' (AL 1 – 41, AL 2 – 12, AL 3 - 109);
- Possessive pronouns 'their' (AL 1 – 9) and 'our' (AL 2 – 7).

The personal pronouns *I* and *you* were excluded from the analysis since the pronoun *I* usually refers to the lecturer, who delivers the lecture, whereas *you* is used to refer to the students. However, the pronouns *they* and *we* may be misleading to the students, especially if the lecturer does not mention at the beginning of the theme development the performers who these pronouns stand for. It is not always clear from the context and may lead to a misunderstanding.

The problem with comprehension of context may arise when a pronoun reference is used where a pronoun is asked to refer to a whole group of words instead of a clear, single noun antecedent. The following examples from the lectures show that the pronouns *they* and *we* can be misinterpreted if not clear reference is given:

Lecture 1. Example of the use of the pronoun *they*

> *So, to set it up,… Stephen J. Gould, who was an extraordinary evolutionary biologist at Harvard …wrote a book….ehh…an article before he died.., called "The Panda's Thumb"* [showing his thumb]. *…and I can remember all the details of this article, but essentially quite he points out …is that for most rrr* ***bears they*** *have* ***four claws***, ***they*** *are not very long…but the panda has longer fingers rrr on her* ***paws*** *and* ***they*** *have an opposing* ***thumb*** *(shows with his hand) and clearly that evolves with the* ***panda*** *so that he…t****hey*** *can get things and eat it given the environment in which they live… But then something happened …the environment changed and* ***they*** *migrated somewhere …and* ***this…thumb*** *became no longer …important to* ***them,*** *and so.. the pandas' thumb* [showing on his hand] *is still there but it's become rigid ..and actually if you had one of those on your hand you would* [wound] *it off because it just gets in a way and so he then describes in his paper all of the*

other panda's ***thumbs*** *in a system that evolved because of one point in the past* ***they*** *were very useful and then today* ***they*** *are not useful but* ***they*** *are still there and if we don't think about it sometimes we assume that* ***they*** *need to be there when in fact they don't.*

They refers to two nouns in this episode – *panda* and *thumbs*. A listener can merely misinterpret the usage of the pronoun *they*, since the lecturer uses this more often than the nouns *panda* and *thumbs*.

Other frequently used words were the indefinite pronouns *something, somebody* and *somewhere*. These words are common in conversations (Biber, 2006: 100), but when used too often in one thematic field in the lecture they can bring to vagueness. The speaker generalizes, instead of providing clear reference:

But then ***something*** *happened ...the environment changed and they migrated* ***somewhere*** *...and this...thumb became no longer ...important to them, and so.. the pandas' thumb (showing on his hand) is still there but it's become rigid ..* (AL 1)

The stock market lost ***something*** *like almost half of its value. It dropped % between and ...Wow. Then it went all the way back up, and then it dropped almost %.* (AL 3)

The next episode from AL 2 shows a frequent use of the relative pronoun *that*:

So, you might have imagined it's a course about trading, ehh since it says markets, but it is more general than ***that*** *(1) ehh... finance, I believe, as it is says in the course description is a pillar of civilized society, it's a structure through which we do things and this on the large scales it's about allocating recourses through space and time, our limited resources* ***that*** *(2) we have in our world, it's about incentivizing people to do productive things, it's about sponsoring ventures* ***that*** *(2) bring together many people and making sure* ***that*** *(2) they are fairly treated,* ***that*** *(2) they can tribute constructively and* ***that*** *(2) they get a return for doing* ***that*** *(3) and it's about managing risks that anything we do in our life anything big or important that we do is on certain and* ***that's*** *(4) what to me* ***that's*** *(4) what financial markets is about. So, but it has a lot, to me this is a course that will have a philosophical underpinning, but at the same time will be very focused on details, to me...*

That (1) is used as a pronoun that substitutes a noun antecedent:

So, you might have imagined it's **a course about trading**, ehh since it says markets, but it is more general than **that** ehh...

However it is not clear at first sight what this pronoun stands for, it can be deciphered only when one analyses the sentence, but during a lecture students may misinterpret it with other nouns, as a result they may not fully understand the content of the lecture.

In another sentence *that* (2) is used in the relative clauses:

...our limited resources ***that*** *we have in our world, it's about incentivizing people to do productive things, it's about sponsoring ventures* ***that*** *bring together many people and making sure* ***that*** *they are fairly treated...*

The long length of the sentence and the abundant use of *that*, makes the idea of the sentence unclear. Moreover, the use of *that* in the end of the sentence may confuse students at all, because the idea of what *that* (3) refers in this sentence has been lost in the beginning of the sentence:

*bring together many people and making sure that they are fairly treated... they get a return for doing **that*** (3)

In the end of the paragraph that (4) is used as a subject in the sentence: *"...**that's** what to me **that's** what financial markets is about."* (4) Again it is not clear what it stands for.

A frequent use of the pronoun that in three different meanings in such a short episode might sound confusing for intermediate level students who are still inexperienced in following lectures in a foreign language. The recommendation could be to control the use of frequently used words in one sentence that have general meanings, because their overuse may mislead the students and as a result bring to the failure of lecture understanding; instead the lecturers might use the substitutes and the synonyms.

Other frequently used words which are met in three episodes and which can raise a problem in understanding are words *here* (AL3 - 38) and *there* (AL1 -16, AL2- 5, AL3 - 38).

But somehow, somebody back there decided to measure profitability by gross margin percentage and because they measured it in this way (uses index finger, points at the screen) it caused the integrated steel companies to just get in out and get in out. It turns out that there are other ways to manage it. So, ahh. ..there is a company in a similar kind of a business called [Dellacorni]and they make silicons of all sorts and what was happening to them is their customers would come to [Dellacorni], engineers and say, you know we got a big order here, but actually we need this silicon to cure faster than what we've been using historically and ... (AL1)

The example above demonstrates how the combination of several unclear words in one thematic field can make the discourse general and ambiguous:

...somebody back there decided to measure profitability by gross margin percentage and because they measured it in this way [...] it caused the integrated steel companies to just get in out and get in out... [...] engineers and say, you know we got a big order here, but actually we need this silicon.

The listeners may experience problems in understanding what the pronouns *somebody* and *they*, the adverbs *there* and *here* and the demonstrative pronoun *this* refer to. The use of the indefinite words could be justified by the fact 1) that the lecturer did not know who exactly introduced the concepts of gross margin, 2) actors, doers are less important than the action.

The conclusion made from studying the most frequently used words on the example of the extracts from three academic lectures that can mislead the listeners included: demonstrative pronouns (*this, that, these*), personal pronouns (*they* and *we*), possessive pronouns *(their* and *our*), adverbs of place (*here* and *there*), indefinite pronouns (*somebody, something, somewhere*, etc.) When used on a frequent basis in one discourse episode, listeners can get frustrated of what these elements stand for and, as a result, this can bring to unclear perception of a lecture.

5.3 Analysis of the Use of Lexico-Grammatical Features Characteristic of the Spoken Academic Discourse

The second stage of the analysis included the study of the use of different lexico-grammatical features that are characteristic of the spoken academic discourse. Several words from each category of the lexico-grammatical features (the study is based on the research done by Biber (2006), see Chapter 2) were selected to make their comparative analysis. The following was analysed in Lectures 1-10:

1. Discourse micro-markers: so, now, OK, well, however, thus, therefore and all right.
2. Modal verbs and semi-modal verbs: can, could, may, should, have to, got to, will, would, going to

The purpose of the analysis was to discover how frequently the above mentioned lexico-grammatical features are used in the examples of professionally delivered presentations and what functions they have in modelling the spoken academic discourse. The title of a lecture, its length given in minutes, (used in parenthesis) and the link to the lectures are given above (see Chapter 5, subchapter 5.2). The analysis was conducted with the help of the computer programme WordSmith Tools 6, 0. Due to the fact that the author was able to use only the Demo version of the programme, the results of her findings on each linguistic element were limited to the number of 50 examples for each frequently used element. The Concord of *WordSmith Tools 6,0* was used in order to create concordances from the selected academic lectures; the concordances were analysed and a set of the most frequently used phrases was compiled, which was studied and adapted for the possible application by lecturers who deliver lectures in English.

5.3.1 Discourse Micro-markers (DM): so, now, OK, well, however, thus, therefore and all right

The first category that interested the author was the use of DMs: *so, now, OK, well, however, thus, therefore* and *all right*. The analysis of DMs *so, now and OK* in lectures 1- 4 (AL1-AL4) from different fields of studies showed that *so* was the most frequently used DM in all 4 lectures. It was used 33 times in AL1, 20 times in AL2, 126 times in AL3 and 185 times in AL4.

The discourse marker *so*

Below are the examples of concordances with the discourse marker *so* discovered in Lectures 1-4 (AL1, AL2, AL3, AL4).

So + to introduce the topic:

(1) *... in our management thinking. So, that's what I wanna talk about...* (AL1)
(2) *...we think about finance. 0:25 So, I wanted to talk about …* (AL3)
(3) *...of an investment. 12:33 So, I want to now talk about ...* (AL3)

So+ to add information:

… and *so*, what else can you do… (AL2)

So + to introduce a sudden change of the topic:

... at the same time. 38:34 So, suddenly the covariance go ... (AL1)

So + to summarize:

The DM *so* had different functions: to start the theme, to introduce the change of the topic, to recapitulate the main ideas, to provide an example. *So* was often followed by *there is, there are, this is, that is, it is* constructions and it was also used to summarize or to conclude. The lecturers often used *so* with conditional sentences or rhetorical questions in order to involve the audience in the discussion or to exemplify something. Another function of this DM was to precede a phrase of intention, for example, it was used with the phrase *going to* or the colloquial contraction *gonna.* Another finding was that *so* was frequently used with the verbs that express stance, e.g. *so I believe, so I hope, so I think*, etc. as well as in the combination of *so + stance adjective, e.g. so it's interesting,* as well as in order to emphasize an adjective*, e.g. so beautiful.* It was concluded that *so* is the most often used discourse marker serving different purposes with the main functions to make a break, to proceed to another theme, to signpost throughout a lecture as well as to involve the audience in the discussion.

(1) *...and so, over and over again, so far 42 exciting ideas took…* (AL1)
(2) *...and, so this is a kind of ...* (AL1)
(3) *... river water temperatures so that 26:25 leads to economical...* (AL4)
(4) ...and *so,* what was happening is that… (AL1)
(5) *… my message here so so what is it insurance is the ...* (AL4)

So + to exemplify

... real hard science. 8:01 So, for example, weather forecast… (AL3)

So + third person subject

(1) *...so, these guys, actually don't… (AL1)*
(2) *...had a financial crisis. 52:03 And so, a lot of people were …* (AL2)
(3) *...so, Intel started by making…* (AL1)

So + *that is* construction

...until recently and so that's part of the … (AL4)

So + *I think / I hope…* expression of stance

(1) *... and so, I think it is … (AL2)(Stance discourse marker expressing attitude)*
(2) *...we make things happen. 13:07 And so, I hope that you have …* (AL2) (Stance discourse marker expressing desire)
(3) *...how much it went down. 67:06 So, I figured, well if this we (AL3)*
(4) *...significant connections so 1:20 I hope you all join me … (AL4)*

So in the meaning of stance expression

...will work outside the U.S., and so it's important… (AL2)

So + going to construction in the meaning of intention

(1) *...the details matter. 17:45 And so, I'm not going to just …* (AL3)
(2) *... the law school …and so Am I so I'm gonna 2:04 I'm…* (AL4)

So + conditional sentence

(1) *...but with people. 14:58 And so, if we want to understand …* (AL3)
(2) *...is of the distribution. 62:10 So, if you observe a random choice …* (AL3)
(3) *...them all. 36:13 OK? 36:15 So, if they all have the same…* (AL3)
(4) *...not extreme outliers. 64:13 So, if you look at a small number of …* (AL3)

So + a question

... tell are just stories. 7:15 So, how do we deal with the company… (AL3) a rhetorical question asked to the audience

So + let's expression

...a little bit iffy. 1:24 1:28 So, let's just think about the… (AL3)

So + an adjective, with a purpose to emphasize it

... the triggers of losses are so different there but … (AL4)

The discourse marker *now*

The discourse marker *now* can be attributed to the category of frequently used markers in the spoken academic discourse too, although it was discovered less frequently than the DM *so*. *Now* was used 4 times in AL 1, 23 times in AL 2, 18 times in AL 3 and 40 times in AL 4. It was discovered that *now* was used as a place adverbial and as a discourse marker.

A place adverbial can be seen in:

(1) *...we have international accords now. 66:21 Notably, a new one…* (AL2)
(2) *...the world grows at rapid rates now. 22:07 We're living in a the …* (AL3)

Now was used as an **explanation**:

...on 24/7 in any organization. Now let me describe how this ... (AL1)

Now was discovered in the meaning of **the next step in the logical proceeding or action**:

(1)*... What do they have in common? 28:10 Now about a third of them just…* (AL2)
(2) *...and infinity. 12:10 12:13 Now what we're going to do ...* (AL3)

Now and ***OK*** can be **used interchangeably** in the function of **initiating the topic**. *Now* can be changed by *OK* in the following sentences, for example:

(1) *... bad ideas get thrown in to. Now, what also happens is that...* (AL1)
(2)*... so, that's where we are. 6:13 Now, I wanted to put this in ...* (AL2)

Now was used **with the verbs of stance**, e.g. the discourse marker now+ I know / I don't know:

(1) *... it in the fall of 1985. 10:30 Now I don't know if that's ...* (AL2)
(2) *...doing these functions. 64:31 Now I know Karl Marx said he ...* (AL2)

Now was encountered **with the words *so, and* and *but:***

(1) *... the whole time. 47:05 And now, we're trying to decide...* (AL3)
(2)*...Apple on this axis. 54:58 And now I've added a line, which I* (AL3)
And now was used 10 times in Lecture 3

(1) *...market movements. 50:40 So, now the next plot, and this is...* (AL3)
(2)*... looks different. 51:35 But now, what I want to do ...* (AL3)

In lecture 4 place adverbial *now* was used 6 times in the combination with the word *right*.

The purpose of this expression was to emphasize that something was taking place immediately, right at that moment. The lecturer wanted to highlight something, for example, a hot topic:

(1) *…sure is a huge football right now 86:59 the national insurance...*
(2) *...all playing itself out right now its it 55:25 would make an...*
(3) *... percent a year something right now on average in here there ...*
(4) *...it's very hot topic right now 87:29 a good paper topic ...*
(5) *...moving around there right now am there are supposedly ...*
(6) *... in this domain right now in its slow progress but ...*

Another rare occurrence was noticed of ***now*** **in the position between the particle *to* and a verb.** The possible purpose of its use was to emphasize the idea:

... So, I want to now talk about some basic ....

The discourse marker *OK*

The word *OK* was used 26 times in AL3 and 10 times in AL2. It was used eight times in both lectures in the end position of the sentence in the form of a question. It is possible to suggest that the lecturer used ***OK*** **to check whether the listeners followed his thought, agreed with him** or **the lecturer was hesitant**:

...your gross 18:12 return is 0, OK? 18:14 So, if I plug in... (AL3)

Another meaning of ***OK*** was **to initiate a new sub-topic**:

(1)*...one bad year with minus 100%, OK. 17:54 So, what do you think...*
(2) *Professor Robert Shiller: OK. Welcome to Economics 252...*

OK was used in the meaning of **confirmation or approval by the listeners**:

...thousands want to set up a company, OK? 63:34 How do you do that?... (AL2)

The discourse markers *well, however, thus, therefore* and *all right.*

In order to find out how frequently the other DMs are used in the spoken academic discourse five lexical units were chosen and analysed from the corpus of Lectures 5-10: *well, however, thus, therefore* and *all right*.

It was identified that the most frequently used DMs from the five above were *well* and *all right*.

Well was encountered in four lectures, although in many cases it was an adverb meaning "something done well" and the phrase as well as in the meaning of "in addition to."

Well was used 15 times (out of 18 times) as a DM in AL5, 8 times (out of 21) in AL6, one time (out of four) in AL9. It was often used followed by the expression ***let's+ a verb***

(1) *... strategic situation? 1:02 Well, let's start off with what...* (AL5)
(2) *...why don't they tidy up? 36:09 Well, let's just work it out...*
(3) *... Beta's, 54:41 mostly Alpha's. Well, let's see. 54:43 Let's...* (AL5)

It was also used as a DM **to start a new theme** in the discourse:

(1) *...what's the idea 21:59 here? Well, the first idea is that 22..* (AL5)
(2)*... So it looks like a lot of – well, we're going to find out...* (AL5)

As **a word of hesitation**:

(1)*...Well, I don't know...* (AL5)
(2)*... "You'll always lose." 28:43 Well, I don't know: it's* not a ...(AL5)

Well was encountered in the meaning of *OK* or *all right* in the answer to a question or the previous utterance:

(1)*...a stronger argument. 31:30 Well, how about this? Even if...* (AL5)
(2) *Professor Ben Polak: 40:44 Well, but this is the game. So...* (AL5)
(3) *...moral guy at the 67:05 back? Well, never mind, 67:06 we will...* (AL5)
(4) *... yeah good. Student: Well, because 30:21 you have to...* (AL5)
(5) *...down here? 28:50 Student: Well, the payoffs are lower...* (AL5)
(6) *...response 28:08 you get 28:10 well that's a great question...* (AL6)

One more use of this DM was in combination **with the verb of stance**:

(1) *... that's fine. 18:49 Student: Well I guess I thought we could ...* (AL5)
(2) *... and I think a power 41:42 well I think you where you have...* (AL6)
(3) *... that you want to do 7:54 well I think I would be comfort...* (AL6)

Another DM that was discovered in Lecture 5, and which was not found in other four lectures (AL6, 7, 8, 9, 10) was the DM ***all right***. 25 out of 30 times, it was used **in the initial position of a sentence**, when the speaker wanted **to proceed with a new theme**, e.g.:

(1)*...little easier for Jude. 6:07 All right, how are we doing...* (AL5)
(2) *... can see at home, okay. 16:08 All right and how many of you...* (AL5)
(3) *...everyone filled in. 8:12 All right, so last things to talk about ...* (AL5)
(4) *...hands the Beta's okay. 16:16 All right, there's a Beta here...* (AL5)
(5) *...we done with the forms? 9:43 All right, so why don't we send...* (AL5)

In three cases of 30 *all right* was found **in the middle position of a sentence**, e.g.:

> *I think it's quite likely we're going to get a lot of Alpha's chosen, right? But if we played this game up in let's say the Divinity School, all right and I'm guessing that Travis' answer is reflecting what you guys are reasoning here.* (AL5)

In this case, *all right* was used with the purpose **to find out if the audience agrees** with the proposition of the lecturer. He as if checked whether students followed him, and this DM was also preceded and followed by the verbs of stance: I think it's…, *all right* and I'm guessing that…

> *So if you don't buy this book this week, I may be able to make the advance copy of the new edition available for some of you next week. I'm not taking a cut on that either, all right, there's no money changing hands.* (AL5)

In this episode *all right* was most probably used **to check if the listeners agreed** with what he was saying. The style of the lecture showed that the lecturer was not fully confident about the information he was giving or whether the audience agreed with him. This could be the reason why the speaker used *all right* 30 times in a course of his lecture. The analysis showed that *all right* was not used in other 4 lectures (AL6, AL7, AL8, AL9, AL10); however, it is possible that ***all right*** was **substituted by *OK*** or ***well***, since all these DMs may be used in similar meanings: *OK, all right, well* are used to switch to a new topic; *OK* and *all right* are employed as reassurance if the audience follows the speaker.

The research showed that the DM *thus* was not present in five lectures (AL5-AL10), whereas the DMs ***therefore*** and ***however*** were used only several times.

However was used only one time in Lecture 5 in an initial position in the meaning of contrast:

> *That's not what Game Theory is about. However, once we know what your payoffs are, once we know what your goals are, perhaps Game Theory can you help you get there.* (AL5)

Therefore occurred in two lectures: two times in AL 5, and five times in AL 6:

Okay, so you chose Alpha right? So why did you choose Alpha?
[inaudible] realized that my partner chose Alpha, therefore I chose [inaudible].
Professor Ben Polak: All right, so you wrote out these squares, you realized what your partner was going to do, and responded to that. (AL5)

In this episode ***therefore*** was used by a student in the dialogue with the Professor, where the student was explaining his **reason** of choosing a Business Game Alfa. *Therefore* was encountered **in the medial position** in the sentence. Another example is as follows:

The mid-term will be held in class on October 17th that is also in your syllabus. Please don't anybody tell me late - any time after today you didn't know when the mid-term was and therefore it clashes with 17 different things. The mid-term is on October 17th, which is a Wednesday… (AL5)

One of the examples of the use of ***therefore*** in AL 6 showed that the lecturer wanted to **emphasize** or to **specify the information** he was giving in the previous part of his utterance:

...it's quite common that you'll have resistance and set back the question is… do you have the persistence to overcome them? And skill…Therefore …skills… I would emphasize one's self knowledge and self reflection...are you do you let you know yourself and you know your strengths and weaknesses just as companies need to know the strength and weaknesses and to be strategically affective you need to know your strength or weakness is to …

It can be concluded that the most frequently used DMs in the selected extracts of 10 lectures were: *so* which also could substitute *thus* and *therefore, OK*, which could also be used in the meaning as *all right*, which was used frequently only in one lecture in order to show that the speaker was hesitant whether the audience had agreed with him. *Therefore* and *however* occurred only in several cases in the meaning of giving result, and they were not present in any lecture out of five. The researcher supposed that the rare use of some basic discourse markers and frequent use of *so* and *OK* with diverse meanings may lead the students to some misinterpretation of a lecturer's discourse.

5.3.2 The Expression of Stance and Audience Engagement in Spoken Academic Discourse

Another category of lexico-grammatical features that was studied by the researcher included stance verbs. The first category analysed consisted of modal verbs and semi-modals. The author wanted to find out which modals and semi-modal verbs from the following: *can, could, may, should, have to, got to, will, would, going to* occurred most frequently, what their functions were and how they assisted in understanding lecturers' opinion, attitude, whether they helped the students in following the academic discourse. Modal verbs were analysed in four lectures: AL1, AL2, AL3, AL4. The following figure shows the use of nine modal and semi-modal verbs in four lectures:

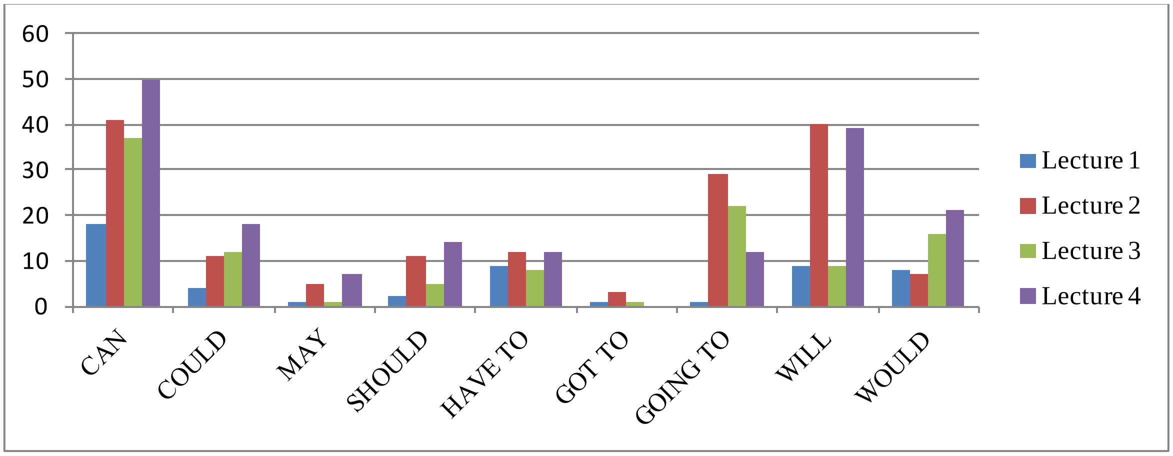


Figure 5.1 **The Use of Modal and Semi-Modal Verbs in the Analysed Academic Lectures**

It was noticed that the most frequent modal verb in all lectures was the modal verb *can* which was used 50 times in AL4, 41 times in AL2, 37 times in AL3 and 18 times in AL1. Another frequently used modal verb was the verb *will*, however, it was used frequently in AL2 – 40 times and in AL4 – 39 times, whereas in the other two lectures this modal verb appeared only 9 times in each. The semi-modal *to be going to* was encountered 29 times in AL2, 22 times in AL3, 12 times in AL4 and 1 time in A.

Figure 5.2 shows the total use of modal / semi – modal verbs in four lectures. It can be seen that the same modal and semi-modal verbs *can, will, going to* were used most often, the least used modal verbs were *got to* and *may*.

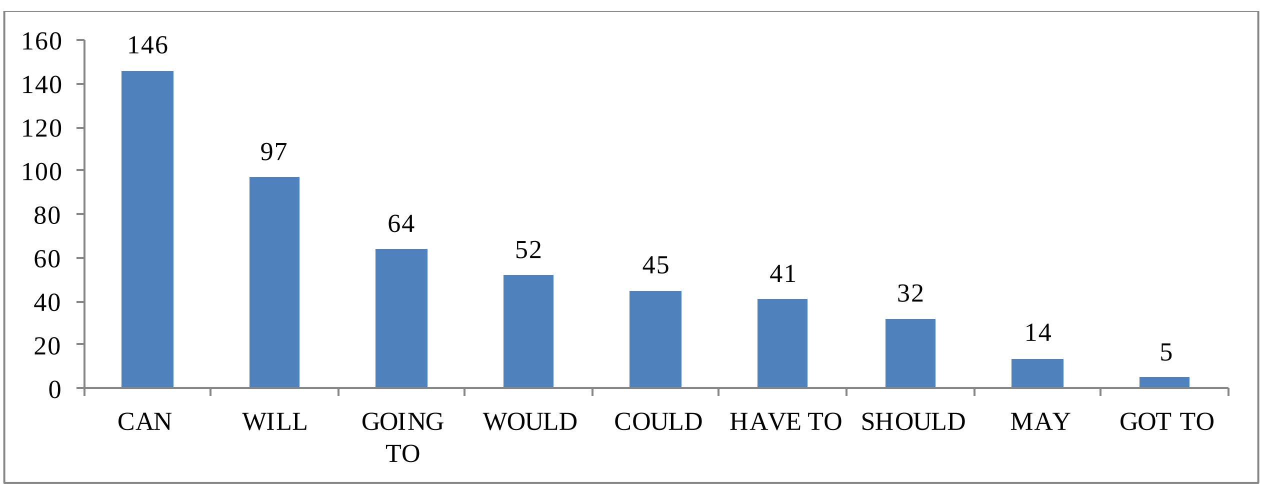


Figure 5.2 **Frequency of Modal and Semi-Modal Verbs in the Analysed Lectures**

Having analysed the frequent application of *can*, the following observations were made:

can was used 23 times in combination with the first person pronoun:

One meaning of *can* was the physical ability of a speaker to do something:

> *…and I* ***can*** *remember all the details of this article, but essentially quite he points out …is that for most rrr bears they have four claws* (AL1)

The lecturer who delivered the lecture on finance expressed his attitude to the topic he spoke about:

> *I mean, I don't want to just train you for a job, but I want to be relevant. And it seems to me that I* ***can*** *be relevant in talking about finance. And so, that's the basic core that I wanted to get.* (AL2)

In this episode, the lecturer mentioned a third person, the modal verb *can* was used in stance meaning to assure the students of the fact that finance was important for her (third person in the discourse); this way he wanted to emphasize that finance had to be important for students too:

> *But you know, she's also a finance person. She runs big businesses. She's into making things happen. And* ***I can assure*** *you that she knows finance, at least some basic finance. You see, finance gets you to build organizations.* (AL2)

I can was also used in combination with the DM *so* and had the meaning of conclusion or summary of the previous utterance:

> *So, I have here a plot of a histogram of stock price movements from 1928, every day, I've taken every day since 1928, and I've shown what the S&P Composite Index --it didn't have 500 stocks in 1928,* ***so I can't call*** *it S&P 500 for the whole period --but this is essentially the S&P 500.* (AL3)

Can was used 48 times in combination with the pronoun *you*: '*you can'*. In most cases lecturers used this construction explaining or exemplifying something in order to apply to the audience, to involve students in the discussion, to invite students to become the part of the process:

(1) *…you* ***can*** *set up your own non-profit organization…*
(2) *…you* ***can*** *go to the board meeting…*
(3) *...you* ***can*** *take the whole course…* (AL2)

Can was encountered 24 times in combination with the personal pronoun *we: we can.* In most cases it was done to make the audience feel belonging or being part of the process, being involved, and affiliated:

> *And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but just it happens to us and we need to be more conscious about it. Anyway, the other two are even worse (the audience is laughing), but* ***we can talk about*** *that another time* (AL1)

By saying *we can talk about that another time*, the lecturer did not necessarily mean that they would have a discussion–type of lecture, most probably it would be a lecture delivered by him, possibly *participatory type of lecture*, but he wanted to emphasize that the lecture was a mutual activity where both parties were involved – the lecturer and the students. Another example:

This course is self-contained. And I'm going to keep mathematics to the minimum in these lectures. But the idea here is that ***we can't*** *avoid it completely. I personally am mathematically inclined, too, but I understand that we have divided our subject matter.* (AL2)

The above extract from AL2 also shows that the lecturer wanted to involve the audience into the process, to make them part of his lecture.

Can was used 15 times in combination with the personal pronoun *they: they can.* It is more than 3 times rare than the combination *I can*. *They* in this collocation often meant some imagined characters mentioned by the lecturer in order to exemplify some concepts:

*US companies like travellers and farmers who were doing this carbon offset ...so insurers ...you know ...****they*** *have this transactional relationship with all these customers collecting premiums and the realizing that* ***they can*** *bowl carbon offsets onto that especially for things like travel insurance for car insurance ...*

Another frequently used modal verb that was encountered 97 times in the academic lectures was a modal verb *will.*

Except the first meaning of prediction of future: e.g. "…by which we decide what *we will do* and what *we won't do* …" (AL1) or "…*many of you will want to buy* a house, right?" (AL2) *will* was used with stance verbs or stance adjectives to express lecturer's attitude or opinion, as it can be seen in the example: *... the customers will like it better and it has ...* (AL1)

Stance expressions in combination with *I think / I don't think/ I'm hopeful*:

(1) *... today* ***I*** *think it will be a different part than last time* (AL1)
(2) *...because* ***I'm hopeful*** *that* ***it will*** *heal itself and we can ... (AL2)*
(3) *...well,* ***I don't know*** *what* ***it will*** *be called finally...* (AL2)
(4) *...And* ***I think*** *that* ***they will*** *have a moral obligation ...* (AL2)
(5) *...****I don't thi****nk that* ***most of you will*** *go into finance...* (AL2)

Will was also used in combination with the verb *talk* to introduce a topic or to summarize a topic:

(1) *...mentioned. But for me, I* ***will talk*** *briefly about the ...* (AL2)
(2) *...I* ***will talk*** *about these later...* (AL3)

Semi – modal *to be going to* was met 64 times in four lectures. It was mostly used to explain the action plan of the lectures:

(1) *This course is self-contained. And* ***I'm going to keep mathematics to the mi****nimum in these lectures.* (AL2)
(2) *So,* ***I'm going to stay*** *to that.* ***I'm going to talk*** *more about institutions and history than about mathematics.* (AL2)

(3) *I wanted to talk about the purpose of this course, to clarify it. One thing is, what do I imagine* ***you're going to do*** *with this course?* (AL2)
(4) *And so, if we want to understand how to do these things, we have to get some technical apparatus under our belt. And that's what* ***I'm going to try*** *to do in this course.* (AL2)
(5) *And it's the main work that you have. So,* ***I'm going to ask*** *you about the details on exams.* (AL2)
(6) *Learning a language is really important, and you've got to learn all the words, right? There's thousands of them. It's like that.* ***You're going to be learning*** *the words of finance.* (AL2)
(7) *That's the narrative story, OK. And it makes it sound -- and* ***I'm going to come back to it****, because I like the narrative story of the collapse.* (AL3)
(8) *We've had -- and* ***this is going to be an important part*** *of this course -- we've had the worst financial crisis since the Great Depression of the 1930s.* (AL2)
(9) ***I'm going to talk*** *today about probability, and variance, and covariance, and regression, and idiosyncratic risk, and systematic risk*. (AL3)
(10) *But* ***I'm also going to,*** *in the context of the crisis,* ***emphasize*** *in this lecture, breakdowns of some of the most popular assumptions that underlie financial theory.* (AL3)
(11) *Now what* ***we're going to do*** *-- this is the primary thing that we want to study, because we are interested in investing and in making a return.* (AL3)
(12) *That was a plot of the stock market from to in the U.S. And* ***I'm going to come back*** *to that*. (AL3)

Another frequent use of *to be going to* was encountered in the rhetorical questions. The use of rhetorical questions in the lecture discourse may be explained by the lecturer's wish to involve the audience in the discussion:

(1) *So then, the question is: Suppose you get on the Forbes 400, what* ***are you going to*** *do with it? In other words, to get on the Forbes 400 you have to have made at least a billion dollars. (AL2)*
(2) *You know, you still have 900 million leftover. So, what* ***are you going to*** *do with all that money? (AL2)*

Table 5.1 **Use of Modal Verbs in the Stance Meaning and their Functions in the Sentences** ([square brackets] were used when it was impossible to decipher the pronounced lexical unit)

Modal verb	**Extracts from the lectures**	**Functions of modal verbs**
Could	*There is a company in a similar kind of a business called [Dellacorni]and they make silicones of all sorts and what was happening to them is their customers would come to [Dellacorni], engineers and say, you know we got a big order here, but actually e need this silicon to cure faster than what we've been using historically and you know if you* ***could*** *just make the colour a little bit pinky, pearlish, the customers will like it better and it has to have these*	Predictability, prediction, assumption.

	measures of strength and [tensile] strength and so on… (AL1)	
	So, what are you going to do with a thousand million? Any ideas what would you do with it? You ***could*** *buy cars, right? How many sports cars* ***could*** *you buy for that? What* ***could*** *you do? You* ***could*** *buy 20 houses. But that doesn't begin -- you* ***could*** *buy 20 houses and so what?* (AL2)	You **could** + verb – lecturer's assumption, possibility. Exemplification of the lecturer's idea with the involvement of students.
	So, for example, if we're evaluating an investor who has invested money, you ***could*** *get observations, say annual returns, and you can take an average of them. (AL3)*	You **could** + verb – lecturer's assumption. Exemplification, involvement of students
	…you know that the vulnerability is a thousand times higher in the developing world to the same event so you know somehow Hurricane Katrina takes a thousand lives you know you ***could*** *take that same hurricane* ***could*** *take a million lives if it happened in the wrong place in the developing world…* (AL4)	Lecturer's supposition what could have happened in some other circumstances.
May	*I never thought about that before, but actually, the metric caused the invaders to [limer] and if people didn't measure profitability by gross margin percentage may be of this phenomenon that made [clantenior] will become obviated.* (AL1)	**May** be – small possibility that something could happen, lecturer is not sure.
	You don't have to be a billionaire to manage a billion-dollar portfolio. In fact, some of you ***may*** *be doing it sooner than you realize if you get the right kind of job. Managing a portfolio means managing the risks, putting them in the right places.* (AL2)	Some of you **may** be doing … - lecturer's prediction, something that might happen to students, although probability is small.
	So, it was -- you know, it turned out not entirely a happy story. So, ***maybe*** *it's all those poor, all those ordinary people, living in the little house…they don't risk it.* ***Maybe*** *they're the smart ones. You just don't ever hear of them.* (AL3)	Lecturer's assumption about some characters he mentions in the discourse.
Should	*And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but just it happens to us and we need to be more conscious about it.* (AL1)	Modal verb of advice.
	But I ***should*** *say I don't think that most of you will go into finance, because I think that most of you have other purposes.* (AL 2)	Modal verb +stance verb – to express lecturer' s opinion.
	If they have a zero correlation, that means there's no tendency for them to move together at all. If two variables are independent, then their correlation ***should*** *be zero.* (AL3)	Lecturer's proposition about something.
Have to	(1) *… that we've got to reduce the cost or the prices by 15%, but* ***we*** *still* ***have to be*** *profitable as before and this is a very difficult problem…* (AL1)	Semi - modal *have to* used to denote necessity.

	(2) *...And* ***you have to take*** *it in a [tancar] but if you live with this we will ship the money, we will ship it to you...* (AL1) (3)*...these guys, actually* ***don't have to*** *measure profitability by gross margin percentage, they can measure by net profit at the bottom of the market...(* AL1)	
	That's the only book you ***have to*** *purchase for this course. And it's the main work that you have.* (AL2)	Recommendation expressed by the lecturer.
	So, I'll ***have to*** *explain what all that means. But basically, let me just try to elaborate on --probability theory is a conceptual framework that mathematicians invented.* (AL3)	Used in the meaning of obligation. The lecturer expresses his strong wish to do something.
Got to	*So, they read this junk about destruction and decided we are not going to let the Chinese to destruct it, but that means that* ***we've got to*** *reduce the cost or the prices by 15%...* (AL 1)	*Have got to* used in the meaning of *have to* – obligation, necessity.
	*How do you do that? Well, the company needs money to start. So, somebody'****s got to*** *contribute capital.* (AL 2)	Got to – have to – necessity.
	I will talk about these later, but bubbles are events, in which people get very excited about something, and they drive the prices up really high, and it's ***got to*** *break eventually.* (AL 3)	Lecturer's opinion that something has to happen, strong assumption.
Would	*I would love to have you listen to it mmm and when we have discussing toward the end ...have you been able criticize my thinking or ...reinforce my thinking if you think that there is something here that is useful…* (AL 1)	Introductory phrase used to express a wish or desire to talk about something, it is encountered less often than *I would like to* and sounds more formal.
	What does it mean to go into finance? Well, it sounds like that means ***you would be*** *listed as someone who is very focused on finance. But I think everyone should know finance.* (AL 2)	Involving students in the process – imagined situation.
	So, all hurricanes are a surprise two weeks before they happen. Weather forecasters can't do that. Same thing with financial crises. This ***would*** *be the model.* (AL 3)	Possibility, *would be* is used in the meaning of *could be.*
	I ***would*** *also argue that that several of these other things are also specially compounded by by climate change that's very much on the radar this is the same survey asking has your company discussed potential risks at the board level...* (AL 4)	Tentative way of expressing opinion.

The table above shows some examples of the use of other modal verbs in the stance meaning and their functions in the sentences.

Having analysed the modal verbs used in four academic lectures, it was concluded that the most widely applied modals are *can, will* and *to be going to.* A possible explanation why the modal verbs of obligation, recommendation, advice or necessity (should, have to, got to, could) are used less often than *can, will* and *to be going to* could be that lecturers tried to remain neutral, not to impose their opinion on students; it is also possible to suppose that the lecturers were not always confident.

5.4 Qualitative Analysis of the Spoken Academic Discourse of University Lecturers

The present subchapter aimed at looking at the spoken discourse of the lecturers who delivered lectures to the students of Turiba University and Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics in years 2014-2016. University lectures were recorded using the Dictaphone and transcribed; the process was time-consuming and lengthy, that is why not all the lectures that were recorded were finally transcribed and analysed. Some lectures were uploaded from the webpage of Turiba University and transcribed. The lecturers in both universities included the local staff and international lecturers; the students were both local and international (Erasmus and full-time students).

Some lectures were borrowed from YouTube and included lectures from worldwide universities open for free access.

The purpose of the analysis was to discover how effectively the interaction between the lecturer and students occurred, to find out what deficiencies could prevent students from a successful comprehension of the lecturer's discourse and to make conclusions.

5.4.1 Academic Lecture 1

Location: Riga, Latvia, Turiba University

Registered on Turiba website since: Aug 20, 2014

Guest lecture: German marketing guru and entrepreneur, about succeeding in different areas of life. Accessed:

http://www.veritweet.com/event/6950/Helmar.Rudolph.Vieslekcija.Turiba.20.08.2014

Are you all ready?

The lecturer addressed the audience, established the contact with the students.

The next hour and a half are going to be awesome

The speaker tried to intrigue the audience by using the adjective of opinion *awesome* to introduce the topic.

> *Why? Because I present myself today or tonight as a combination of God and a guy who hands over the news that you won the lottery.*

Another technique that was used by the speaker to interest the audience was to introduce a joke in the speech.

> ***They** don't come only once, **they** come every minute that you wish so, that you desire... because what I am going to be talking about tonight is knowledge and information, ancient information that is not taught in any schools, nor **it** is taught at the universities, nor **it** is taught in your business in your or work environment.*

The lecturer used the pronouns *they* and *it* without the use of reference, as a result, this part of the discourse could sound confusing.

> *Why?... Because that knowledge was kept, hidden, was kept suppressed over the millennia. I do not wanna go into the details of that , it is just that none of this will be new to you, but the way I present it to you will make sense. And ...I can only [summize] that what will happen to you tonight is exactly the same what had happened to me when I came across this information because all the fragments of knowledge that you have in different pieces, sorry in different places, all falling into one place and eh... emerges a grand scheme of creation ...a complete image answering four critical questions: number one: what is this thing that we call God at the universal consciousness or we have other names for it? Who am I? Who am I really? What's the connection between me and this infinite source of intelligence? And number four – how can I tap in this in order to make my life awesome, in order to fulfil my dreams and desires? And as you can imagine none of this has been taught at school. But this is what life is all about – to be awesome, to have wonderful life experience, individually and collectively... Why are you so silent? So, not to confuse all things there...* (Proceeds to the slides) *Tonight we will be talking about Mind over matter and that can be taken literally.*
>
> *A few words about **myself**, so that you know **where I am coming from**. **I am coming from** the family of teachers. **My father** was a teacher, **my mother** was a teacher, **my uncle** was a teacher, **my aunt** was a teacher and **my other aunt's husband** was also a teacher. **How I survived** this without drugs* I don't know, *but I did.* (Adds a joke to raise public's mood.) *And eventually half-wanted it **I also turned into** some sort of a teacher although **I am just a middleman**, **I am just a channel of expression**, the intelligence does not come from within, it comes from the out, and **I just claim it**, and **I translate** it to you, for you, in very simple terms. **I was born** in Germany in 1966 long time ago, but for the past ten years **I've been living** in Cape Town, South Africa, the most beautiful end of the world. And ...**I was busy** there in the area of database, marketing, business development, software development. **I have a diploma** in Marketing Management and also my work was on database programming side and one day **I combined** these and said: **I am gonna be** a database marketing and relationship management consultant in South Africa - the first, two years later **I realized** that it's a bad idea to have no contacts, no money and be about ten years ahead of your market .So, **I have** to do something else... Time passed and **I was** nicely living in Cape Town, whenever **I approached** the particular suburb of[Camp Spey]*

It is still not clear for the audience what the lecturer was going to talk about. However the use of personal examples and the audience engagement with the help of a rhetorical question made the audience follow his speech with interest.

It was noticed that some geographical names were pronounced unclearly, this could make the audience confused. While trying to recognize the previously said text, the audience could miss the track of the following episode.

I said: If you really knew how to tune into your potential you can own the whole of [Camp Spey] metaphorically speaking. But I didn't know how to tap into my potential. And then one lovely winter evening in 2006 I was at the loveliest cinema in Cape Town, I watched "Secret" ....
*so **I** said **them,** [grudge] in my chair and said: Wow, this is awesome. So, **I** went back home after the movie and went to the Secret website and offered **them** my help on the dream inside and didn't hear from **them** back for a couple of months later and there I found Secret reference to book called "The Master Key to System" just mentioned there, so I googled it, found the website, printed it out and read it and that dot was dot it, because "The Master Key" is the key that opens all the doors, like here at the university I do not know how many rooms you've got. The housekeeper is not running around with 50 or 60 or 70 keys, he's got one key and that opens all the doors ...and that's awesome. So, "The Master Key", you know ...we don't want to open the classrooms, we want to open the doors to a life, we want to open the doors to abundance, we want to open the doors to the health, to happiness, to fulfilment, to love, to all the great qualities that most of us don't know how because no one teaches us that staff or no one taught us that staff ... until tonight. I can see a couple of people from marketing here. Please raise your hands, those who come from marketing side. Ye… I know how you guys tick, hhh, I've got…you make something to be presented on the silver plate. I am not gonna to be doing this. I am gonna give you something that is more awesome, because it applies to everything. .. in life* (use of pauses to emphasize) …

When the lecturer moved from one theme / topic to another, from "I" to "them", it was sometimes difficult to find the connection in the discourse and to realize where the speaker talked about himself, where he addressed the audiences and where there was a kind of intertextuality, mentioning a book or a film, the writer and himself. The switch from self-mention to examples of third persons, address to the audience and some vagueness that can be noticed in the present discourse could be misleading to some of the listeners.

This episode from the lecture showed that the lecturer was using self-mention to personalize the content of the lecture in order to interest the audience, however very often the frequent use of pronouns (I, you, and they) made the lecture unclear, since it was difficult to decipher their references.

5.4.2 Academic Lecture 2

Location: Riga, Latvia, Turiba University

Guest lecture

On 7 October 2014, A lecturer from Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences (Finland), a researcher and a lecturer of Arctic areas, read a guest lecture on the Arctic tourism including the Barents Sea region.

In the introduction the video is shown. Then the lecturer's speech follows:

> *This was the first Santa leaving for his visit to what he does every year at Christmas time. You can see some of the landscapes of [Romania] what is it, what is it,* (applies to the video, the speaker is hesitant, cannot decide what place she is showing) *So, do you recognize who they are with Santa?*

Appeals to the audience, shows the slide. Students reply. Some text is difficult to decipher, the lecturer turns to the screen and the speech is not clear.

> *So, there are many celebrities who visit Santa… this is the special place, this is the only place in the world where you can meet Santa every day during the year and it's free. You don't have to pay for it. If you want just to visit Santa and talk to him, so, you don't need to pay for it…And Santa, he is usually from 10 o'clock to 5 o'clock …* [unclear text, looking at the screen] *but when it's high season he works until 7 o'clock. And he usually, he visits before Christmas, he comes to our campus and we have this Christmas opening …* [unclear text] *with him.*
>
> *So, here I talk a bit about…*[unclear text] *as an Arctic destination and then some brief history about this Christmas tourism and how it has developed, and characteristics of Christmas tourism and some insight about the actual products.* (Slide "Contents") *And there are some competing Christmas tourism destinations in the world, so I… I …briefly go through those. So, I just heard that since this is the Project Management course for you, so that you are doing that conceptualizing tourism …* [unclear text] *for some other services developing…may be you've got some ideas…But I think that this kind of product known.. no one could imagine that something like this could happen because in early 1990-ies all the places for Christmas time were closed – the restaurants, the hotels, everything… People would stay for Christmas in their homes and if there were any travellers, they were domestic and had their own Christmases in their cottages. So, there was no international tourism whatsoever 20 years ago. So, and the idea for this Christmas tourism didn't start from Lapland, it's only somewhere else, but let's go to that a bit later. So, I just brought some map here* (is showing the next slide "Finnish Lapland") *so, here you can see Lapland there, some facts, so we are very spatially populated area and we have more reindeer than people, we are double size than Switzerland, so the province of Lapland is very big. And so, here you can see many different destinations, here you can see where Russians can come from the border, so Russians are very important also for Christmas tourism. But Russians don't come for Christmas, they come for New Year and then they spend a week to the 6th of January because they have their celebration. So, their Christmas is later and this is good because British and some other nationalities they stay for Christmas when there is real*

Christmas from our country ... [unclear text] … *But here I have some links, this is here* (points at the map on the slide) *where Kristine was studying in this region,* (enumerates regions, demonstrates them on the map, gives names in the Finnish language).*Those are all the main destinations and they all receive Christmas guests and the biggest is Levi and they have the [World competition also]. Usually in November there is snow. And hhh now usually Rovaniemi used to be the international destination but now* (mentions other regions) *are getting more and more international and now more international than Rovaniemi.*

The present extract from the lecture showed that the comprehension can be hindered by such facts as unclear pronunciation of names, including geographical names, free flow of speech that has a lot of false starts and irregular word order in the sentence. Listeners might lose the track of attention when the lecturer often turned to the screen and spoke not to the audience but projected her voice to the screen. Another misleading factor could be the frequent repetition of words.

The structure of the text was not always clear; listeners could feel that the speaker improvised and was not very coherent in delivering the topic. A clear structure is missing; the speaker did not use discourse markers that could help the audience to recognize how the speaker proceeds from one idea to another.

5.4.3 Academic Lecture 3

Guest lecture:"Introduction of EU civil judicial cooperation"

http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q1L7pWINRjI

Uploaded on YouTube 12 June, 2014

Location: Riga, Latvia, Turiba University

Guest lecture: Lecture on "Introduction of EU civil judicial cooperation" within ERASMUS Intensive programme course "Mediation in Civil and Criminal Cases to Foster European Wide Settlement of Disputes"

The lecturer gave a very structured introduction. He understood the needs of the audience. The target audience were students from the faculties of Law and Tourism.

…*Why European action on [Alternative Dispute Resolution]*

The lecturer pronounced the term in an unclear way and it was possible to decipher the term only searching for it on the Internet, which might be problematic for students who did not study Civil Law.

Em, I said that the action of European Union today is interesting in many fields and in the field of Civil Justice …

The speech was accompanied with gap – fillers, such as *hmm*, which hindered the comprehension of the lecture.

> *…the European Union notice that there are many problems of increasing duration due to the decreasing number of legal proceedings in general. So…**rrr**, citizens are moved to bring their complaints to the courts, to the judicial courts. And that's the problem because the courts are not able to afford such a such a large number of proceedings. And they are not able to grant an acceptable time for the decision. **Mmm**, I wrote this notion of the Italian torpedo because Italy is especially well-known for the duration of the proceeding … **mmm**…civil proceeding and in the intellectual property field they call Italian judgment Italian torpedo to indicate the **eh…eh**… large duration of the time. **hmm**… PPU procedure for ECJ…why I mention PPU procedure and what is …*

The audience could notice that although the lecturer was fluent in English, he did not practice it on frequent basis and therefore he used quite gap fillers while looking for the right term or word. Some pronunciation problems that could be connected with the fact of L1 influence – the Italian language could also be noticed. The audience who gathered for the lecture apart from students of Law Faculty were students of other areas, many of whom did not study Civil Law and consequently acronyms such as "PPU procedure for ECJ" should have been explained for the less –aware learners.

5.4.4 Academic Lecture 4

Recorded and transcribed in Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics

Course: Corporate Social Responsibility

Lecturer: Russian

21 international students

November 11, 2015

Lecture 4 was visited and transcribed by the author. It was chosen because the author noticed that both her and students could not fully understand the lecture and could not take proper notes. The process of transcribing took 14 days. The author analysed the following aspects of the discourse: move structure, use of discourse markers, lexico-grammatical features, grammar mistakes and a lecturing style. The table below presents the transcribed lecture on the left and author's analysis on the right. It provides additional comments by the author in square brackets [e.g], that explain what is happening in the course of a lecture, e.g. students' and lecturer's behaviour.

Lecturer: *Hello. Have you read the* ***case****? I was at the ...at the meeting today of our department. So and usually it takes only one hour and today it was about two and I couldn't miss it. Sorry. Ok, <u>we have today the topic which is Corporate Social Responsibility strategy</u> and as we have this topic I also thought that we should discuss the case study, the example, the company which participated in the international operation and so* ***the story*** *how the company understands this situation* [the text was unclear for transcribing because somebody was coughing]	No clear reference, it is not clear whether the lecturer refers to a 'case', that she mentioned before or it is something she will talk about later.
and what the company has managed.... So, you have <u>this story</u> ***in at*** *Facebook ye and you have this story printed story... So...er.. Please tell me who* ***have*** *read this story...right now...****ya****... Ok, you are self-organized, ok. So very good*	It is not clear what preposition the lecturer wanted to use; a grammar mistake; the use of gap-fillers.
and ***<u>let me introduce our guest</u>****. <u>This is Valeria Malavska, she is doing her research and is going to follow our lecture if you don't mind.</u> Ok, and* ***let <u>us</u> <u>start</u>*** *<u>now module three Corporate Social Responsibility</u>. We have already discussed with you two topics Corporate Social Responsibility and Sustainable Development and here as we remember that* ***Corporate Social Responsibility*** *at the company level and Corporate sustainability at the company level...ehh...so we are talking about the strategy how the company can define its operations...eh... its activities... in the sphere of its social obligation and...in the sphere of ecological environment obligation. Let's start...* [The text is not clear for deciphering and transcribing, no clear combination of some words.]	The lecturer interrupts herself and passes from step 1 "Making a digression" to step 2 "Housekeeping" (Move 1) and immediately to Announcing the topic (Move 2).
The ***<u>contents</u>*** **(1)** *of today's lecture is Sustainable business model. So, we will discuss what is the business model and how* ***they*** *define the company design, the role of businesses in social issues. So, how the company* ***involve, can be involved*** **(2)** *in the operations of the market. ... then the strategy be like framework because the company needs a kind of framework ... the step... t****hey*** *need to realize* [unclear, impossible to decipher] *and etcetera ... and we need to...as managers we need to know what is our* ***framework*****.(3)** *Er...Then corporate social responsibility and corporate sustainability management how do we manage ...*	The use of a word **contents** with the wrong meaning (probably **theme** or **topic** were meant) (1); the use of Active Voice and Passive Voice, no clear, if *the company involves* or *is involved* (2); no clear what the word **framework** refers to. (3)
and who is responsible later ***...eh...*** *and who is able to be responsible ...* ***<u>this is</u>*** *the case of our today's discussion. <u>So</u>* ***<u>this is</u>*** *<u>the visualization of business model</u> ... You can look at that at your laptops in detail and I would like to introduce you this idea. I am pretty sure that you know what is a business model... Do you*	Gap-fillers; **this is** – no clear reference (1);

know? [The lecturer asks a question] <u>*Do you know*</u>. **(1)** [Answers herself.] *Who is ready to say us what is the business model?* <u>*You are ready?*</u>**(2)** *Please* [The lecturer gives the floor to a student. The student is hesitant, then she addresses another one]	***You are ready?*** – no clear whether it is an answer or a question. (2)
May be you, because you said you know what is business model. <u>*How can we as managers describe the business model?*</u> **(3)** ***Student 1(S1):*** *(coughing) … Well I would say this is how the company works and all different departments and how they are working all together* <u>*for example*</u>*.* *eh…* ***Lecturer:*** <u>*Ye, ye, it's about the company*</u> **(4)***, how the company operates, it's important. What is the company's connection with the environment. Er… how the inner processes are connected with the outer processes. Ye… Then.. ah… what is more important, what is less important in the company's processes. Ye? These are different business models. And what is business model? Actually it is visualization of the business. So, when you think about your business …ye… you think what it is about…* <u>*you think about all the processes, about your lecture, all the connections, exams, your schedule and when we combine it in one picture we can get model of your study, of your education.*</u> **(5)** *And for managers, they have this business model. The Model of business. Why is it important? Because, for example, I am a manager and my colleague is also a manager and we need to* [unclear word] *our picture and we need to visualize and this is the way how we could get the common vision, the one vision of our business.*	Wrong word order (3) (*May be you, because you said you know what is business model.*); the lecturer asks a student, however later she interrupts him and does not let him exemplify. She answers herself (4); the lecturer gives examples that students can understand.(5)
So, first of all <u>***it***</u> *is very convenient, second, in the second step* [the lecturer is hesitating, she is trying to find the right phrase] *we realize that it is quite simple. And when we can see very complex processes* <u>***it***</u> *usually helps us to understand what* <u>***it***</u> *is about. That's why* ***business models*** *are extremely important in the way how we operate. Ye? And. What else? So, when we look at* ***business models*** *we realize what the* ***processes*** *are more important for us. Ye? And we realize where, for example,* ***corporate social responsibility*** *as the* ***process*** *which we are talking about …****corporate social responsibility****… where it should be. Ye… where it should be. Ok. Let's have a look. I think you may know very well this* ***Porter model****…* ***business model*** *developed by Michael Porter. So, this model tells us that we get …the company gets profit…as* <u>*at the very beginning you said what is*</u> <u>***business***</u> *– business is* ***profit****. Ye?*	There is no clear reference – no clear what ***it*** refers to; the lecturer changes themes too often, as a result the idea can be lost: ***business model - process-corporate social responsibility – Porter model – business model – business – profit.***
But how does the business get profit? Through its primary activities. What are the primary activities? Like logistics, operation, production, marketing, sales and services. And what else? Let's take [productivity]. <u>***It's*** *not primary activities it is support activities.*</u> *Here are activities like structure, human resource management, technology, procurement, et cetera. All the procedures which are in the company but which are not in the main primary processes.*	A grammar mistake that may cause misunderstanding; it is not clear what 'it's refers to- ***primary activities***, ***productivity*** or ***support activities.***
So, my question to you: where should we locate corporate social responsibility	

and sustainable development as a function of business? Where in this model would you place this function? Ye, please. ***S1:*** *Supporting activities.* ***Lecturer:*** *Supporting activities, but* ***in what cases****?* ***S1:*** *Sorry?* ***What****?* ***Lecturer: In what cases****? Corporate social responsibility contains* ***several subfunctions****.* ***What kind of subfunctions? Could you give some examples?*** ***S1: Subfunctions...*** ***Lecturer: Subfunctions****. Ye… Corporate social responsibility.* ***S1:*** *Producing environmentally friendly.* ***Lecturer:*** *Producing friendly environment. Ye. So, you mean communicating?* ***S1:*** *Also as a marketing strategy.*	The lecturer asks an unclear question; then she explains and asks another question S1 does not understand; the next part of the dialogue sounds vague and unclear.
Lecturer: *As a part of the marketing strategy. As a part of the marketing strategy it may be placed here. As a part of marketing strategy. But as the fruits of the company it should be placed here - like General Management. The principles of the company – the corporate culture of the company in the sphere of the corporate social responsibility should be placed here. Ye?* ***S1:*** *Yes. I told that.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye. And* ***it*** *gives a kind of signals to the primary activities. Like, marketing: you should be more responsible… But then there was a question in marketing department: I don't know what it is to be responsible. Please explain me and there should be someone … some department in the company which is able to explain what is being responsible, what does it mean for this particular company, what is being responsible, so this department which explains* ***everywhere*** *what is responsibility for the company which defines rules for the company* ***it*** *placed here.*	***It, everywhere*** – no clear references.
But [aaa] it gives a kind of signals, rules, principles to all the primary departments. To all its support activities departments and to all the primary departments. Could ***you*** *do it or* ***you*** *could not do it? Ye? Could* ***you*** *do it or not* ***you*** *can't do it. (1)Yes, this is the system how the company is making operate. (2) Now we see where the corporate social responsibility is placed. Ye? Ahh… There are several else business models … we will not take deeper look at those models but I give you supplementary materials at your lecture* [unclear text, missing text]	Gap-fillers; grammar mistakes (1,2); it is not clear reference – what ***you*** refers to – ***students, company*** or something else.
Some students something know about the business models but not in detail [unclear text, thee lecturer hesitates, probably cannot find the right words, does not know how to say] … *Then you know that the company has a kind of life cycle? Do you know that? That the company can be described in life cycle as any human being. And you know that the company meets some risks in the process of its development …* [unclear text] *So , please tell me where the processes of corporate social responsibility are more structurized and formalized and when they are less formalized and less structurized, so at what period of the company life? So, will it be beginning, middle and [unclear text] so, what do you think? When are rules, principles and norms more structurized? At what stage?*	Wrong word order in the sentence; the lecturer probably wants to move to another subtopic. She asks questions.

[Pause. Students are considering what to answer. The lecturer gives time for them to think over her question.]	
Student 2 (S2): *At the middle?* ***Lecturer:*** *In the middle. More structurized?* ***(S2):*** *Ye.* [Ss. Some signal showing that they know what the lecturer is asking about.] ***Lecturer:*** *Why?* ***(S2):*** *Because at the beginning they have to make the structure, I would say, and then there is an increase and then they have structure, and may be the company* [unclear text] ***Lecturer:*** *Yes, of course, for example we have decided that we can start business, you and me. Ye? And <u>we construct our business follow</u>, of course we talk about corporate responsibility or company responsibility, but there are so many risks, <u>**it**</u> is also very important, and besides the companies are usually very small at the start of its life. So, that's why we don't care so seriously about the principles of responsibility and norms, and risks in the sphere of responsibility. We can think about it. Ye? Ye? <u>You can agree or not agree</u>, but we can think about <u>**it**</u> that may be some of the risks are connected with responsibility risk. Ye? Then in the middle of the company life responsibilities, norms and principles are structurized are verbal….*[unclear text] *and what does that mean, may be this is the reason why the company goes down. May be there is a connection.*	In this episode it is not clear if students understand what the lecturer means; **it** – no clear reference; the use of a wrong collocation: *we construct our business follow.*
What do you think? <u>So, why the company was very risky in responsibility in the very beginning and then there is the period of stability and then why the company loses</u>. What do you think? **S2:** *May be they didn't listen up to their stakeholders and their wishes.* ***Lecturer:*** *Aha, one of the reasons that they lose their feedback with their stakeholders. Ye? Their .. May be. One of the reasons. And may be the risks are so high that in case of irresponsibility the company can lose the department …ye…or the company …ye…or something else. Ye? There is the case. So. The risks are quite high. <u>May be **there is** also **some risks**.</u> .. and <u>maybe **there are**</u> **outcome** is not so negative for the company, so that's why the company can survive.*	No clear if it is an affirmative or a question; the use of Past and Present tenses in one sentence, breaking the rule of sequence of tenses; a grammar msitake (no clear – singular or plural is used) that leads to misunderstanding.
*Ye. And in this case the company cannot survive…ye… and maybe <u>**there is** the **processes**</u> **(1)** of bureaucracy which ruin all the activity in this case….ye? Ok, so… Very good. <u>We looked at</u> … we didn't look on the life cycle of the company … you know this model … it's **[hakadiziz]** model **(2)**, ye… you know it…yes? <u>Please comment to yourself just to know what we are doing, so, because it's quite famous actually model of life cycle, so you need to know it and moreover you can also analyse it, the life of the company, the risk of responsibility for this company just looking at the different stages of the development of the company… because a company meets all these risks at all these stages.</u>* **(3)** *My question to you … so there is the timeline Y (is pointing at the whiteboard) but what is the vertical X here what should it be here? Please find. What makes the company growth and makes it develop?*	A grammar mistake (1); the lecturer mentions the name of the model, that sounds unclear. The recommendation could be to have a written version of new concepts e.g. written on the

Student 3(S3): *Profit.* ***Lecturer:*** *Profit? Ye. Profit. Here profit and here profit (is pointing at the whiteboard). Ok, may be here yet. They are equal. Here and here.* ***S3****: May be also business growth* ***Lecturer:*** *What?* ***S3:*** *Business growth. ...en the growth of market share…* ***S2:*** *May be it is just* ***Lecturer:*** *Ah, business growth, growth of the company. So, what is the growth? The growth of market share or the growth ...* **(4)** ***S3:*** *Ye, it can be everything. The market share, profit ...* ***S1:*** *Market share, there may be have company size.*	whiteboard (2); there is often a direct translation from L1 to L2: e.g. *Please comment to yourself just to know;* not clear what the lecturer wants to achieve – if she informs, enquires, requests or recommends something (3); it is not clear what the lecturer means: the noun **growth** is repeated several times without a clear reference. (4)
Lecturer: *You know the stories when the companies were very very big and which now … they disappeared… but they were quite big. Ye. There are some companies. Not the growth, it's not easy really, but you know this word… maybe. What also. What makes the company growing and aging? This is the life cycle. The same for the people, for the human beings… what makes you growing and what makes you aging? Actually there is the time potential for the company, time to grow and time to go down. The size of this potential or the strength of this potential when it's high the company is most stable and able to survive … the later potential like here.. the company is not able…* **(1)** ***Student 4 (S4):*** *(Interrupting) In which terms the potential?* **(2)** ***Lecturer:*** *In which terms?* ***S4:*** *Ye, it could be also market size, the size of the company.* ***Lecturer:*** *The size of the company, the market size, this is the outcome of its activity. But the potential it's like competences. It's opportunity to get* ***it.*** *Ye* **(3).**	It is not clear what the lecturer means (1); an elliptical sentence is used, unfinished idea: *the later potential like here.. the company is not able;* by interrupting the lecturer the student shows that he does not understand what the lecturer means (2); there is no clear reference. (3)
You can lose your job, but you can find new job, because you have potential, you speak the language, the English language and you know business models, so … (laughing). Yes, your question (applies to another student). ***S4:*** *I want to mention market trends and the ability to adapt your company to those trends. So, what the companies did, so they died, like Nokia or Kodak, I think…* ***Lecturer:*** *They lost completely their markets. Ye. Ye? But when the company*	The lecturer does not finish the idea (1); a wrong collocation is used – probably the lecturer wanted to use an expression

has a kind of potential, the competences, and this ability to be more flexible to find new markets it has the ability to live for a longer time. Ok, very good. You know this question is really entertaining because we need to think what makes us, and what makes our companies be more prosperous… and now… this is the model of kind of sustainability, so, ***<u>somehow ….</u>*** **(1)** *Actually each model of corporate social responsibility and sustainable development ... we see those interrelations between all these* [unclear word] *in the market, so there is a company that cooperates with the society, with business and with the government. And we can say that there is a kind of group of stakeholders and the task of the company to construct the relationship with all these groups. This is the task of the company and this is the opportunity of the company to survive. And this cooperation with all departments, all the stakeholders make the company sustainable* ***<u>on one side.</u>*** **(2)** *<u>To know about your stakeholders</u>* <u>[unclear text]</u> *<u>with those stakeholders ... and then the task of the company is to structurize those stakeholders, to define who is in the first place, on the second place, etcetera... and then to realize what should be the design of</u>* ***<u>this community</u>*** *<u>and cooperation with all these stakeholders</u>. Ye?* **(**3) *This is the task of the company, its main goal in the system of cooperation in constructing sustainable model of cooperation. So, this is the logic of sustainable* [unclear word] *of the company. Ok.*	'on the one hand' (2); the idea is not clear . (3)
*<u>What make</u>****<u>e</u>*** *<u>company sustainable and what main principles should be in the...in company vision and understanding? First of all the business and responsibility shouldn't ...the idea of business...ye...and the idea of responsibility of this business or influence of responsibility shouldn't confront because ... any kind of responsibility, individual responsibility of the employer of the company of the whole company's responsibility if there is contradiction it mean that the company may suffer and lose its market.</u>* **(1)** *Ye? We can bring example of audit company which submitted report with mistakes of <u>Enron company and it means that the company ...</u>that there is a kind of contradiction ...ye, between business and responsibility ... so it means that the company lost its sustainability.*	It is not clear what the lecturer means. It is not clear if it is an affirmative statement or a question. (1)
what are the expectations towards responsibility today and what they will be tomorrow. We also count this topic with you but just don't forget because it's a kind of principle ... so this is the time we change our ... [the lecturer hesitates] *I rephrase...Stakeholders are changing the expectations ... ah... their expectation... and the company should take them into account. And what is important... that the manager ... the manager who hasn't vision of the company today take this vision and goes to tomorrow ... but the situation is different ... that the manager has the vision of the previous days... ye... it's very important to change its vision even for you but also you have some of the yesterday vision ... ye... <u>It's true?... Ye?</u>***<u>(1)</u>** [A pause] *And mature management... mature management mean that the higher the level of management in the company the more management of the company should be efficient in the responsibility* [unclear text] *so these are the main ideas of it ..*[unclear text]*, the time zones are taken into account ... all <u>the changes which are around us went us to the maturity...ok... My question to you: are there bad and good companies</u> [all related and complicated] so.. what is it*?**(2)** [unclear text - asks some question to students] *so, you have 4 minutes for discussion and please give your vision. Ye? Ye? May be you are*	The lecturer did not receive feedback from students in the form of an answer (1); the questions she asked were unclear and not well-formulated (2); students were not aware of what answers the lecturer expected from them.

together [organizes students in groups for group work. Group discussion is taking place]	
4 minutes later: ***Lecturer:*** *So what are your thoughts? Let me ask your team. So what is your vision? Are there good and bad companies?* [The discussion with the students is taking place. The lecturer gives some parallel comments to the speakers, she gives examples of some companies while discussing students' answers. Students from all groups share their ideas, say their examples, give names of some companies.] ***Lecturer:*** *Ok, good, thank you very much. Can you summarize and give your vision of the complexity of the companies.* [Students are summarizing.] ***Lecturer:*** *Ye, absolutely, so if you are weaker in the terms of corporate social responsibility* ***<u>like that</u>*** *or if you are not so good in promoting your corporate social responsibility image* ***<u>like that</u>*** *so this is also a question ...* [unclear text] *I like very much your position that you realize certain complexity. But and please <u>when you have a kind of attached to the company</u> please come back to our discussion that the reality is more complex that there are not bad or good companies, but the reality is more complex... ye. <u>so and the company need a lot of changes like in this case.</u> Because sometimes there is a kind of pressure so with the company activity - the company debts. It's not always...*[unclear text]	Unclear use of the phrase 'like that' in the sentence; grammar mistakes, unclear text; elliptical sentences used; unfinished thoughts, e.g. *Because sometimes there is a kind of pressure so with the company activity - the company debts. It's not always...*
Ok... Now once again we have Mickle Porter who is I would say is a leader in the sphere of strategy ... so... he <u>gave</u> [Past Simple] *us more different instruments, tools for analysis and he also <u>draws</u>* [Present Simple] *his attention to the responsibility. He <u>attracted</u> managers and strategic managers toward the issue of sustainability and responsibility of the* ***company*** *and what did he say? He <u>said</u> that business <u>cannot</u> solve all the society problems because sometimes we <u>can</u>* ***look at the company*** *and the* ***<u>company</u>*** *<u>which is ...and that</u> <u>there are</u> very realistic holders that are expecting, which expecting .... which have some expectations of* ***the company*** *activities.* **(1)** *So,* ***<u>the company</u>*** *cannot solve all the society's problems because sometimes there is a vision and expectation in public how <u>the</u>* ***<u>company</u>*** *should be responsible over the society's issues. Is it so or not? We remember that Porter said no, that* ***<u>company's responsibility</u>*** **(2)** *is economical responsibility. No other. Ah... then business must approach its special agenda practically and strategically. How do you understand what is proactively? How do you understand? What is proactively?* ***Student 5 (S5):*** *Ah... we involve all the stakeholders, and especially consumers.* ***Lecturer:*** *Very great! <u>So</u>* ***<u>you</u>*** *<u>are really</u> great that* ***you*** *start answering to this question because it was difficult. Ye, it is a really difficult* question, *but* ***<u>you</u>*** *found <u>how could</u>* ***<u>you</u>*** *<u>solve this problem</u>, <u>how could you think proactively because you realize</u> if* ***<u>you</u>*** *react towards some changes it means that* ***<u>you</u>*** *are in the same position but if* ***<u>you</u>*** *somehow predict, think the solution and give some decision to the society* ***<u>you</u>*** *are strong in the position... ye? So, that's why it is very important to start the right decision, <u>that's why the company launched</u> those corporate social responsibility departments which analyse expectations of these stakeholders and <u>which thinks</u> how could* ***<u>they</u>*** *[unclear word] into the responsibility model of the company. Really? And <u>what does the company do</u>? <u>They involve</u> into the* [unclear text] *... yes,* ***<u>they</u>*** *<u>do this</u>.* **(3)** *Sometimes, for*	Grammar – sequence of tenses - the use of Past Simple and Present Simple with one and the same subject in the same sentence. Can be confusing (1); not clear which company is meant – an imaginary company, any company, several companies (2); frequent use of a personal pronoun 'you' without a clear reference; a grammar mistake and no clear reference – 'the person', 'they', 'to them', 'their business model' – no clear if they refer to the 'person who won the

example the company Sberbank...You know Sberbank? You know. So, the company which is quite popular not only in Russia but in the world... so and this company at one moment <u>*when* ***constructed its corporate social responsibility strategy norms***</u> *started its crowd sourcing project. What is crowd sourcing project? You don't know this word. Right? So, it published in its website a kind of contest, a case contest...* <u>*and said, who is ready to share ideas over the responsibility*</u>*, over the company responsibility. So* <u>*the person*</u> *of the company* <u>***which invents the best question***</u> **(4)** <u>*or gave some brilliant ideas were somehow prized*</u> *and what is important* <u>*they*</u> *implemented these ideas which* <u>*are relevant to them*</u> *into* <u>*their business model*</u> *of the company's activities. Yes, this was the case. The company actually realized it in practice. That involves all ...not all but those stakeholders who visited the website and got into the process of its responsibility. More or less companies are doing this ... ye... every time, every day. Finding the solution. And of course not being proactive means to lose... some of the opportunities... and may be to meet some risks. The last ... the last characteristic or recommendation ah.... which* [unclear text] *... social issues where can add the most revenue. This is the question of efficiency of the activity of the company.*	prize' or 'the company Sberbank.' (3) The use of wrong collocations (4): *constructed its corporate social responsibility strategy norms, which invents the best question*
Some of you told me that companies should be good, but the companies should find the solution of effective recourse management and responsibility management. Ye...This is the case. That the company should think where the company could add this value. Ye... Where it could be efficient. Where it can get results, good results. Ye... to the society in general and the company as well. Ye. This is the case. This is a kind of recommendation how <u>*the strategy should be constructed*</u>*. What should you* <u>*take into the framework of corporate social responsibility.*</u> **(1)** *And... the next question is a question which the company needs usually it's a question for quite big companies because small companies they can't influence the society. But big companies can, because some of the companies have the resources which are bigger than the resources of some countries. Yet, so, that's why the role of the corporations in the modern world is very very strong. Ye*<u>*... so that's why this is a question where there is a company that we have the greatest people or social issues ...what's are those institutions?*</u> **(2)** *Let us think what kind of social problems may be in the society can have... just let's remember what they can be. Health? What else? Please have some ideas. They are on the surface. Nothing complicated actually.*	The use of wrong collocations. (1)
S1: *Pollution.* ***Lecturer:*** *Pollution. Ye. Pollution. What else? ... [pause] Education. Ye? Education. Not all the people can get proper education like you. Ye?* ***S2:*** *The technologies.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye, the technologies.* <u>*That we shall discuss on Tuesday*</u>*.* **(1)** *Ye, ye, ye, ye, the technology.* *So that we could have the access to technology. What else? [pause] Food. Ye. Water. Freedom. Ye? These are social issues which are important for us, for our life... and to which extent the company can place other institution...what are the other institutions... what do we mean by other institutions? This is government, local authorities? All these institutions ... social institutions...which manage... administrate those processes in the society... ye... for example, education processes...and then the company can somehow support those processes in the.. at the education system...or any other system. Ye? So, and this actually strategic*	Wrong word order in the sentence (1); lecturer's unclear flow of thoughts that did not take any proper form. Confusing and misleading for students; there is no clear reference, as a result, the idea is lost (3):

question to the company: where would you like to take responsibility and so for somewhere in social issues? What type of goal? What is your strategic choice? Why do you need it for your company? Ye? And what is also important and let's have a look [at it] When we speak about corporate responsibility, and when we speak about the charity of the company sometimes there is a kind of ... mmm...aaa...there is a kind of mix between the person, between the [all business] and business. So, what is important that business, I mean corporation ... ye... and the owner of this business ...ye... shareholder is [appointed object] it's [truly] information, but what is important the business and society ... ye...the business is responsibility... responsibility...and the owner of business ....ye... the owner of business it takes its [unclear word] over the charity project... over the charity project. Ye? **(2)** *So, sometimes...aaa...**those notions of objects** are somehow mixed. Ye? but we need also to be able to spread **it** and to see that **the charity project which is** initiated by the owner of business, by the family, by the founder, by the shareholders of the company and **this is responsibility issues**.* **(3)** *Why is **it** so important? Why do we talk about it on the strategic.. on the lecture of strategic corporate responsibility? Because **the business** ... ye... the **holder of the business** is* [unclear word] *he should be able to take decisions... yes? Because **the company** turns something ... ye the company's **profit** ... or the company gets some profit.* **(4)**	*those notions of objects, it , the charity project which is, this is responsibility issues;* frequent change of the theme. As a result – unclear thoughts and the loss of idea (4): *the business, holder of the business, the company, profit ...*
And the company... the company is able to take decision over this profit. What do you think? What do you think? Is the company able to take decision over its profit or the owner should take decision over how to spend this profit. What do you think? Who could do it? For example, you are the owner, ye... you are the owner of the business and your business gets some profit, so, what do you think, the business management, the management of this company should decide how to spend this profit, may be some charity project, or you as the owner of the business would like to take decision over this profit? ***Student 6 (S6):*** *I would make some investment.* ***Lecturer:*** *You would make some investment. So, you would like to take the decision by yourself. Ye? Or would you prefer that the managers take your money and decide by themselves? You don't like it, ye?* ***S6:*** *No.* ***Lecturer:*** *No, absolutely. I would prefer to spend that money by myself. Or for example you are the representative of top management, let it be you. You are top manager of the business, and you get some profit, so would you like to take decision by yourself or **would you like to share that this decision** should be taken by the owner of the business? What would you prefer?* ***S6:*** *To share.* ***Lecturer:*** *To share. Ye, to my mind this is the owner. Right? So that 's you prefer to share, because if you say: I prefer to take decision by myself you can lose this owner, or this position of the company. So, you prefer to share. And what about the society? Society actually would be just responsible* [unclear text] *reintegrated in social needs. Ye? Integrated in social needs. But...*	The wrong collocation is used and repeated several times – first by the lecturer and later by a student. However, it is not clear is the student understood what the lecturer meant by *to share the decision*.
*what is important is to see the difference between the owner of the business and the business itself. Ye? So, **business** should be responsible and [charitical] **project** usually is the project of the owner ... but when the **business** ... there are **some businesses** ye...like very **many companies**,*	A long utterance that does not have thematic divisions; too many nouns

actually, have ***not one owner****, but* ***many-many-many ow****ners and those owners they can't influence on the business. Ye? Actually. They don't have* ***this opportunity*** *and in this case* ***top management*** *takes all the decisions over* ***the company profit and investments*** *and* ***charitable projects*** *and etcetera.* **(1)** *Ye. And in this case the company takes this decision... So, once again, which is difficult, complex, so, just to attract the attention to its complexity. And anyway, anyway, the company should think about what ... why this company is useful for the society. And why these responsibility issues is they are in need for the society or not and should we replace some institutions, social institutions or not. This is also the question for the company. Whether the company needs to do it or not. Ok. And Michael Porter also attracted attention... so, social values... so what are social values? What is value? What do I need, what do I realize, what is important for me? So, and I think about this company because the company* ***gets*** *something very important for the society.* **(2)** *Ye... So, and first of all there are social benefits, benefit is something what the society can get, ye? For example better education, some education programmes. Thank you very much and good-bye. Ye? So, this is the case. And the same for the company... from the business perspective ... what is this? Maybe social benefits for the society is very good, but the social resources which the company ... business resources ... which company spent on solving these social problems ... for doing something for the society are also vary* [unclear word]. *What does that mean? That social value ... the owner can lose its profit, for example due to these such activities of the company. Ye? Or the company can lose its stability, improving something you can also do, this is benefit and then resources which are involved in this process, in the process of benefit. Because if the company brings some benefits, but the company takes some resources from the society ... and my company may be very well known ... ye. that's why for the company it's really important to look at* ***these****, what are the* ***social benefits*** *and what are the* ***resources****. And the company* ***should take*** *from the social... from the society position and from the business position.* **(3)**	without references. Lecturer's unclear flow of thoughts, that did not take any proper form, can be confusing and misleading to students (1); the use of the wrong verb: *because the company* ***gets*** *something very important for the society* (2); the object is missing, there is no clear reference – whether 'these' refers to 'social benefits', to 'resources' or to both. (3)
and from the owner's position... because social benefits are high ... ye... but resources which the company attracted and maybe these resources ... society resources are also very [unclear word] What is social value? And the society will be informed, will give this feedback, not may be right now, but in future. Ok, you are bad company... ye, because ***you spent*** *our resources and* ***brought*** *us no benefits, for example production companies... ye... manufacturing companies ...* ***you bring*** *us some benefits,* ***you solve*** *the problem of unemployment in our region. Very good. But* ***you took*** **(1)** *our ecological resources and we get no value from your activity image ... [unclear text] so, that's why the reality is complicated... when the company wants to improve its product sometimes it can sometimes lose its market... and so these are* ***five those*** *which Michael Porter summarized or identified if we speak about the competitiveness of the companies. We should have skilled employees, employees which realize the responsibility issue... ye... skilled it means that they are aware of their profession and their responsibility issue, ethics in their profession, safe working conditions, inside companies there are rules and processes which are safe, not only person or employee ... but the system is safe for the person who would like to work in this system - transparent, corruption free business environment,*	Grammar mistakes – sequence of tenses – the use of Past Simple interchanged with the use of Present Simple. Can be confusing (1); there is no clear reference: *So, these are the cases and these are cases ...There is always a change, here or there* (2); the use of Active and Passive Voices interchangeably. It is

so in general outside the company. The opportunities...[unclear text] *and natural environment. Ye. So, these are the cases which identify the company ability to be competitive and these are cases which make the company stronger in terms of sustainability. There is always a change, here or there.* **(2)***The company always needs some changes. Here or there. Even the most transparent companies have some black zones which we can x-ray ... ye... (laughing) and look at them.* *Now, corporate social responsibility framework and this framework explains us how the company can construct the model of strategic decisions. First of all, what the companies start with - with the audit - all the processes and **it's analysed** what are the system of corporate social responsibility inside the company... ye...this is the case... then the company **analyse** stakeholders*.**(3)** *So, the first stage is analysis. Then. Strategy. What is it? We realize what maybe our policy, so **we construct some kind of documents**, set of rules, recommendations, promoting materials, etcetera,* **(4)** *then we make a kind of structure... as we decided: supplementary ... supplementary functions and we define its place in the business model. We construct it into the company model.* *Then we start attracting people and we educate people, then we define what in the finance do we need to realize these functions. Ye? We need to find the ways how to do **it**.* **(5)** *And then implementation. But what means implementation?* *We do something, we monitor, we control and then we summarize. And we find what are our results . And then we report. How do we report? Now, my question to you: What are companies usually reporting about? Ye? Because you have, I think, you have seen a kind of structure of this report. So, what do companies report about? Easy question. Once again, you have looked through reports. Ye? And what is the structure of these reports?* ***S1:*** *Their strategy. What they want to achieve. The aims. And what they already achieved.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye. General information about the company.* ***S2:*** *Detailed project.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye, some project. Social programme, environmental programme, some project.* ***S3:*** *What kind of actions they want to improve.* ***S4:*** *So to say, how to fit into the general business model.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye, how the social corporate responsibility is implemented in the business model. So, they show, demonstrate their proficiency and their effectiveness. Ok. And you?* ***S5:*** *Ye, and well, achievements and ratings, something like this.* ***Lecturer:*** *Ye, ye, ye. So, you know very good how to construct the report of Corporate Social Responsibility. Very good.* ***S5:*** *we read some, so... (laughing)* ***Lecturer:*** *Ok, very good. Now let's stop here, I would like to ask you, would you like to have a break?* ***Students:*** *Yes...* ***Lecturer:*** *Ok, let's have a 10 minute break. Ok?*	not clear 'who' 'analyses' 'what' . The utterance can sound confusing (3); the use of a wrong collocation (4); there is no clear reference (5): *We need to find the ways how to do **it**.*

The analysis of Lecture 4 was aimed at the study of the move-structure, use of DMs, lexico-grammatical features and lecturing style chosen by the lecturer and allowed coming to some conclusions. From the genre point of view the lecturer followed the rules of an academic lecture.

The lecturing style was not monologic, the lecturer tried to involve the audience, had group work, exemplified and asked rhetorical questions. Even the elements of interdiscursivity were noticed, for example, quoting Michael Eugene Porter - an American academic known for his theories on economics, business strategy, and social causes. It was discovered that although the lecturing style was interactive and the lecturer tried to involve the audience, this fact did not help in understanding the lecture.

One of the reasons was the lack of proper structure - ideas were changed without any logical sequence. No discourse macro-markers were used to show the switch from one move to another or from one step to another.

For example: *Have you read the* ***case****? I was at the ...at* ***the meeting*** *today of our department. So and usually it takes only one hour... and today it was about two...Sorry. Ok, we have today* ***the topic*** *which is Corporate Social Responsibility strategy and as we have* ***this topic*** *I also thought that we should discuss* ***the case study****, the example,* ***the company*** *which participated in the international operation and so* ***the story*** *how the company understands this situation.*

Other discrepancies noticed, included the use of elliptical sentences on frequent basis, the wrong word order and missing parts of sentences, for example object or a predicate (e.g. *"****Some students something know*** *about the business models but not in detail."; "Could* ***you*** *do it or not* ***you*** *can't do it..."*). The lecturer used a question for an affirmative sentence and an affirmative sentence when she wanted to ask a question (e.g. *So, why the company was very risky in responsibility in the very beginning and then there is the period of stability and then why the company loses.*)

The lecturer did not finish her thought (e.g. *May be* ***there is*** *also* ***some risks****...*); she often started the explanation and never concluded (e.g. *Then corporate social responsibility and corporate sustainability management how do we manage ... and who is responsible later* ***…eh…*** *and who is able to be responsible*); it was often unclear where the subject, predicate and object were (e.g. *And the company* ***should take*** *(?) from the social... from the society position*).

Another problem noticed was the frequent use of personal pronouns. The personal pronouns *you, they* and *it* were often used without any references in the sentences (e.g. ***you*** *found how could* ***you*** *solve this problem, how could* ***you*** *think proactively because* ***you*** *realize if* ***you*** *react towards some changes it means that* ***you*** *are in the same position but if* ***you*** *somehow predict*). As a result, the idea of the sentence was often missed.

Past Simple and Present Simple were frequently used in the same sentence breaking the rule of sequence of tenses (e.g. *So the person of the company which* ***invent****s the best question or* ***gave*** *some brilliant ideas* ***were*** *somehow prized and what* ***is important*** *they* ***implemented*** *these ideas which* ***are relevant*** *to them*...), as well as non-existent collocations (e.g. *the task of the company* ***to construct the relationship*** *with all these groups*) and some words in the wrong meaning were often used.

From the point of view of interconnection with the students, the lecturer often asked unclear questions; sometimes students asked back for clarification. Besides that, she did not always let students answer the questions to the full, interrupting them.

It was often difficult to understand some words and parts of sentences while transcribing the lecture. Some episodes were listened several times to catch the words. It would be recommended to write the new concepts and terms on a whiteboard or using slides, because some of them were not clear at all.

In general, it may be said that all these difficulties noticed in the spoken discourse of the lecturer did not allow the audience comprehend the lecture successfully and did not assist them in taking proper notes. If asked to repeat the main ideas of the lecture, there could be major problems, since the discourse as such was very ambiguous and confusing. It could be recommended for a lecturer to prepare better for the lecture and even to write some text, words and examples.

5.4.5 Academic Lecture 5

Recorded and transcribed in Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics

Course: Russian civilization

Lecturer: Russian

Students' countries of origin: Germany, Japan, China, Finland, USA, France, Switzerland

22 international students

November 2, 2015

Lecture 5 was visited and later transcribed by the author. It was decided to visit this particular course because the author of the present thesis teaches the subject of Intercultural Communication and International Communication to the students of Turiba University in Latvia herself and was curious to learn how the counterpart from Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics does a similar course on Russian culture. The transcribing process was easy and took only one day, since the pronunciation, grammar forms and the choice of lexis were clear, logical and easy. The author analysed the following aspects of the discourse: move structure, use of discourse markers, self-mention, lexico-grammatical features, lecturing style.

5.4.5.1. Move Structure of Lecture 5

Transcription of Lecture 5 is given in the table below on the left; the right column provides the analysis made by the author.

... I kind of lost a contact there... Right...so, you are Mikko...anybody else here from Finland? Just to pronounce your names. Ok. [Calls students' names.] Now, Germany. Konstantin...And in Germany, of course, I have been many many times and I have been teaching in the school of Economics ... So from France...ladies with beautiful names usually. [Calls students' names] Ok. ...Thank you...China [Calls students' names.] ...Nice to meet you here, just one student from China, right? Anybody from Thailand? Not yet. Ok. The United States? Ok, only three here, because in the list you are more. You are Jessica, nice to meet Jessica. So, and in America I also spent a year on a Fulbright programme and travelled quite a lot, and also travelled to different states. Later you will tell me where you are from exactly. Ok? It will be very interesting. ... Now, we have also somebody from Japan. Right. Nice to meet you. [Calls a student's name] It would be interesting to see what similarities and differences we have both with Western European, Eastern European, American and Asian cultures ...And somebody from Switzerland? Ok, you are Matthew. And you are from? *Student: French-speaking part.* *Lecturer: Ok. So, you see I have also travelled a lot and visited almost all of the countries where you are from, except China and Japan. So, I am very fascinated*	Move 1. Warming up. Step 2. Housekeeping. The lecturer establishes contact with the audience by calling all students' names and asking students about their country of origin.
Our course will actually consist of two main parts. The goal is... my ultimate goal is to make it easier for you to understand your Russian colleagues in the future. Actually working with Russians what is it like? Ok? So, for that I would like to look at Russian culture, of course. But, as I discovered myself, travelling a lot around the world and having a lot of colleagues from many countries, I understood that it is not really enough to know things about the present situation in culture, because it is like a cookery book, you know, with the recipes, but when you don't understand the reason why people began like that it is very-very difficult to remember all the rules how to behave in different situations, especially with Russians, as Russian character is considered to be very contradictory and Russian environment is extremely complex, especially nowadays in this transition period, which appeared to be too long, right ...during which we had sometimes unexpected transformations because of the situation within the country and around the country.	Move 2. Setting up the course framework. Step 1. Announcing the theme.
So, I thought that it is a really great idea to look how culture developed	Move 3.

through centuries, starting from the very early days of Russian culture travelling through history, tracing cultural aspects… how… people started behaving like that… Actually the main question will be: why, why Russians are like they are? I think that it is a really fascinating question and I hope that we will have very interesting discussions. So, as I said already the first part of the course will be devoted more to history, but it won't be purely historical course, you know quite a lot about the Russian history, I am sure, by now. But, we will look just at the main dramatic turning points, personalities, foreign influences which had a great impact on Russian culture. So, culture would be the main focus. Ok? Not probably main events, dates and names, but only major dramatic turning points, major names which had a great impact on culture. So, we will see how such very important values and attitudes as attitude to state, attitude to authority, attitude to work and money how they developed in time. And the second part of the course would be devoted to the modern situation. We will summarize traditional values and we will see how they are changing nowadays.	Putting the topic in context / Preparing students for understanding the new information and activating the existing knowledge. Step 1. Showing the importance of the topic.
Well, actually, I think the course will also help you to be more culturally-aware, to learn more about your culture as well. Because, I am sure, we will be comparing and you will be comparing the history of Russia and the history of your countries, especially that some historical events are interrelated. So, I would like to look at Russian culture from [unclear word]. And I would like you to set these rules of the game and_imagine yourself Russian a little bit. Ok? How Russians view the world? What is their worldview, actually? And why? And again, I think, by the end it will be much easier, more interesting [unclear text] in this complex environment like modern Russia.	Move 3 . Step 1. Showing the importance of the topic.
And again you are welcome to write to me with any questions or to ask any questions. So, as you know we will study just for a week, a little bit longer, and there will be one class on the 10th of November which will be a visit to the museum. Did you get it already? Did you get this understanding? So, on the 10th of November, our international department will take to a museum which is called Grand maket Russia. If you visited it already, that's fine, just tell the international department, because you've been here for some time already. If not that would be a really interesting visit, it's really one of the largest models of a country in Europe, I think second largest after the model in Germany and there you can see all parts of Russia in very detailed representation, and you can play with the model as well, that's also interesting It makes it like a big toy for you, right? So, you can travel to Siberia to see what kind of industries are developed there, what kind of cities are situated there. And what is more interesting for me, for example, for our course, you can watch everyday scenes from Russian life. A lot of very interesting scenes from everyday life are represented there - how people spend their time in winter when there is a lot of snow, in Saint-Petersburg you will not see a lot of snow, because we are on the Baltic coast, but in continental parts it's much more exotic, so that you can see what people do in winter, during some holidays, for example, how they spend festivities … So, I think that would be a very interesting visit.	Move 1. Warming up. Step 1. Making a digression. General course information and course-related asides. The lecturer informs about the excursion that is going to happen in the framework of the course.
And on the last day of our course, and that will be on the 11th of November you will give your contributions, you will present a prepared work, you will	Move 1. Warming up. Step 3. Looking

give a short presentation. I would like it to be a group presentation, so you can form a group of three – four people, you can think about it at the beginning of the course already. And you can choose a topic for your presentation, so the presentation should be from 12 to 15 minutes, not a lot, because we are a big group, so we have no time, so up to 15 minutes. Ok? And you can present it as a group. Right? So, what are the topics? First of all, you are welcome to give any topic you are interested in about Russian culture, about different sides of Russian life. There might be a situation when you've been concentrated already on some topic about Russia and you think it will be interesting for others… Right? So, if it's interesting and useful for other members of the group that would be fine. I won't limit you. OK? Whatever period of Russian history, or aspect of Russian culture you've been interested in for some time and already have developed some knowledge, you are welcome to present it.	ahead. Indicating the plan for the future The lecturer informs students about the presentation that they will have to make in the end of the course.
Ok? But for those of you who never thought about the presentation on Russia I have a suggestion, of course. Right? So, you have two books, I think uploaded somewhere. Right? And you are coordinated from the international department must have already told you about that. So, there are two big books, which are available for you [The lecturer distributes handouts with the names of the books]. So, these are suggestions for your presentation. And it's based on some reading material. The first book is really an excellent observation of an American diplomat, called Yale Richmond and it's called "From nyet to da: How to Understand the New Russia", there is a subtitle there, and there are actually several parts of this book which you can read through, add your own observations and ideas and produce a presentation based on this knowledge. Ok? Of course, you are welcome to add something in addition. If you are not sure where to find this book, please tell me, because then I will consult with our international department coordinators where they uploaded the book. Ok. And there is the Cambridge history of Russia, consisting of many parts and it's huge, of course. Right? But it's for those who would like to know a lot and who would like to be an expert on Russian history and you can actually, concentrate on some aspect. Just choose some aspect and I give you suggestions here… and again you are welcome to chose your own topic if you are interested in something else. It's absolutely no restrictions. So, very often students give their observations on Russian arts, for example. Unfortunately I will not have time to speak about Russian arts, that's a very big part of culture, of course. But we are limited in time, right? Very much limited. So, unfortunately I concentrate more on every day practices. Ok? But arts. … you are welcome to speak on that. Also I will not have time to speak about international politics, for example, or international relations. And I know that for some of you it is really very interesting and important to know about that and to speak about that. You are really welcome to give it in your presentation, share this knowledge, you can take information from these sources or, wherever you have, you are welcome to speak about international relationship with your countries, how it developed through time, difficult issues you are welcome to raise, and you will be … and we will be happy to discuss them…and …So, the presentations will be on the 11th of November, so you don't have a lot of time to prepare, but they shouldn't be very long. Right. Any questions at the moment?	Move 1. Warming up. Step 3. Looking ahead. The lecturer gives information about the test and the session period

Let's get then to our course. And as you saw already for the course as a citation to start with I chose words said by Winston Churchill just before the Second World War about Russia. These are very famous words by Churchill and you probably heard them: "Russia is a riddle wrapped in a mystery inside an enigma." Probably he wanted to say how difficult it is to understand Russia and the Russians, it's almost impossible. Right? They are unexpected, unpredictable and how can you cope with them? And I hope, really, that by the end of our course it will be easier for you to understand the behaviour of your Russian colleagues and counterparts, because you will know the answer to the question why. Why people behave like that? Why they have those values and attitudes? ... Now, of course you would know that geographically Russia is the largest country and its territory has 9 time zones. And of course you know the state emblems of Russia. Do you remember where they come from? I am sure, some of you would know about that.	Move 3. Putting the topic in context. Step 4. Delivering the lecture.
Thank you very much... It will be all for today. And your home task is just to read what we spoke about today and tomorrow we will discuss that. And also, please, form the groups, start thinking about the groups that you will have for the presentations	Move 4. Step 4. Indicating the end of the lecture.

The lecture lasts for more than three hours. The lecturer speaks about the history and the culture of the Russian people, mentioning a lot of facts, names, asking quotations. She also has interaction with the students by asking them to do some group work and answer her questions.

The present episode of discourse is an example of a coherent structure that is characteristic to the genre of an academic lecture. It has all four moves present (see Chapter 1, Subchapter 1.4.1, Macro-structure of an academic lecture) and the present example proves that the moves and steps do not necessarily follow the structure: Move1 –Move2- Move 3- Move 4, but can be changed without affecting the logical sequence of the lecture. The example above has the following structure: Move 1- Move 2 - Move 3 - Move 1 – Move 3 – Move 4

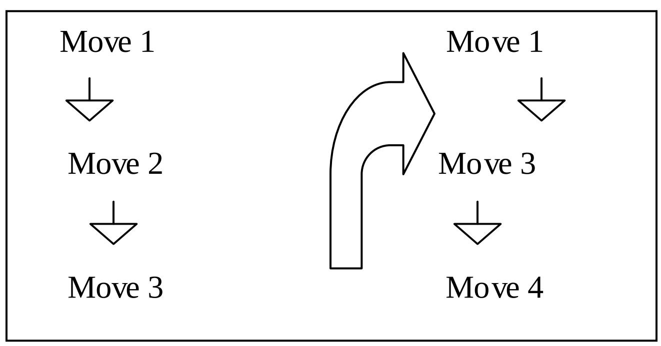
Move 1. Warming up.
Step 2. Housekeeping.

Move 2. Setting up the course framework.
Step 1. Announcing the themes.

Move 3. Putting the topic in context
Step 1. Showing the importance of the topic.

Move 1. Warming up.
Step 1. Making a digression.

Move 3. Putting the topic in context.
Step 4. Delivering the lecture.



Move 4. Concluding the lecture.
Step 4. Indicating the end of the lecture.
Step 1. Referring to the audience.

The return to Move 1 after Move 3 does not make the lecture sound illogical and does not have negative impact on the comprehension of the lecture. Lecture transcribing was fast and efficient because the lecturer used coherent sentences with the correct word order, for example:

It would be interesting to see what similarities and differences we have both with Western European, Eastern European, American and Asian cultures.

And on the last day of our course, and that will be on the 11th of November, you will give your contributions, you will present a prepared work, you will give a short presentation. I would like it to be a group presentation, so you can form a group of three – four people, you can think about it at the beginning of the course already.

No mistakes were noticed and there were no cases of absence of references, for example:

And <u>you</u> (subject) *can choose <u>a topic for your presentation</u>* (object), *so <u>the presentation</u>* (subject) *should be from 12 to 15 minutes, not a lot, because <u>we</u> (subject) are a big group, so <u>we</u> (subject) have no time, so up to 15 minutes.*

5.4.5.2 Discourse Markers Used in Lecture 5

The lecturer used discourse markers that helped students follow her line of reasoning, to see where the ideas were connected and where the topics were changed.

DM *so* was used 27 times in this episode of the lecture. It was used to summarize the information:

And again you are welcome to write to me with any questions or to ask any questions. ***So, as you know*** *we will study just for a week, a little bit longer, and there will be one class on the 10th of November which will be a visit to the museum.*

It was used to indicate a pause (segmentation category, see Chapter 2, subchapter 2.4, Discourse markers):

The United States? Ok, only three here, because in the list you are more. You are Jessica, nice to meet Jessica. ***So****, and in America I al****so*** *spent a year on a Fulbright programme and travelled quite a lot, and also travelled to different states.*

Another frequently used DM was *Ok* that appeared 15 times in the present extract.

It was used 6 times in the beginning of the lecture to check if the lecturer was right in her assumptions about students' names and countries of origin. It also served the function of establishing contact with the audience:

*I kind of lost a contact there… **Right…so,** you are Mikko…anybody else here from Finland? Just to pronounce your names. **Ok.*** **[**Calls students' names.] *Now, Germany. Konstantin…And in Germany, of **course**…*[Calls students' names] ***Ok**. …Thank you…China* [Calls students' names.] *…Nice to meet you here, just one student from China, **right?** Anybody from Thailand? Not yet. **Ok.** The United States? **Ok,** only three here, because in the list you are more. You are Jessica, nice to meet Jessica. **… Ok?** It will be very interesting. ... **Now**, we have al**so so**mebody from Japan. Right. Nice to meet you.* [Calls a student's name] ***… Ok**, you are Matthew.*

Ok was used to summarize information:

> ***Ok.** So, you see I have also travelled a lot and visited almost all of the countries where you are from, except China and Japan. So, I am very fascinated to be here.*
>
> *Our course will **actually** consist of two main parts. The goal is… my ultimate goal is to make it easier for you to understand your Russian colleagues in the future. **Actually,** working with Russians what is it like? **Ok? So, for that** I would like to lo**ok** at Russian culture, **of course**.*

It was also used to check if students agreed with what was offered by the lecturer. In other words, *Ok* served the function of audience engagement:

> *And I would like you to set these rules of the game and imagine yourself Russian a little bit. **Ok?** <u>How Russians view the world? What is their worldview, actually? And why?</u>*
>
> *15 minutes, not a lot, because we are a big group, **so** we have no time, **so** up to 15 minutes. **Ok**? And you can present it as a group. Right?*
>
> ***So**, if it's interesting and useful for other members of the group that would be fine. I won't limit you. **OK**?*

Right was encountered 13 times. It was used

- to check the correctness of the given fact:
  *Now, we have al**so so**mebody from Japan. **Right.** Nice to meet you.*
  *So the presentation should be from 12 to 15 minutes, not a lot, because we are a big group, so we have no time, so up to 15 minutes. Ok? And you can present it as a group. **Right?** So, what are the topics?*

- to indicate a pause, to give listeners enough time to process the information:
  *So, the presentations will be on the 11th of November, so you don't have a lot of time to prepare, but they shouldn't be very long. **Right.** Any questions at the moment?*

- to check if students followed what was said by the lecturer. It also served the function of audience engagement:
  *But for those of you who never thought about the presentation on Russia I have a suggestion, of course. **Right?** So, you have two books, I think uploaded somewhere. **Right?** And you are coordinated from the international department must have already told you about that.*

Other frequently used discourse markers were DM of emphasis (see Chapter 2, subchapter 2.4, Discourse markers) *of course,* used eight times and *actually*, met seven times in the extract:

> *Now, **of course** you would know that geographically Russia is the largest country and its territory has 9 time zones. And **of course** you know the state emblems of Russia.*
>
> *Well, **actually**, I think the course will also help you to be more culturally-aware, to learn more about your culture as well.*

There were other discourse elements met in the episode, for example, *well* (two times), *you can see* (one time) but, since they were used only several times, they were not analysed.

The present episode of the lecture is a successful example of the use of DMs in structuring the discourse. They helped to organise the speech to best effect, to demonstrate pauses, to summarize, to give students time to consider and to take notes, to establish contact with the students. Besides that, they made the speech sound more natural and easy to perceive, which, for example, was not noticed in Lecture 4.

The lecturer used macro-markers (see Chapter 2, subchapter 2.4, Discourse markers) that helped to organize the discourse. The following table gives examples of macro-markers in Lecture 5 and their possible communicative functions.

Table 5.2 **Examples of Macro-Markers in Lecture 5 and their Possible Communicative Functions**

Examples of Macro-Markers Present in Lecture 5	**Possible Communicative Function**
***It would be interesting to see** what similarities and differences we have both with Western European, Eastern European, American and Asian cultures.*	Lecturer's opinion she wants to share with the students; self-mention; stance
***So**, **you see** I have also travelled a lot and visited almost all of the countries where you are from, except China and Japan.*	Summarizing the point mentioned before / concluding; self-mention
***Our course will actually consist of** two main parts.*	Structuring information about the course
***The goal is… my ultimate goal is** to make it easier for you to understand your Russian colleagues in the future.*	Structuring information about the course, informing about the goals
***Ok? So, for that I would like to look** at Russian culture, of course.*	Specifying, giving a more detailed information; stance
***So, I thought that it is a really great idea to look** how*	Lecturer's explanation of her

culture developed through centuries, starting from the very early days…	intention; self-mention; stance; hedge
I think that it is a really fascinating question** and **I hope that we will have very interesting discussions.	Lecturer's opinion she wants to share with the students, lecturer's expectations about the course; self-mention
***So, as I said already** the first part of the course will be devoted more to history, but it won't be purely historical cours…*	Going back to the previously mentioned information
***But, we will look just at the main** dramatic turning points, personalities, foreign influences which had a great impact on…*	Future action, lecturer's intention; audience engagement
***So, we will see** how such very important values and attitudes as attitude to state, attitude to authority, attitude to work and money how they developed in time.*	Future action, lecturer's intention; audience engagement
***And the second part of the course** would be devoted to the modern situation.*	Structuring information about the course, informing about the goals
***We will summarize** traditional values and **we will see** how they are changing nowadays.*	Structuring information about the course, informing about the goals; audience engagement
***I think the course will also help you** to be more culturally-aware,*	Lecturer's opinion she wants to share with the students, lecturer's expectations about the course; self-mention
***Because, I am sure, we will be comparing and you will be comparing** the history of Russia and the history of your countries*	Lecturer's opinion she wants to share with the students, lecturer's expectations about the course; self-mention
***So, I would like to look at** Russian culture from…*	Future action, lecturer's intention; self-mention
***And I would like you to set** these rules of the game and imagine yourself Russian a little bit.*	Lecturer's intention; audience engagement
***And again I think,** by the end it will be much easier, more interesting…*	Lecturer's opinion, lecturer's expectation; self-mention
***And again you are welcome to** write to me with any questions or to ask any questions*	Invitation for the action; audience engagement
***So, as you know we will** study just for a week…*	Informing students about the procedures; audience engagement

And what is more interesting for me*, for example, for our course, you can watch everyday scenes*	Lecturer's opinion; self-mention
So, I think that would *be a very interesting visit…*	Lecturer's opinion, lecturer's expectation; Self-mention
And on the last day of our course*, and that will be on the 11th of November* ***you will give*** *your contributions,* ***you will*** *present a prepared work,* ***you will*** *give a short presentation.*	Informing the audience about the future actions; audience engagement
I would like *it to be a group presentation…*	Lecturer's intention; self-mention
…you can think about *it at the beginning of the course already…*	Giving instruction; audience engagement
And you can choose *a topic for your presentation,*	Giving instruction; audience engagement
First of all, you are welcome to *give any topic you are interested in a*	Giving instruction; audience engagement
So, these are the suggestions for *your presentation.*	Summarizing
Of course, you are welcome to *add something in addition.*	Giving instruction; audience engagement
But it's for those who would like to know a lot *and who would like to be an expert on…* ***you can***	Specifying, giving a more detailed information; audience engagement
*…****and again you are welcome to chose your own topic*** *if you are interested in* ***so****mething else.*	Giving instruction; audience engagement
Unfortunately I will not have time *to speak about…*	Specifying, giving a more detailed information; self-mention
So*,* ***unfortunately I concentrate more*** *on every day practices…*	Specifying, giving a more detailed information; self-mention
You are really welcome to give it in your presentation*, share this knowledge…*	Giving instruction, calling for action; audience engagement
You can take information from these sources*…*	Giving instruction, calling for action; audience engagement
Any questions at the moment?	Eliciting questions
Let's get then to our course	Inviting to the action; audience

	engagement
And as you saw already for the course *as a citation to start with I chose words said by*	Going back to the previously mentioned information
Thank you very much… It will be all for today.	Concluding
And your home task is…	Giving instruction for future action
And also, please…	Giving instruction for future action

The analysis of the macro-markers used in the Lecture 5 showed that the lecturer used DM of higher rank to organize the discourse, to express her opinion, to engage students, to invite students for action and to give instructions. The lecturer used a lot of self-mention by means of expressing her point of view, for example, ***I would like*** *...;* ***Because, I am sure****;* ***And again I think*** and other macro-markers; stances and hedges, for example, ***So, I thought that it is a really great idea to look …*** and audience engagement, for example, and ***Again you are welcome to chose your own topic, Any questions at the moment?***

5.4.5.3 Lexico-Grammatical Features of Lecture 5

Modal verb ***can*** was used 13 times in the extract to denote permission, ability and possibility:

> (1) *... you* **can** *take information from these sources or, wherever you have, you are welcome to speak about international relationship with your countries…*
> *(Permission, students are allowed…)*
>
> (2) *... you* **can** *see all parts of Russia in very detailed representation, and you* **can** *play with the model as well, that's also interesting. It makes it like a big toy for you, right? So, you* **can** *travel ...*
> (3) *... you* **can** *watch everyday scenes from Russian life…*
> *(Ability, lecturer draws a picture of what students can see in the museum)*
>
> (4) *so you* **can** *form a group of three – four people, you* **can** *think about it at the beginning of the course already. And you* **can** *choose a topic for your presentation, so the presentation should be from 12 to 15 minutes…*
> (5) *... and you* **can** *present it as a group.*
> *(Possibility, permission, it is optional - students can choose and decide…)*

Must was used once not in connection with the students, but to refer to the international department that was expected to do some favours for students:

> *… and you are coordinated from the international department* **must have** *already told you about that.*

The use of the modal verb *can* and lack of the modal verbs of necessity and obligation (e.g. *must, have to, ought to*) made the lecturer sound friendly, democratic and tolerant to students.

Will was used 35 times in the discourse. It was used in combinations with personal pronouns *I, we , you* and *it (there* or *a noun in the third person singular)*

I + will + a verb was used to denote lecturer's plan, promise and intention concerning the course:

(1) *Unfortunately* ***I will not have time*** *to speak about* ...
(2) *Also* ***I will not have time*** *to speak about international politics…*

You + will + a verb *was used to indicate what the lecturer expected from students to do in the future.*

(1) *Later* ***you will tell me*** *where you are from exactly. Ok?*
(2) *on the 11th of November* ***you will give*** *your ...contributions,* ***you will present*** *a prepared work,* ***you will give*** *a short presentation.*
(3) *... start thinking about the groups that* ***you will have*** *for the presentations.*

It + will + verb was used to describe the course and lecturer's expectations from the course, as well as other plans connected with the course.

(1) ***It will be*** *very interesting.*
(2) *So, as I said already* ***the first part of the course will*** *be devoted more to history, but* ***it won't be*** *purely historical course…*
(3) *Well, actually, I think* ***the course*** *(it)* ***will also help*** *you to be more culturally-aware…*
(4) *And again, I think, by the end* ***it will be*** *much easier, more interesting …*
(5) *...****there will be*** *one class on the 10th of November which* ***will be*** *a visit to the museum.*
(6) *...our international department* ***will take*** *to a museum which is called Grand maket Russia.*
(7) *...****it will be easier*** *for you to understand the behaviour of your Russian colleagues and counterparts…*
(8) *Thank you very much…* ***It will be*** *all for today.*

The pronoun we + will + a verb was used to engage the audience, to make them feel affiliated, those were lecturer's plans concerning what students were expected to feel or to do:

(1) *But,* ***we will look*** *just at the main dramatic turning points, personalities…*
(2) *So,* ***we will see*** *how* ***…***
(3) ***We will summarize*** *traditional values and* ***we will see how*** *they are changing nowadays.*
(4) *Because, I am sure,* ***we will be comparing*** *and* ***you will be comparing*** *...*
(5) *So, as you know* ***we will study*** *just for a week*
(6) *...and* ***we will be happy*** *to discuss them…and ...*
(7) *... and tomorrow* ***we will dis****cuss that.*

Lecture 5 is an example of a lecturer's excellent preparation for the lecture – good move structure that is characteristic to the academic lecture genre, correct word order; experience, successful contact with the audience (self-mention and audience engagement) and skills to manage the speech, as well as the ability to contact with people of different cultures. The lecturer used interactive style of a lecture that was characterized by strong audience engagement (discourse markers, use of *can* and *will* verbs); use of rhetorical questions, and average speed of talk; all these factors influenced good lecture perception and were efficient for note-taking.

It would be worth mentioning that the lecturer was the head of the Language Department of SPBGUE and apart from teaching soft science subjects in English, such as Russian Civilization and Intercultural Communication, she was an English language teacher and taught English for Special Purposes.

5.4.6 Academic Lecture 6

Recorded in Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics

Course: 5 Forces of Leadership

Lecturer: Spanish

Students' countries of origin: Finland , Germany and South Korea; 16 students – linguistically mixed-level group.

October 16, 2015

The author tried to take notes during the lecture in parallel with the recording; it resulted in some notes rewritten from the slides. After 4 times of listening to the recording it was still impossible to make a proper transcription of the lecture. The reason was that the discourse was unclear because of the mistakes the lecturer had and strong Spanish accent that prevented proper comprehension. As a result, the author made comments on the episode that she was trying to transcribe with the observations of what, in her opinion, did not allow her and, probably, the students understand the lecture.

The structure of the lecture was missing. It was difficult to follow the speech. It was impossible to take any notes, because while decoding the wrongly pronounced words, the next part of utterance was already missed.

By having a very strong accent the lecturer made students lose the interest and motivation. This was noticed from the body language of the students and their occupation with the other activities outside studies, e.g. chatting on the telephone, browsing Internet.

However, after some time, one could get accustomed to the sound of some words, pronounced with the Spanish accent. The partly transcribed text was as follows:

Ok. Let's begin. Yesterday we were talking about gratitude as a type of justice and then we finished with grateful and then we are talking to business person leader just 5 minutes to finish what we were talking ...

Gratitude...when we think about justice we are talking about duties. It is our duty to respect the authorities, I cannot respect because I did not chose the government of Spain ... idea that we have to respect authorities... In general we have to do it. For instance, tomorrow is Saturday...

... contagious. In my country we do not say often 'per favore', but when you come to Germany you always hear 'bitte'. This is your duty 'please' in English ... The leader is grateful, optimistic and [unclear word]

As it can be noticed, the above episodes miss sequence of tenses: *Yesterday we were talking about ...* ***and then we finished with grateful*** *and then* ***we are talking…***The lecturer used the wrong part of speech, for example, grateful (adjective) instead of gratitude (noun): *then we finished with grateful and then we are talking.*

There was some communication with the students from Finland, Germany and South Korea. The lecturer did not correct the students' mistakes. In a multi-cultural group of students, where everybody had his/ her accent which was influenced by their native language, it is possible that students did not have a complete understanding of the lecturer and each other. Moreover it is not clear how the new terminology was learnt, what pronunciation was taken as the original since the lecturer pronounced most of the words in a wrong manner. It is not clear how the notes were taken and how the tests and the exam were passed.

Multi-nationalism, multi-culturalism and multilingualism are beneficial and bring to the intercultural and linguistic enrichment working with the group where English is used as lingua franca, however this was not the case with Lecture 6, where the lecturer lacked the linguistic (e.g. lexical accuracy, avoidance of direct translation, etc.), sociolinguistic (e.g. ability to adapt dialects and accent), pragmatic (e.g. ability to produce coherent and cohesive discourse) and academic competences (e.g. lecturer's ability to prepare for the lecture) (see Chapter 3, subchapter 3.2.4, Table 3.3 Communicative Language Competency Framework for the University Academic Personnel).

Interim Summary of Subchapters 5.2, 5.3 and 5.4

Chapter 5 was aimed at the qualitative analysis of the academic discourse of 16 lectures that were recorded, transcribed and analysed.

The analysis of key words (subchapter 5.2) in three academic lectures demonstrated that the most frequently used words were personal pronoun *they*, demonstrative pronouns *this, that, these,* possessive pronouns *their* and *our,* indefinite pronouns *something, somebody* and *somewhere,* relative pronoun *that* and adverbs of place *here* and *there.* The detailed study of extracts from the lectures demonstrated that the use of the above-mentioned words should be carefully considered by the lecturers, because often the frequent use of these words with unclear reference may result in complete misunderstanding. For example, the use of indefinite pronouns *something, somebody* and *somewhere* that are so common in the conversation style, can make the academic discourse sound too generalized and vague. Lengthy sentences with the abundant use of the above-mentioned words could have substitutes with other words they refer to, for example, a relative pronoun *that* could be substituted with a noun antecedent.

Subchapter 5.3 studied the use and functions of lexico-grammatical features in ten academic lectures. The analysis included discourse markers (DM): *so, now, OK, well, however, thus, therefore* and *all right*; modal verbs and semi-modal verbs: *can, could, may, should, have to, got to, will, would, going to.* The computer software WordSmith Tools 6.0 allowed to create and to analyse the concordances from the selected lectures. The results were as follows:

1. It was discovered that the most frequently used DM was the word so that can have at least thirteen functions in the academic lecture, for example, to introduce the topic, to add information, to summarize, to exemplify, used with the expression of stance (e.g. *so, I think...; so, I hope*), with conditional sentences, with let's expression and others.
2. The second frequently used DM was the word now, that was encountered in the analysed discourse 81 times in the meanings of exemplification, explanation, used with the verbs of stance, in combination with the words *so, and* and *but,* and in the combination with the word right. It was noticed that now can be interchanged with the word *OK* in the function of initiating the topic.
3. DM *Ok* was another frequently used word in the academic discourse in the end position of the sentence in the form of a question, where the lecturer checked if listeners followed him or agreed with him and in the initial position of the sentence to initiate a new sub-topic.

4. Other DMs encountered in the analysed extracts of lectures included well, all right and therefore.

Knowledge about the use of the relevant micro-markers by non-native English speakers in the course of a lecture can be beneficial for students' perception of the structure of the lecture and thematic development of academic discourse.

Subchapter 5.3.2 studied the expression of stance and audience engagement in spoken academic discourse. The use of modal verbs and semi-modal verbs in four academic lectures was analysed and it was revealed that the most frequently used words are *can, will, going to* and *would. Can* in combination with the personal pronoun *we* was mostly used to make the audience feel belonging to the process, being involved and affiliated, *they can* was used to talk about some imagined characters in order to exemplify some notions or concepts.

Will was encountered 97 times in combination with the personal pronoun *I* with the stance verbs or stance adjectives in order to express lecture's attitude or opinion, whereas the semi-modal *going to* appeared 64 times in four lectures in the functions to explain the plan of action, and in rhetorical questions.

The other modal verbs (*could, may, should, have to, got to and would*) used in the academic lectures in the stance meaning were exemplified in the table 5.1 in Chapter 5 and can serve for the purposes of preparing for the lectures by the academic personnel or students being trained to attend academic lectures.

Subchapter 5.4 provided the analysis of six transcribed academic lectures in order to discover how effectively the interaction between the lecturer and students occurred and to find out what deficiencies could prevent students from successful comprehension of the lecturer's discourse. Lecture 1 demonstrated a vivid example of the frequent use of the pronouns *they* and *it*; *I* and *them* without clear references; unclear pronunciation of geographical names, move from one theme to another without a clear connection in the discourse. The positive sides noticed in the lecture included audience engagement with the help of rhetorical questions, introducing a joke and self-mention that could raise the audience interest and engage into the speech.

Lecture 2 revealed lecturer's problems with the pronunciation of names, geographical names, a lot of false starts, irregular word order, lecturer's tendency to turn to the screen and project her voice to the screen rather than to the students, frequent repetition of words, unclear structure of the lecture and absence of the use of DMs. Unclear words did not allow making a proper transcript of the lecture.

Lecture 3 on EU civil judicial cooperation gave a very structured introduction, however since the target audience apart from the students of the faculty of Law were students of other faculties, a frequent use of professional jargon, and especially unclear pronunciation of the terms and the use of acronyms without their deciphering could be confusing for the novice audience. The fact that the lecturer had a lot of false starts and gap-fillers could mean that the delivery of lectures in English was not the common practice for the lecturer. Some pronunciation problems were connected with the L1 influence.

Lecture 4 discovered such discrepancies as the lack of a proper structure of a lecture, lack of the use of DMs, the wrong word order and missing parts of sentences, the use of a question instead of an affirmative sentence and vice versa; lecturer's inability to finish her thought; the use of personal pronouns without any references in the sentences; the use of wrong tenses and non-existent collocations. All these difficulties noticed in the spoken discourse of the lecturer did not allow the audience comprehend the lecture successfully and did not assist them in taking proper notes.

Lecture 5 was an example of a coherent structure that is characteristic to the genre of an academic lecture. The discourse had all four moves present, the results of the analysis demonstrated that the moves and steps do not necessarily follow the structure: Move1 –Move2-Move 3- Move 4, but can be changed without effecting the logical sequence of the lecture. No mistakes were noticed and there were no cases of absence of references. The relevant use of DMs, such as *so* (27), *ok* (15), *of course, right* and *actually* helped to organise the speech to best effect, to demonstrate pauses, to summarize, to give students time to consider and to take notes, to establish contact with the students. Besides that, they made the speech sound more natural and easy to perceive. The speech was rich in macro-markers that were analysed and grouped in Table 5.2 with the description of their functions. This information can serve for the purposes of preparing for the lectures by the academic personnel or students being trained to attend academic lectures.

Lecture 6 was impossible to transcribe – the discourse was unclear due to bad pronunciation, affected by the influence of Spanish, lack of structure, use of the wrong words and other reasons. The lecture was delivered to international students and it was noticed that the students were not engaged in the process, being occupied with the other activities outside studies. It was concluded that the lecturer missed linguistic, sociolinguistic, pragmatic and academic competences and could not deliver the lecture properly

CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the conducted research work, that included the study of the relevant theory and the empirical research, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The academic lecture realized in the institutional context as a spoken academic genre with its specific features is a social, goal-oriented and staged activity, a communicative event realized within a discourse community; the lecture is a changing genre characterized by the lecturers' involvement or detachment; an interactive, contextual and to some extent improvised activity of a highly dynamic nature; an example of genre mixing, having intertextual and interdisciplinary features. Knowledge of genre conventions can assist in lecture organization, planning and realization at the linguistic, social, interpersonal and intercultural levels.

2. Note-taking, attributed to a genre of academic writing with notes as the final product of this activity, proves to be a vital element of the students' study process in the institutional context that aims at fostering the retention of the lecture material. Irrespective of their language competence, students have occasional difficulties with note-taking. Note-taking by students can be facilitated if academic personnel control the use of intonation, pronunciation, register, professional terminology, colloquial expressions, acronyms, the appropriate use of the referential system by avoiding disfluencies, such as false starts and gap-fillers

3. Spoken academic discourse is characterized by the following lexico-grammatical features: at the lexical level - smaller density and diversity of specialized terms and an abundance of common words; at the grammatical level - a bigger percentage of verbs than nouns, a larger number of adverbs than adjectives; a frequent use of personal pronouns; at the discoursal level - the use of discourse micro- and macro-markers to organize the academic lecture; at the syntactic level - the use of dependent clauses, finite relative clauses, sentence relatives, adverbial clauses and to-clauses.

4. At the syntactic level, spoken academic discourse is less logically structured in comparison with written discourse. It is often improvised and may sound unclear and difficult to perceive when lecturers do not finish the idea or frequently move from one theme to another.

5. Lecture as a monologic speech event is typically produced in a way of small spurts, each spurt being one clause which might or might not be interconnected. Some parts of speech can be more implicit and, as a result , less clear for understanding.

6. Genre analysis from a systemic functional perspective has enabled the author to establish that the academic genre of the lecture has a special organizational structure comprising at least four rhetorical moves, that is Warming up, Setting up the lecture framework, Putting the topic in context and Conclusion, each fulfilling concrete communicative functions and several key steps, for instance, housekeeping, looking ahead, setting up the lecture framework, announcing the topic, indicating the scope. The moves and steps do not always follow the same order; it can be changed without affecting the logical sequence of the lecture. Awareness of the organization of the schematic structure of the lecture allows organizing discourse in a coherent way.

7. Spoken academic discourse is characterized by interactional features such as self-mention, stance and audience-engagement; these features are frequently expressed by the following linguistic elements:

a. first person pronoun *I* to denote self-mention, lecturer's opinion, his presence in the discourse; first person plural pronoun *we* to denote audience engagement; third person plural pronoun *they* to refer to an undetermined person; second person pronoun *you* to denote an offer and initiation;

b. demonstrative pronouns *this, that, these* in the function of anaphoric reference; possessive pronouns *their* and *our,* indefinite pronouns *something, somebody* and *somewhere,* relative pronoun *that* and the adverbs of place *here* and *there.* The use of pronominalization in spoken academic discourse should be carefully considered because extensive use of pronouns without clear references may result in textual and contextual misunderstanding, can make listeners lose the reference and make the information sound illogical, unclear and misleading;

c. discourse micro-markers *so, ok, now, well, therefore, right, all right* may help to understand the structure and the thematic development of the discourse; discourse macro-markers have interactive features, such as self-mention, stance and communicative functions (e.g. sharing knowledge, summarizing, structuring, referring back, informing about future actions, engaging the audience, giving instructions, eliciting questions) Knowledge of the conventions of the use of discourse markers can be helpful in preparing lectures;

d. lectures are not impersonal communicative events since lecturers may show their attitude and opinion, realized through modal and semi-modal verbs (e.g. *can* used to denote permission, ability and possibility, *will* used in combinations with personal pronouns *I, we, you* and *it* to denote lecturer's plan, promise and intention; *you* + *will* + a verb to indicate lecturer's expectations from students, *it* + *will* + a verb to describe the course and lecturer's expectations from the course, the pronoun *we* + *will* + a verb used to engage the audience).

e. value-laden words, such as evaluative adjectives (e.g. *good, nice, right, sure*) that express speaker's positive attitude towards a situation and stance adverbials (e.g. *obviously, unfortunately, fortunately, apparently, undoubtedly, amazingly, astonishingly*) found in the initial position of the sentence and expressing a speaker's attitude to the proposition and conveying lecturer's personal feelings and experience.

8. The conducted discourse analysis helped to identify language-related deficiencies experienced by the academic personnel (e.g. unclear structure of the lecture, lack of the use of DMs, irregular word order and elliptical clauses with e.g. an object or a predicate elided, which does not allow students understand the content clearly and take proper lecture notes; the failure to comply with the rules of the sequence of tenses, the use of non-existent words and wrong collocations.)

9. The ability to read a successful lecture in English to international students largely depends on the lecturer's communicative language competence, which comprises all six components of the communicative language competence, discussed in the present thesis– the lecturer has the skills and knowledge of language as a system (linguistic competence), he knows how to deal with the social dimension of language use (sociolinguistic competence), he is able to produce coherent and cohesive discourse (pragmatic competence), he can analyse, synthesize and acquire new academic knowledge in order to impact the students' knowledge (academic competence), he is able to interact with students effectively (interpersonal competence) and has skills of communicating with students of diverse cultural background (intercultural competence).

Taking into account the above conclusions, the hypothesis of the present doctoral thesis advanced at the beginning of the research has been confirmed. There is a direct interrelation between lecturers' communicative language competence and their ability to give coherent and cohesive English-medium content lecture at tertiary level and students' perception. A content lecture in

English targeting the international audience is realized successfully when all six components of the communicative language competence, elaborated by the author of the present thesis, are coherent – the lecturer has the skills and knowledge of language as a system (linguistic competence), he knows how to deal with the social dimension of language use (sociolinguistic competence), he is able to produce coherent and cohesive discourse (pragmatic competence), he can analyse, synthesize and acquire new academic knowledge in order to impact the knowledge of students (academic competence), he is able to interact with students effectively (interpersonal competence) and since he works with the international students he should be able and should have skills of working with people of different cultural background (intercultural competence).

It was noticed that the lecturers with pedagogical education, especially those with a degree in English philology and those who were both content and language teachers, as well as lecturers who had experience of working in the international environment or had special training in teaching in a foreign language had better English language communicative competence, better understood the needs of the target audience, for example, they knew and used more techniques of explaining the new terminology, had better organized structure of a lecture and controlled their speed of talk, paid attention to the correction of students' mistakes, thereby fostering better lecture comprehension by the students, allowing them take better quality notes and improve their language skills. Consequently, it is possible that a cohesive and coherent lecture requires lecturer's special preparation or academic competence development that could be achieved either through cooperation with language specialists, for example, applying the Content Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), where the subject teachers work in a team with language teachers or with the help of specially organized teacher training of the academic language.

It is hoped that the conclusions drawn as a result of the conducted theoretical and empirical research would contribute to a richer understanding of the communicative English language competence that the lecturers should possess to be academically and linguistically competent and would also enhance the effectiveness of academic communication. It is believed that the recommendations concerning the improvement of communicative language competence worked out by the author can be applicable at the practical level by novice lecturers. The compiled corpus of authentic lectures, the designed models and the findings of discourse analysis can be useful in the context of training courses of novice academic personnel and can have important implications for teaching for academic purposes.

The results of the surveys and the discourse analysis revealed the significance of the paralinguistic aspects of the spoken academic discourse, including paralanguage and kinesics, which require further research to gain a more thorough insight into the phenomenon of the genre of the academic lecture.

THESES:

- Globalization in higher education requires higher educational institutions in Latvia adapt to the growing demand of academic credentials in tertiary education in the international context, as well as educational internationalization and the increasing demand of university lectures delivered in English oblige universities to reconsider and improve the quality of lectures delivered in a language that is foreign to the academic staff.
- The analysis of spoken academic discourse incorporates multidimensional and multi-perspective framework based on theoretical findings of all three schools of genre studies.
- Genres are types of spoken and written discourse recognised by a discourse community with some characteristic features that are linguistic, paralinguistic, contextual and pragmatic.
- Academic discourse may have different genres within it (lecture, seminar, workshop, conference, class or webinar), whereas all these genres may belong to different modes (e.g. spoken, written) with a speaker choosing the individual style.
- Academic lecture genre refers to the social process existing in the institutional context and fulfilling communicative purposes; it is an example of an oral academic genre or pedagogical process genre featuring the informational content of the lecture as field, the lecturer-audience relationship as tenor, face-to-face spoken language as mode (channel of communication), where the lecturer fulfils different communicative functions, considering the genre specifics of the academic lecture.
- Note-taking is a mathemagenic activity giving birth to learning that is used to retail information for recall on a test and to promote successful material acquisition; it can be attributed to a separate genre of academic writing with notes as the final product of this activity. Although note-taking is restricted to self-study skills, it depends much on the quality of a lecture and can be promoted by lecturers.
- Discourse micro- and macro-markers organize the academic lecture and contribute to discourse coherence by signalling a relationship between the current message and the previous

discourse, signalling micro- and macro-structure of the text and, as a result, are handy tools in the process of lecture comprehension by students in an academic environment.

- Discourse analysis of the authentic academic lectures revealed the problem areas, including pronunciation problems, strong influence of L1, grammatical problems, unclear structure of lectures, frequent use of professional jargon without explanations, wrong collocations and other deficiencies that coincided with problems noticed by students in the conducted survey.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations have been worked out for the novice university academic personnel, delivering lectures in English on the basis of the theoretical findings and the conclusions of the empirical part of the present thesis. These recommendations have been integrated into Communicative Language Competency Framework for the university academic personnel.

It is possible that a cohesive and coherent lecture requires lecturer's special preparation or academic competence development that could be achieved either through cooperation with language specialists, for example, applying the Content Language Integrated Learning, where the subject teachers work in a team with language teachers or with the help of specially organized teacher training of the academic language.

The author considers that in order to ensure the quality of higher education realized in English in HE institutions in Latvia level B2 as a requirement for the academic personnel is not adequate and the recommendation of the Ministry of Education and Science concerning level C1 for the academic personnel, which is currently not binding, should be taken into consideration and should be legally enforced.

• Ensure lexical accuracy, appropriate use of vocabulary and terminology in the course of a lecture; • be able to use key lexical items related to the subject/topic; • be able to explain meanings of words in context; • be able to operate with professional terminology, idioms, set expressions, phrasal idioms, fixed collocations, abbreviations, shortenings and special symbols; • control the use of frequently used words in one sentence that have general meanings, use synonyms; • control the use of colloquial expressions and collocations; • control the introduction of new terminology (e.g. reduce the speed of lecture, give explanations, exemplification, translation (if relevant); • control the use of professional jargon, use it with explanations.	**LEXICAL COMPETENCE**	**LINGUISTIC**
• Produce clear and comprehensive texts; • avoid direct translation of sentence structures from L1 to L2; • control the word order in the sentence and the use of elliptical sentences, use complete sentences (when necessary); • control the time sequence of the narrative.	**GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE**	
• Control the organization of meaning, e.g. lexical semantics (relation of words in context, reference, connotation, collocations, hyponymy, synonyms / antonyms, translation equivalence, etc.); • control the use of personal, demonstrative, possessive, indefinite and relative pronouns without references in the sentence.	**SEMANTIC COMPETENCE**	

• Be able to vary intonation in order to signal information structure (e.g., pitch, volume, pace); • pronounce the new specialized terminology clearly; • be able to emphasize important and unimportant information with the help of sentence stress and intonation; • be able to control speech rate; • control intonation, pitch, tone, idiolect; • make phonological cues (voice change in volume, speed, emotion); • allocate time (make pauses) for students to process the information and to make mental feedback; • assist students in recognizing main ideas, details, sequences, cause and effect relations with the help of intonation and pauses.	**PHONOLOGICAL COMPETENCE**	**LINGUISTIC**
• Control the production of written texts, proper spelling, punctuation marks, etc.; • use adequate amount of information in visual aids, e.g. Power Point slides, handouts.	**ORTHOGRAPHIC COMPETENCE**	
• Be able to use different registers (genre mixing): written or spoken, frozen, formal, neutral, informal, and familiar; • adapt the lecturing style to the students' needs (if necessary): memorization, reading aloud, fresh talk, participatory or interactive lectures, conversational, rhetorical, give-and-take.	**REGISTERS**	**SOCIOLINGUISTIC**
• Be able to recognize such linguistic markers as: regional belonging, national origin, ethnicity.	**SOCIOLINGUISTIC MARKERS**	

• Be able to adapt to different dialects and accents (incl. those of students), concerning lexicon, grammar, phonology, vocal characteristics, etc.; • be aware of the peculiarities of one's accent, be ready to adapt it to the needs of students; work on one's own accent so that it was close to standard English pronunciation.	**DIALECTS AND ACCENTS**	
• Be able to state the purpose and scope of a lecture; • structure one's lecture (e.g. use *Move structure of an academic lecture*); • be able to give structural cues (signpost/transition words, introduction, body and summary stages); • be able to state the topic of the lecture and follow topic development; • do not digress from the topic of the lecture; • be able to provide relationships among units within discourse (e.g., major ideas, generalizations, hypotheses, supporting ideas, examples); • be able to properly use discourse markers in signalling the structure of a lecture; • be able to use cohesion markers ; • be able to establish relationships (e.g., cause, effect, conclusion); • use clear referential system (anaphora, cataphora, discourse markers, logical connectors); • finish one idea before moving to another; • assist learners in recognizing main ideas, details, sequences, cause and effect relations with the help of cohesive devices - discourse markers and logical connectors; • be able to explain the difference between the direct and implied meanings of specialized terminology; • be able to demonstrate the relationship between the main ideas and supporting details, help learners to differentiate between them.	**DISCOURSE COMPETENCE:**	**PRAGMATIC**

• Be able to express personal attitude toward subject matter (e.g. stance, hedging, self-mention); • be able to use non-verbal cues as markers of emphasis and attitude; • know the language of instructions (e.g. warnings, suggestions, recommendations, advice, instructions); • be able to engage the audience in the lecture through the use of e.g. participatory pronouns, first person plural and third person pronouns, rhetorical questions, jokes.	**FUNCTIONAL COMPETENCE**	
• Be able to analyse and synthesize the information of the lecture; • be able to structure a lecture; • be able to study the information in English and to arrange it in a competent way (compiling lectures, working out methodology); • if time allows teach students the necessary techniques of note-taking (e.g. shortened forms, abbreviations of the terminology of the given subject, possible graphic, numerical forms of concepts); • provide explanations of formulas, drawings and symbols.		**ACADEMIC**
• Be able to interact with students effectively; • know classroom conventions (e.g., turn-taking, clarification, requests).		**INTERPERSONAL**
• Be able to share one's cultural knowledge with students and to accept students' cultures; • develop one's intercultural skills; • give international examples when explaining theories and concepts; • control your speech rate, since students' perception of lecturers' speech rate can be a cultural factor too.		**INTERCULTURAL**
• Help students understand non-verbal cues - facial expressions, hand and body signals; • delivering a lecture control your posture and eye contact, ensure that you stand facing the audience, rather than looking at the screen or whiteboard.		**PARALINGUISTICS AND BODY LANGUAGE**

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APPENDICES

List of Appendices

Appendix 1. Questionnaire Administered to Students

The purpose of the questionnaire is to find out students' competences in understanding lectures in English and to discover possible difficulties and challenges in studying specialized subjects in English. The gathered data will be used in the course of writing doctoral thesis. Your answers will make a valuable contribution to the research.

Dear Students,

Please complete the questionnaire ticking (√) relevant reply options and/or giving additional information.

1. **I am from ____** (mention the country)
2. **My first language is ______________________**
3. **I am a student of the**

1st year bachelor study programme ______

2nd year bachelor study programme______

3rd year bachelor's study programme______

4th year bachelor's study programme______

1st year master's study programme _____

2nd year master's study programme_____

3rd year master's study programme_____

4. **My specialization is**

Business Administration________________

Finance and Banking________________

Tourism and Hospitality________________

Law________________

Public Relations ________________

Other (please specify) _________________________________

5. **I have studied English for**

    1 year _____
    5 years_____
    10 years_____
    15 years_____
    Other (please specify) _____

6. My English language level is:

Advanced ________________

Upper – Intermediate _________________

Intermediate __________________

Lower-Intermediate ________________

7. Is it your first experience studying <u>in English</u> (not the subject of English, but lectures that happen in English)?

Yes ________________

No, I was studying <u>in English</u> in my country for _______________ years

No, I was studying in English abroad_______________________ (mention the country / countries) for _________________ years

8. Tick what is characteristic of you:

A. I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English___________

B. I can read in English with ease all forms of the written language ___________

C. I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English ___________

D. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. ___________

E . I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context. ___________

F. I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style. ___________

G. I can write complex letters, reports or articles ___________

H. I can write summaries and reviews of professional works in English. ___________

9. I attend the following courses in the Host University:

1. Accounting ________
2. Commercial Law ________
3. Tourism Business ________
4. Microeconomics ________
5. Marketing ________
6. Tourism and Hospitality________
7. Food and Beverage Operation and Service________
8. Information Technologies ________
9. Tour Operations ________
10. Tax Laws and
11. Tourism Planning and Management________

12. Financial Management _______
13. Business Ethics _______
14. Political Science_______
15. Globalization and Tourism _______
16. Tourism Project Management _______
17. Survey of Philosophy _______
18. E – commerce _______
19. Others (please mention) _______

10. I have difficulties to understand a lecturer's speech because he/she

A. speaks fast ________
B. does not repeat the main idea(s)________
C. has problems with pronunciation ________
D. makes grammatical mistakes
E. is not able to make understandable a context/ idea of the professional topic _______
F. fails to give a logical or clear lecture
G. uses complicated professional terminology _______

Others (please specify)

11. The studies in English help me improve my

A. **listening skills** (I can understand the speech of native speakers, other exchange students, lecturers better) _______

B. **speaking skills** (I can communicate in English about different professional topics in the working environment better.) _______

C. **reading skills** (I can read and understand professional texts better.) _______

D. **writing skills** (I can write specialized types of letters, reports, business documents better)_______

E. **lexical competence** (I have acquired specialized professional terminology in English to be used in my future career in the international environment.) _______

12. What would you like to be changed by lecturers reading courses in English?

A. pronunciation
B. speech rate of a lecturer
C. choice of words
D. grammar
E. word order
F. public speaking skills
G. lecturing style
H. use of linking words
I. ways of explaining professional terms

Other (please specify)

Appendix 2. Results of Students' Questionnaires Presented in Tables, Charts and Graphs: General Information about the Target Audience at Turiba University, the Study Year 2014/2015 and SPBGUE 2015/2016

Countries of Origin and Language Competences of Students

Country of origin	Number of students	Lower-Intermediate, Intermediate	Upper-Intermediate	Advanced
1. Azerbaijan	3		2	1
2. Belarus	8	1	5	2
3. Bulgaria	2		2	
4. Czech Republic	1	1		
5. China	4	3	1	
6. France	5	1	4	
7. Georgia	2	2		
8. Germany	8	2	2	4
9. India	2	1		1
10. Italy	1	1		
11. Kazakhstan	2		2	
12. Latvia	16	2	8	6
13. Lithuania	2	1	1	
14. Malaysia	1		1	
15. Russia	1		1	
16. South Korea	1	1		
17. Spain	2	1		1
18. Tajikistan	2	1		1
19. Turkey	2	1	1	
20. Ukraine	2	1	1	
21. Uzbekistan	21	6	9	6

Areas of Studies:

Tourism and Hospitality – 48

Business Administration – 22

Finance and Banking - 7

International Trade -1

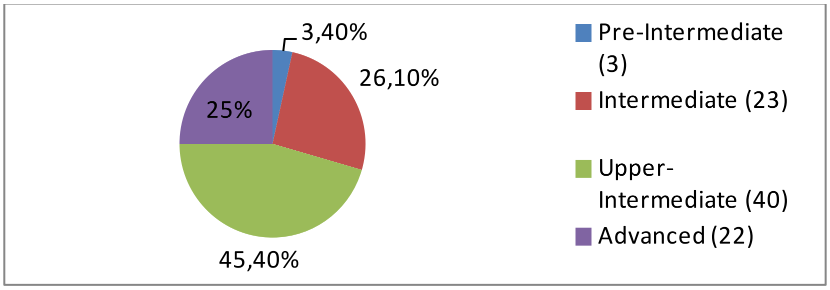
Media Management -1

Public Relations – 5

International Communication Management -3

Law -1

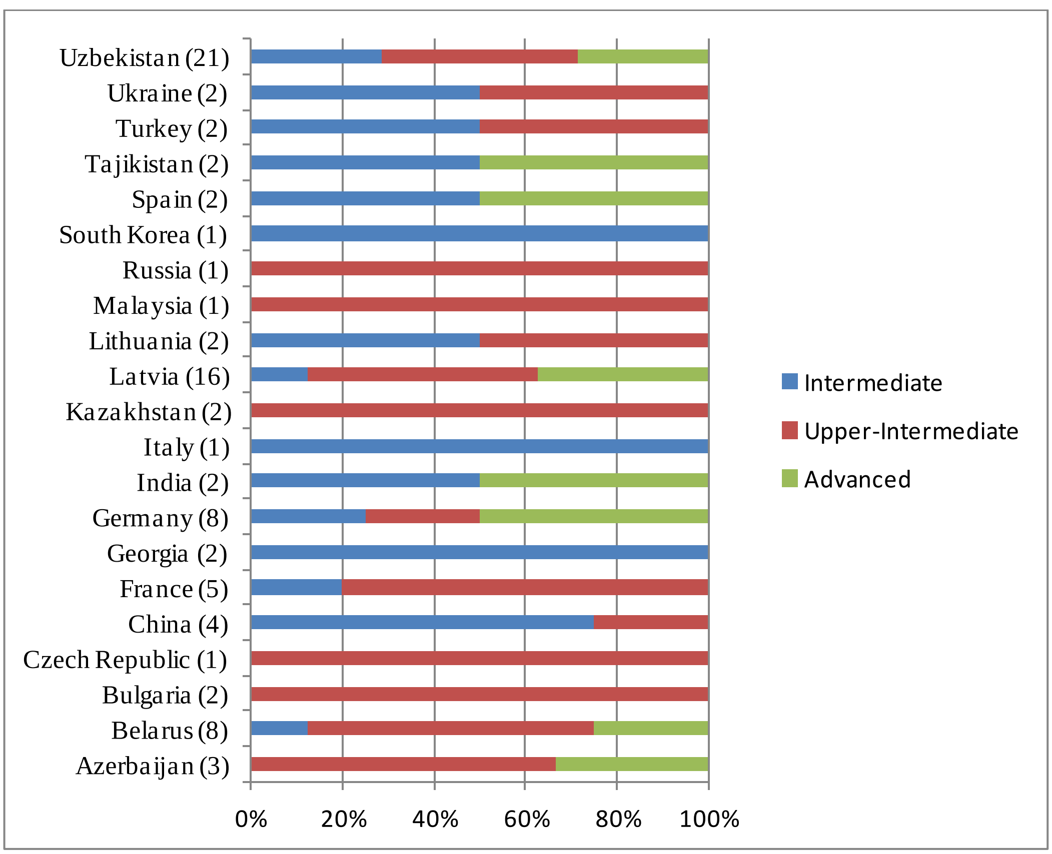
Levels of the English Language Proficiency (Number of Students / %)



Year of Studies

Bachelor's course
1 BA - 50
2 BA - 6
3 BA - 13
4 BA - 6
Master's course
1st year of studies - 9
2nd year of studies - 1
Doctoral study programme – 3

Language Competences of Students by Countries



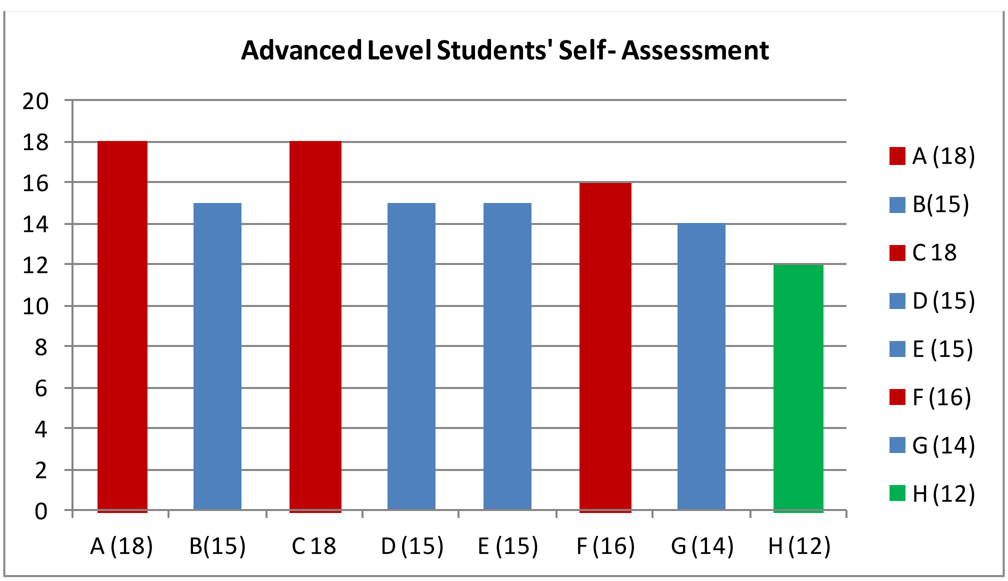
Students' Self-Assessment of Communicative English Language Competence

Tick (v) what is characteristic of you:

A. I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English __________
B. I can read in English with ease all forms of the written language __________
C. I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English __________
D. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely __________
E. I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context __________
F. I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style __________
G. I can write complex letters, reports or articles __________
H. I can write summaries and reviews of professional works in English __________

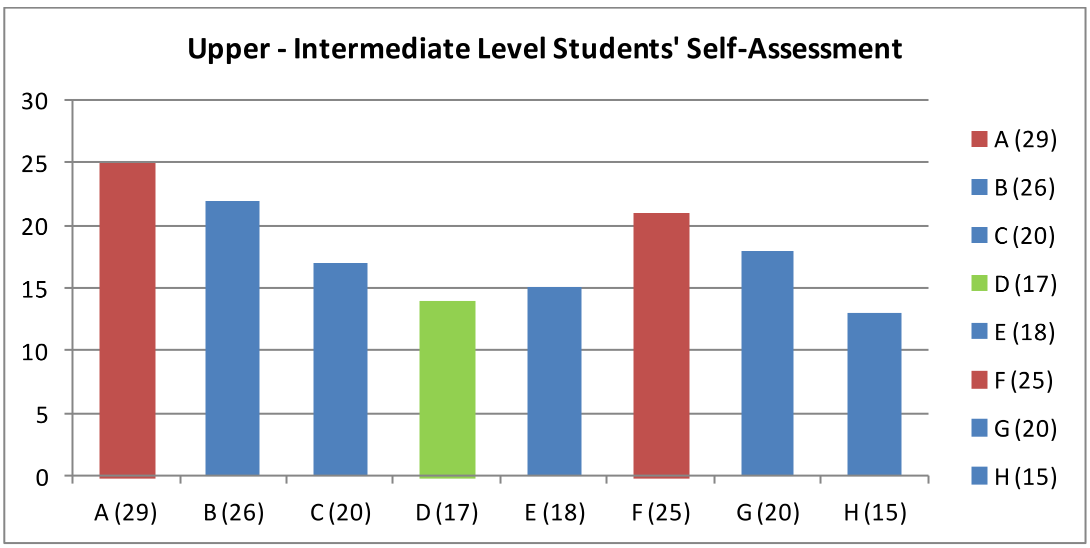
Advanced Level Students (22 students)

A. I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English	18 – 81%
B. I can read in English with ease all forms of the written language	15– 68,2%
C. I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English	18 – 81%
D. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely	15– 68,2%
E. I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context.	15– 68,2%
F. I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style.	16 – 72,7 %
G. I can write complex letters, reports or articles	14 – 63,6 %
H. I can write summaries and reviews of professional works in English.	12 – 54,5%



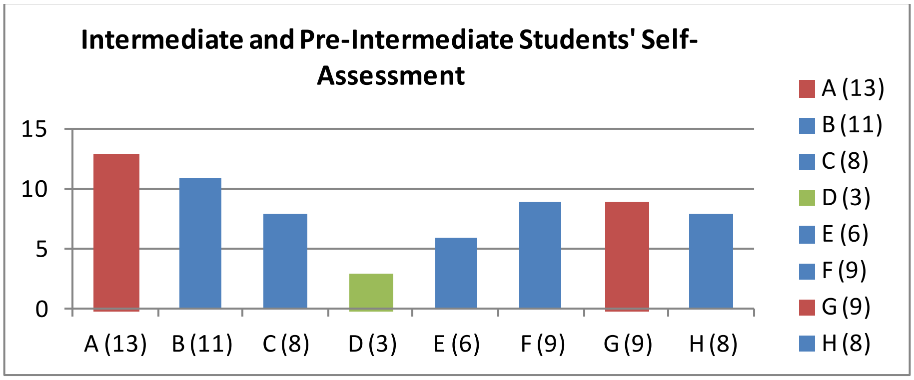
Upper - Intermediate Level Students (40)

A. I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English	29 - 72,5%
B. I can read in English with ease all forms of the written language	26 – 65%
C. I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English	20 – 50%
D. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely	17 – 42,5%
E. I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context.	18 – 45%
F. I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style.	25 – 62,5%
G. I can write complex letters, reports or articles	20 – 50%
H. I can write summaries and reviews of professional works in English.	15 – 37,5%

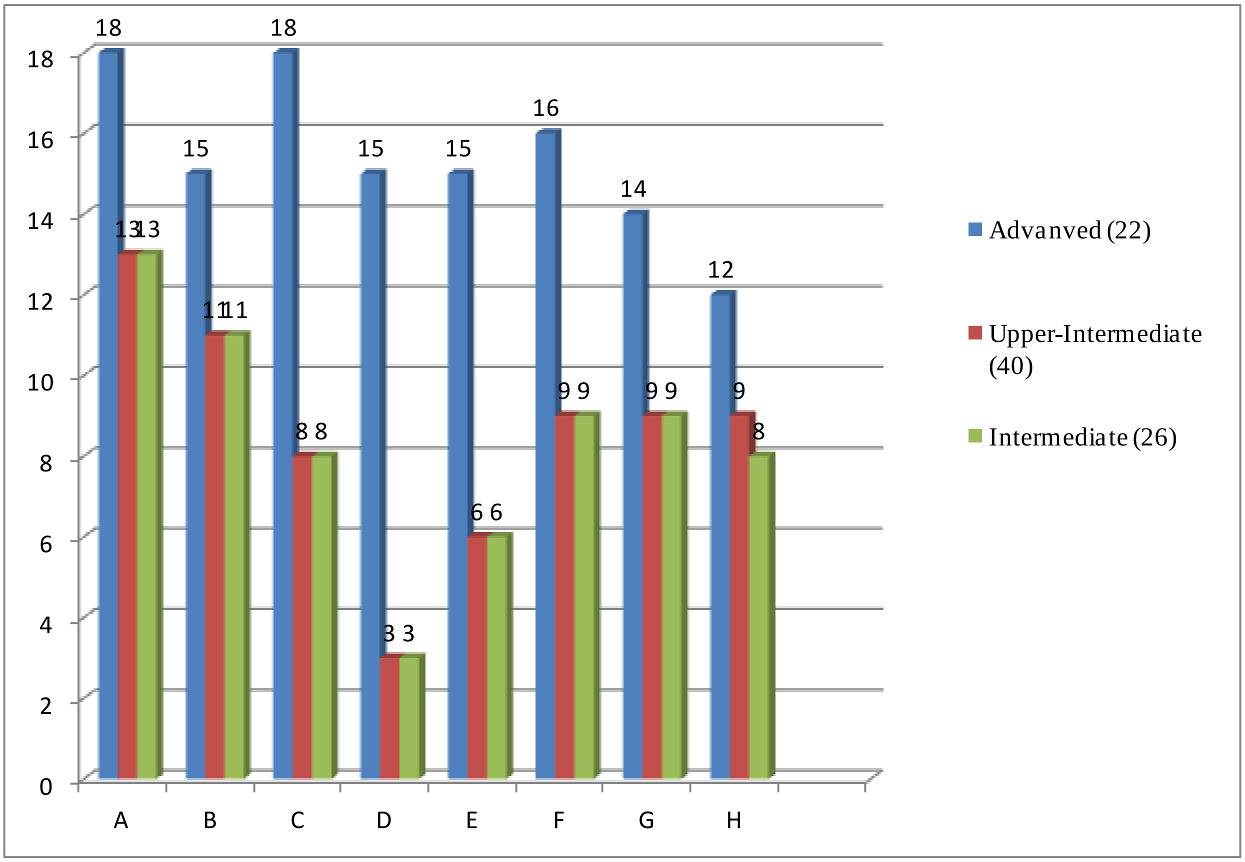


Intermediate and Lower-Intermediate Level Students' Self-Assessment (26)

A. I have no difficulty in understanding any kind of spoken English	13– 50%
B. I can read in English with ease all forms of the written language	11 – 42,3%
C. I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion in English	8 – 30,7%
D. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely	3 – 15,7%
E. I can present a clear, smoothly-flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context.	6 – 31,5%
F. I can write clear, smoothly-flowing text in an appropriate style.	9 – 34,6%
G. I can write complex letters, reports or articles	9 – 34,6%
H. I can write summaries and reviews of professional works in English.	8 – 30,7%



Comparative Analysis of Students' Competences by Language Levels



Difficulties Students Face while Studying in English:

I have difficulties to understand a lecturer's speech because he/she

A. speaks fast

B. does not repeat the main idea(s)

C. has problems with pronunciation

D. makes grammatical mistakes

E. is not able to make the context/ idea of the professional topic understandable

F. fails to give a logical or clear lecture

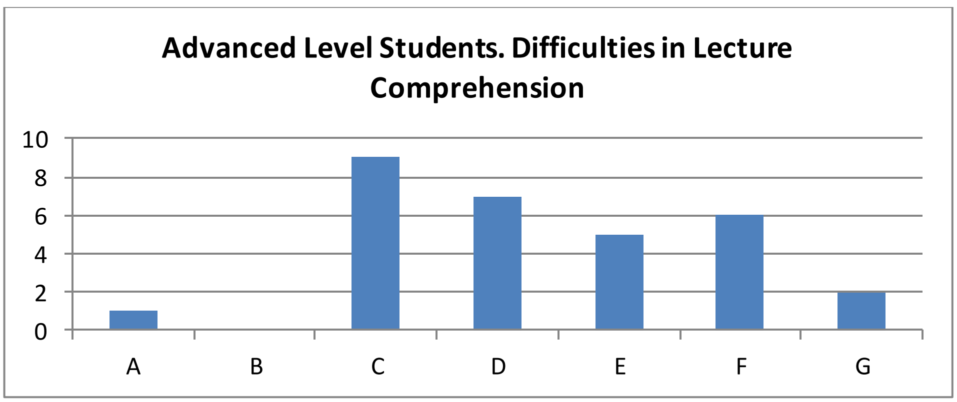
G. uses complicated professional terminology

H. Other (please specify)

Advanced Level Students (22)

A 1
B 0
C 9
D 7
E7
F6
G 2

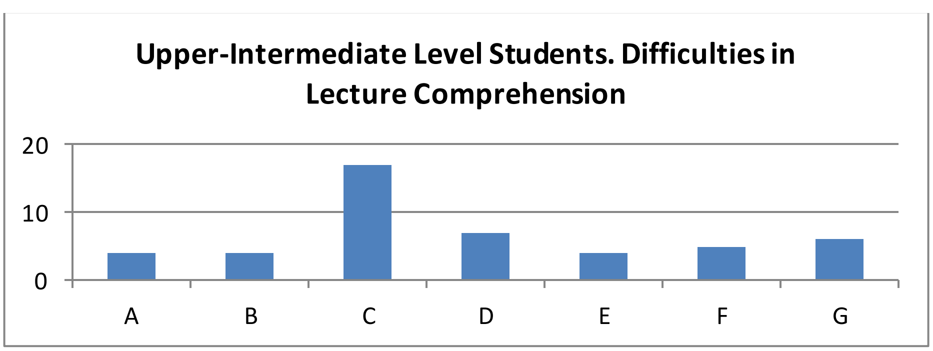
Twenty-two respondents were of advanced level. Six of them said that they had no problems in lecture comprehension; one student admitted that some lecturers had less advanced English skills than other lecturers.



Upper-Intermediate Level Students (40)

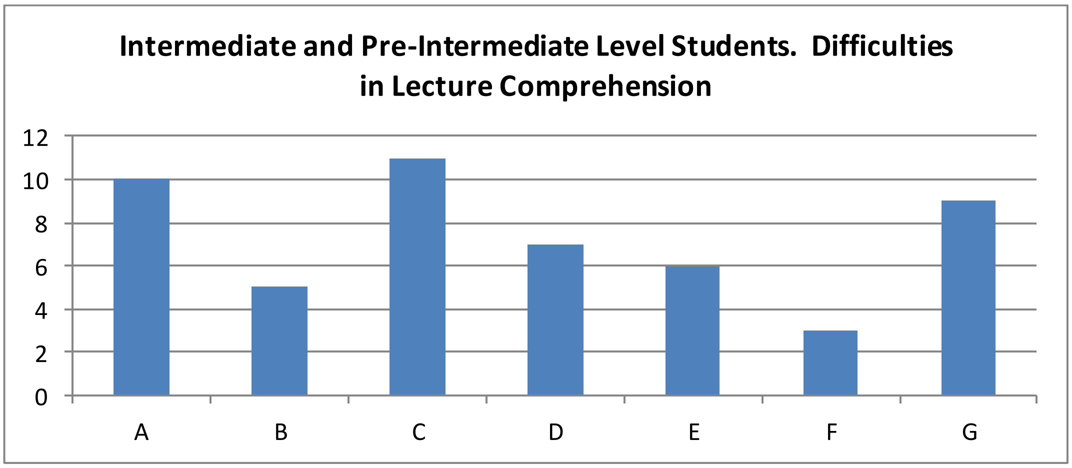
Nine students had no difficulties in lecture comprehension

A4
B4
C 17
D 7
E 4
F 5
G 6



Intermediate and Pre-Intermediate Level Students (26)

A 10
B 5
C 11
D 7
E 6
F 3
G9



The Studies in English Help me Improve my

A. **listening skills** (I can understand the speech of native speakers, other exchange students and lecturers better)

B. **speaking skills** (I can communicate in English about different professional topics in the working environment better)

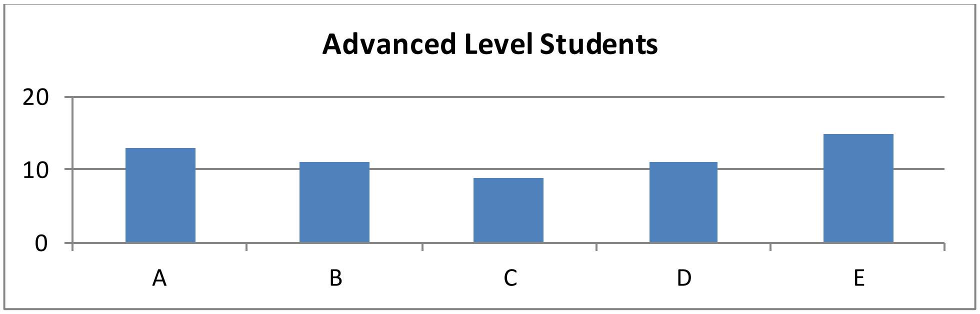
C. **reading skills** (I can read and understand professional texts better)

D. **writing skills** (I can write specialized types of letters, reports, business documents better)

E. **lexical competence** (I have acquired specialized professional terminology in English to be used in my future career in the international environment)

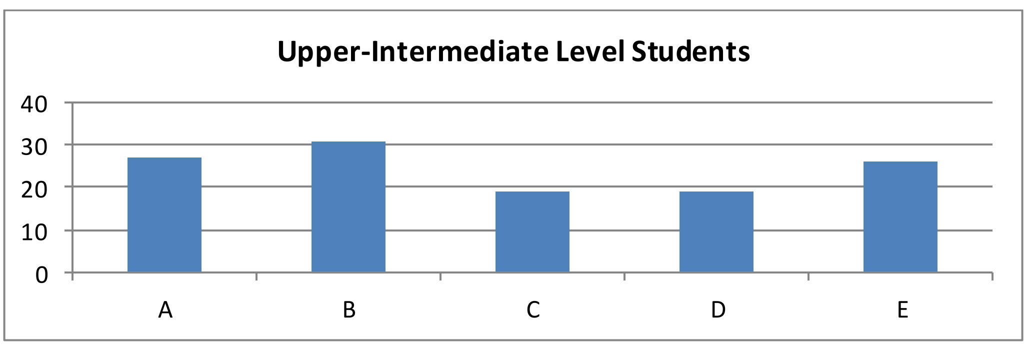
Advanced Level Students (22)
A 13
B 11
C 9
D 11
E 15

Three respondents mentioned that their language skills did not improve while learning in English, four of them stated that all skills were developed when studying in English.



Upper- Intermediate Level Students (40)
A 21
B 24
C 13
D 16
E19

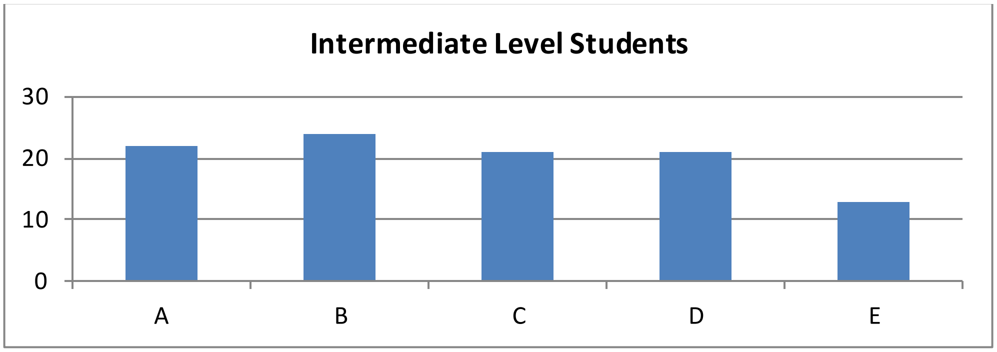
One student mentioned that language skills were not improved learning in English,13 of them stated that all skills were developed



Intermediate Level Students (26)

A 22
B24
C 21
D 21
E 13

One respondent mentioned that language skills were not improved learning in English,
nine of them stated that all skills were developed.



Comparative Table of Skills Developed by Students of Different Language Levels Studying in English, Students' Self-assessment (%):

	Advanced	Upper-Intermediate	Intermediate
A. Listening skills	59	68	85
B. Speaking skills	50	77	92
C. Reading skills	41	47	80
D. Writing skills	50	47	80
E. Lexical competence	41	65	50

What would you like to be changed by lecturers who deliver courses in English?

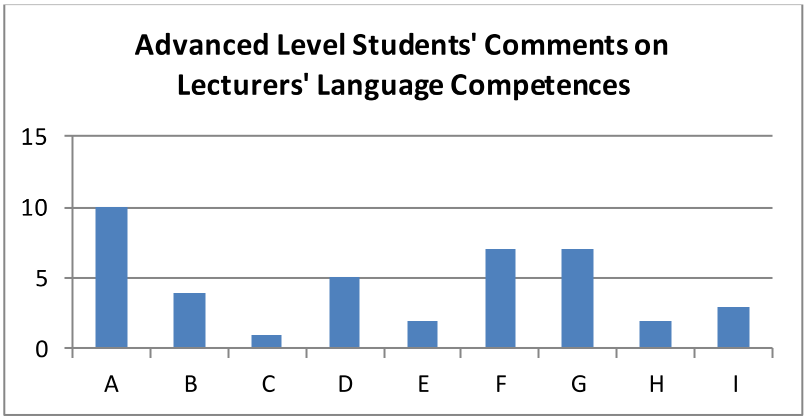
A. pronunciation
B. speech rate of a lecturer
C. choice of words
D. grammar
E. word order
F. public speaking skills
G. lecturing style
H. use of linking words
I. ways of explaining professional terms

Advanced Level Students (22)

A 10
B 4
C 1
D 5
E 2
F 7
G 7

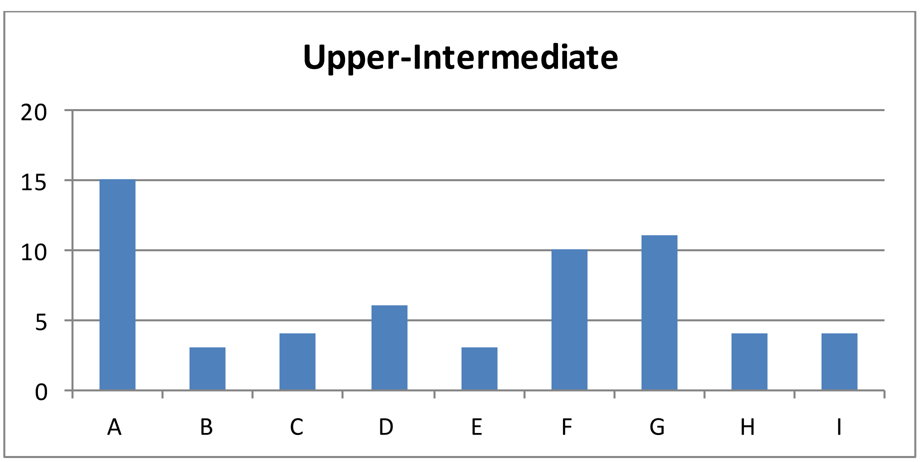
H 2
I 3

One student mentioned that language skills did not improve while learning in English; six said that nothing had to be changed, everything was suitable.



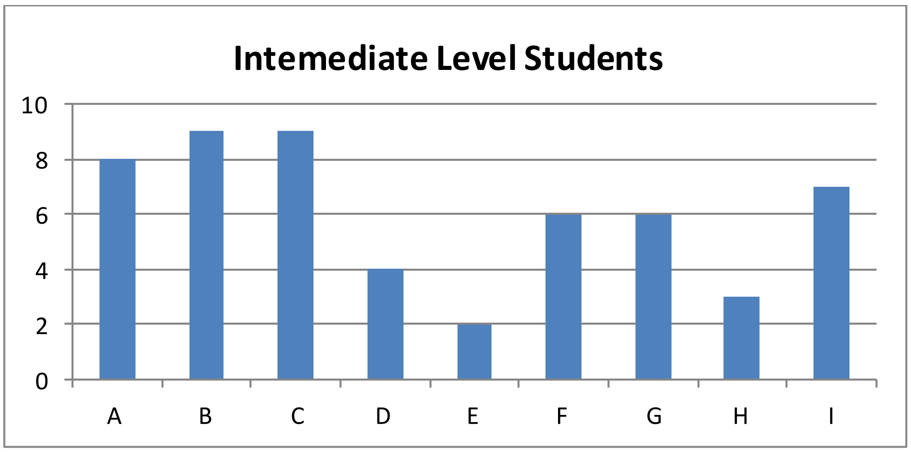
Upper – Intermediate (40)

A 15
B 3
C 4
D 6
E 3
F 10
G 11
H 4
I 4



Intermediate (26)

A 8
B 9
C 9
D 4
E 2
F 6
G 6
H 3
I 7



Appendix 3. Questionnaire on Note-Taking

The aim of the present questionnaire is to find out to what extent the process of note taking is important while studying in English, if it affects the process of lecture comprehension, whether it fosters the knowledge of the subject as well as to discover what difficulties international students have while taking notes.

Please find time to answer the questions below. If you have comments, you are welcome to add them.

1. How do you assess your language knowledge according to the Common European Framework of Deference for Languages (CEFR). Choose the variant that describes your language competences the best:

B1	B2	C1	C2

2.	Answer the questions by choosing the answer that suits you best		
	1. I always take notes during a lecture	Yes	No
	2. I consider note-taking an important element of my study process.	Yes	No
3.	I use the following method of note-taking		
	1. Pen and paper (I take notes writing)	Yes	No
	2. Type on a tablet / computer / I-phone	Yes	No
	3. Both (Pen and paper and Typing)		
4.	Choose **Yes / No** for the statement		
	1. When I take notes I use abbreviations and shortening forms	Yes	No
	2. When I take notes I write full sentences	Yes	No
	3. When I take notes I use special symbols	Yes	No
	4. When I take notes I look for non-verbal cues (facial expression, hand and body signals)	Yes	No
5.	When listening to a lecture I **sometimes do not understand**:		
	1. Lecturer's intonation or stress	Yes	No
	2. Some specialized terminology	Yes	No
	3. Idioms (they are not clear)	Yes	No
	4. Pronunciation of some specific words because I do not know them	Yes	No
	5. Pronunciation of some specific words because the way they are	Yes	No

	pronounced by the lecturer differs from how I got used to pronouncing them		
	6. When the lecturer repeats words and ideas used in the beginning, he refers backwards in his discourse (Anaphora) E.g. The **music** stopped and **that** upset everybody.	Yes	No
	7. When the lecturer uses more specific word, e.g. noun after he had used, e.g. a pronoun (Cataphora) E.g. When **he** arrived, **John** went to sleep.	Yes	No
	8. Where the lecturer starts the new idea and where he finishes it	Yes	No
	9. The oral form of a word (I do not recognize the word)	Yes	No
	10. Lecturer's dialect	Yes	No
	11. Lecturer's idiolect	Yes	No
6.	Choose **Yes / No** for the statement		
	1. I sometimes miss the idea while taking notes	Yes	No
	2. I cannot always manage lecturer's speed, it is too fast	Yes	No
	3. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer does not explain the new concept	Yes	No
	4. I forget what was said and cannot take notes because the lecturer changes the theme too fast	Yes	No
	5. I cannot take proper notes because I do not understand the meaning of unfamiliar items and ideas	Yes	No
	6. I cannot recognize where is the main and supporting idea	Yes	No
	7. I cannot take notes because sentences are too long and I lose the track of the main idea	Yes	No
	8. I cannot take proper notes because I do understand the meaning of a word in the specific context	Yes	No
	9. I cannot take proper notes because the lecturer does not give the clear hints where the ideas start, finish, change (no use of discourse markers or logical connectors)	Yes	No
	10. I do not understand the attitude of the lecturer to the message	Yes	No

Appendix 4. Results of Lecturers' Questionnaires Presented in Tables, Charts and Graphs:

Years of Experience of Teaching Subjects in English

Grammar and spelling of lecturers' answers were left as original.

1. Lecturer 1	5 years
2. Lecturer 2	10 years
3. Lecturer 3	Approximately 4 years
4. Lecturer 4	less than a year
5. Lecturer 5	3 years
6. Lecturer 6	9 years
7. Lecturer 7	1 year
8. Lecturer 8	3 years
9. Lecturer 9	7-8 years
10. Lecturer 10	10 years
11. Lecturer 11	The English language since 1989, Pedagogy in English since 2009
12. Lecturer 12	from 2008 after the return from the USA
Foreign experts	
13. Lecturer 13 (Moldova)	10 years
14. Lecturer 14 (Finland)	10 years

Did you have any specialized training to deliver lectures in foreign languages?

No – 8 answers
Language courses, Scientific publications in English
Not exactly, no underwent a course – Further teaching for business English teachers, London Chamber Commerce of Trade and Industry
No, not for the lecture courses that you mean here, but I don't need it, since my doctors degree is in pedagogy I am absolutely aware of the methodology.
There was no specialized course devoted to delivering lectures in English but we had a lot of cases in English teaching methodology

Lecturing Styles

What lecturing style / styles do you usually use in the course of your work?

Give–and–take styles – 4 answers
Interactive– 6 answers
Reading – 4 answers
Rhetorical - 2 answers
I do not know what style I use- I think the style what is easy understandable.
I do not know what style I use
Case studies
Difficult to say – computers – show and present and practice type of approach – I used to show in the screen, and they did. Civil defence – conversational style – presentation + involvement of audience, trying to make it more interactive. Another problem – lack of contact hours – 6 hours – to give as much info as possible by speaking by himself, rather than interacting. Try to use. Question – answer, asking for examples. Show video, asking for opinion
It depends on the target audience and the course. For Pedagogy which are for PhD curricula this is definitely lecturing mixed with discussions, I would say more give-and-take the style according to your styles mentioned there.
For bachelor students in the Research methods course, which is very specific and difficult course, there is a definite amount of classic lectures, not reading but telling and giving comments and explanations; a definite amount of seminars and workshops where I would say conversational style could be used on some stages, most of the work is done individually, corresponding with a student on e-mail. I am correcting all their works in track-changes format and sending to them. They make corrections and send me back. This is hell of work but you cannot learn science if you are not doing it.

Activities Used in the Course of Academic Lectures

What types of activities do you have in your lectures?

Types of activities
Use various activities, and as many as possible, to make the study process more interesting and useful.
Explanation from lecturer, Discussions, Brainstorm about some subjects,
Sometimes - group work. Depends on course.
Discussions, watching podcasts and discussing them, playing role-playing games regarding topic-related issues, watching videos, etc. Students have to do presentations quite often and defend their ideas, work in groups in solving some topic-related problems, read and argument for/against topic-related issues discussed in scientific journals, etc.
Discussion, games, mini lectures
Group work, presentations, case studies, video watching and commenting
Group work, presentations, and discussions.
Case study analysis; discussions (free form / debate type); lecture slides; interactive games; Role plays; Time for self-reflection; video case analysis; Students presentations
Computer applications, Case studies, Business calculations
Take notes based on slides which he printed out and gave students. Would love to have more group work in the nearest future. First year – difficult.
Depends on the course – class discussions, group work, pair work, fieldwork, students' presentations, simply discussing and exchanging experience, analyzing scientific papers, etc.
I use activities to make the lectures more interactive as I want to see the feedback. I often make them work in pairs. At the same time, I want them to collaborate so they are assigned projects they are supposed to do in small groups. From time to time they are supposed to present reports on a given topic meant to boost their analytical skills. I also use activities boosting their creative thinking as I want them to deduce the new material.
Role play, presentations, independent research, written tasks, marketing plans.

How Do You Ensure Learners' Understanding of Your Discourse?

Trying to motivate them.
Participation in discussions, Students practical works presentations.

Next lecture I begin with from previous one, so I have possibility correct and add, if necessary.
I ask them questions and we have discussions.
Short report writing.
Discuss all topics in brief, exercises and tests.
I am asking questions and using tests.
Assignments, Discussions, By paying attention to emotions / reactions of students, By small questions during the lecture.
I hope my students understand discussions on course themes.
By looking at their reaction, trying to summarize things at the end, asking a couple of questions. Try to repeat the point again – body language – part of interaction!!!!!!
No problem with PhD students. Some of them are native English speakers, for the others their level is never lower than C1.
For Market Research course I tried to use simple language when explaining complicated things and I always have those terms written on the slide when I am speaking. I always provide them with handouts and in general, when I give a lecture, I do have quite a lot of text on the slide.
I'm very careful about the vocabulary I use. I take into consideration the students' level of proficiency and adjust my discourse to it. The speed of my delivery also depends on the students' level of proficiency. Indeed, you'll speak in one way to first-year-students and in another to graduates.

Lecturers' Assessment of Students' Knowledge

How do you assess students? Is it only content knowledge or language knowledge too?

Both – 3 answers
Only knowledge they get in the subject – 5 answers
I try not to grade regarding their language, however, if the language skills are too low and I cannot understand what is written, I could deduct a grade, or ask them to redo the paper.
Mainly it's content knowledge. But pretty often content students can deliver is impacted by language proficiency.
Language knowledge effects content knowledge. If it is not a native knowledge. I try to assess content knowledge rather than spelling mistakes or grammar. More on definitions that I use. Multiple choice questions – 60 questions – circle the correct –language knowledge is

important – student needs to understand – difficult to a couple of students had these problems. Used translation or explanation if they asked for something that was not clear. E.g. proclaimed – students did not know what it was – I had to explain.
No, language is a means for studying those courses. In my courses I clearly have to differentiate between the language and the content.
No, language is a means for studying those courses. In my courses I clearly have to differentiate between the language and the content.
When it comes to lectures the focus is definitely on the content knowledge. Language knowledge is assessed as a rule during the practical classes of English. However, if the student doesn't know the language he/she will not able to produce any content knowledge. I even tell my students that language mistakes will not be taken into consideration.

Lecturers' Opinion on the Possibility of Students' Improvement of Language Skills during Lectures in English

Do you consider that lectures delivered in a foreign language improve students' language skills?

Yes - 4 answers
Absolutely (if not improve, at least diversify)
In fact that many lectures happen at the same time, students often don't participate all of them – so, influence on improving students' language skills is small.
Only if the lecturer is competent in his/her language skills
Should be.
Definitely – all skills – if the student is good – having studied in a foreign lg myself – in Russian – all my skills were improved – reading, writing. If the lang. level is poor - in a normal case the student – he has to take more language lessons – two ways – to ensure – preparatory language course before the semester starts and offering additional lang. courses during the semester in professional, incl. learning skills.
Reception skills and vocabulary. And if they do independent research and study for the course, then other skills as well.
It goes without saying that lectures delivered in a foreign language improve the students' language skills. First of all, they will be exposed to listening to the material in the foreign language. Similarly, they'll read and write in that language. And they will be asked to give their

feedback also in that language. (Just as a remark, the teacher should be really proficient in that particular foreign language. If the teacher is incapable of producing a cohesive and coherent discourse in English for example, the consequences might be disastrous.)
Yes, but more when they answer in a foreign language in written and oral form

Lecturers' Preferences for the Choice of Appropriate Ways of Explaining New Concepts in English

What way do you usually explain the professional terminology that students are not aware of?

By exemplifying

By giving / providing definitions

Translating into L1

By letting students decipher the meaning from the context

Some other way

I do not explain new terms

Translating into L1- 5 answers (if it is possible), by letting students decipher the meaning from the context
Explanation with some other words
By giving / providing definitions – 9 answers
By exemplifying – 4 answers
By letting students decipher the meaning from the context – 4 answers
By putting definitions in real life example
All of them, By paraphrasing, using simple terms, breaking down into simple sentences, giving examples,
Translating into L1…never, they are all foreigners, it is not possible; by letting students decipher the meaning from the context is impossible in my courses - I have to explain the slightest terminology nuances otherwise. Giving examples from my research field and providing examples from other students' diploma papers, not mentioning students' names, of course.
By giving / providing definitions …………they seek on the web or I give terms and they apply them in answers

Necessity of Language Training for More Professional Delivery of Lectures in L2

Is there any need for the academic personnel who read lectures in foreign languages to complete specialized training / language training?

Yes – 2 answers
It could be good, because language developing.
I think it is necessary.
If the level of their language is insufficient, then yes.
Not for everybody, but yes, in principle.
Well, language training is always needed.
Training should depend on the language skill. If language skills are poor - yes.
Yes, mostly – they should have some kind of – it is difficult – probably – at least 1-2 training lectures – they can their skills and improve them
I am absolutely convinced that yes. Unfortunately, many of them consider that their English language competence is high, but students do complain that they do not understand; and they are right in many cases!
don't quite understand this question. As I said previously the teacher should be proficient not nly in the subject matter of his/her discipline but also in the language he/she is delivering the cture, otherwise it's useless to lecture in a foreign language. It would be also useful for some achers to know that delivering a lecture is not a monologue, and that the students should be volved in the process. Sometimes the teacher just stays in front (or even sits!!!) and drums out a monotonous voice something nobody is listening to.
Just language training on that subject's jargon.

Lecturers' Opinion on the Necessity of Students' Knowledge of Professional Terminology in L1 Prior to Studies in English

Can one acquire the subject in English without knowing the professional terminology in his/her mother tongue?

No – 2 answers
Yes – 3 answers
Yes, but he/she should study extra hard. It is advisable to translate the newly learned terminology into mother tongue, for it may come very useful when working back at home.

Yes, with a special assistance on the part of professor
Yes, especially in Tourism English is common.
Yes, if it is very specific and new field of science
It is quite difficult, do not think it is impossible – has to find out definitions himself – extra work by a student – if he is provided with adequate examples. It helps if you know in your mother tongue – easier to correlate. Terminology – just a word -
I don't think so. But the specialists usually know their terminology. And I want to say that all professors in Latvia know their specialization terminology in Latvian and in English. I have not met any professor who does not know it. The rules for professors are such that otherwise they cannot become professors. I am not so positively inclined about lecturers. A lot of them do not understand English at all. The only way out of the situation is to study for PhD and conduct research. When mixing with international scientific audience, one will learn the language in their field.
YES, it is possible. I'm particularly referring to my case when students are taught English to become teachers of or translators from or into English.
Not necessarily. Just the will to learn and a basic knowledge of English.

Lecturers' Opinion on the Linguistic Difficulties they Encounter while Delivering Lectures in English

What linguistic difficulties do you encounter while delivering lectures in English?

I have no any difficulties
No, it depends on students' motivation
No answer
In English I usually have no linguistic difficulties. Sometimes the students fail in terminology, but otherwise it is fine.
Bad writing skills
Terminology and professional expression translation
For students with poor English language skills my speech tends to be too fast
Terminology in psychology, human relationship
I do not encounter any linguistic difficulties – except students' .A great advantage – being a lecturer and the language teacher. CLIL – big benefit of being a lecturer and a language

teacher. Methodological seminars are needed – exchange experience – having two lectures – one is…
Sometimes how to say it more easy.
The only problem that might happen is that the students might not understand something and more explanation might be needed.
International students are generally older, more open to education and more motivated.

Difference in the quality of students' results studying in English and in Latvian

Do you notice any difference in the quality of students' results attending a course in Latvian and in English?

Yes, there is a difference
Students with poor language can't follow lecturer
No answer
No- 4 answers
Foreign students are more interested in studies, more active, more motivated.
I lecture only in English
I have not delivered this course in Latvian – depends on the competence of a lecturer and a student. More possibility of misunderstanding. Lecturer in Latvian – it could be much better to explain. Depends on the lang. skills of both parties
There is no difference
I don't know. In my case, where students are studying English as a foreign language, they are more proficient if they listen to the course in English.
Practice and feedback. Over and over again

Lecturers' Views on Problem Areas Students Have Studying in English

What problems do students usually have learning in a foreign language?

Poor English
Not enough language skills – 2 answers
Sometimes the students fail in terminology, but otherwise it is fine.
No problems
Expressing their ideas on the deep level
Lack of time.

Understanding definitions / Being able to express opinion in discussion; Being able to present well a given topic.
Understanding the content, expressing your ideas. Cultural factor – the learning style – teacher – authority or not in their country, authority – do not ask questions…
I don't think they had problems related with language. Bachelor students had problems with the course content, but the course is very specific and very difficult. And there is not one correct answer. This was the most difficult part for me to persuade them that there is no correct answer in many cases. You can do it in different ways you only must prove that your way is correct. They are used to having only one correct answer. I am glad that buy the end we succeeded and I am sure that next year I will have better results. I learnt from them a lot.
It's difficult for them to realize that speaking in a foreign language is different from speaking in your mother tongue. It takes time to realize the particularities of the foreign language they are studying, to start thinking in that language. A foreign language can't be simply resumed to its grammar or vocabulary. It's more than this. There's a whole culture behind, a whole mentality, which differs from the one they have.
Depends on the subject. I always review my courses and ask students to help me improve them

Lecturers' Self-assessment of the Necessity to Make Changes in the Lecturing Style

What would you like to change in your lecturing style? What would you like to improve?

I'm trying to improve my lecture style all the time.
Nothing, at least for this moment.
I am still a new lecturer, so I cannot really answer this question.
More videos
Be more interactive, to use more group work
Better planning of topics and better structured lectures
Pay more attention to how fast I speak
I would like to have more group work, more involvement, and more immediate feedback.
This year the course was for 3rd and 4th year bachelor students. Next year it will be for 2nd year students. Different target audience, different focus of the course. I will have for PhD students I have overview lectures 2-5, depending on the programme. I cannot change anything as to the style. I am changing lectures. Science is changing. I have to create it anew.

I improve the lectures all the time. Especially those that refer to different regulations and new methods. To prepare one lecture for PhD students, I need about 3 weeks. As I am short of time, in practice I change 2 lectures completely every year and use 3 from the previous year.
This question should be addressed to the students I think as it is difficult for me to answer it. I know that sometimes I want to tell so many things and maybe this is too much for the students. I really don't know. And one more thing, I should control my speed, sometimes, when I get carried away, I start talking too quickly.

Appendix 5. Most Frequently Used Words Extracted from the Transcribed Lectures

KEY WORDS			
Lecture 1			
N	**Word**	**Frequency**	**%**
1.	THE	149	3,3
2.	AND	139	3,08
3.	TO	83	1,84
4.	A	78	1,73
5.	**THAT**	78	1,73
6.	I	66	1,46
7.	IS	62	1,37
8.	IT	59	1,31
9.	**THEY**	56	1,24
10.	YOU	56	1,24
11.	IN	54	1,2
12.	OF	49	1,09
13.	**WE**	41	0,91
14.	**THIS**	38	0,84
15.	BUT	33	0,73
16.	SO	33	0,73
17.	WHAT	29	0,64
18.	HAVE	24	0,53
19.	THEN	20	0,44
20.	BY	19	0,42
21.	IF	19	0,42
22.	ABOUT	18	0,4
23.	ARE	18	0,4
24.	CAN	18	0,4
25.	DO	18	0,4
26.	JUST	17	0,38
27.	**THERE**	16	0,35

28.	ON	15	0,33
29.	AT	14	0,31
30.	BECAUSE	14	0,31
31.	OUT	14	0,31
32.	ALL	13	0,29
33.	WHEN	13	0,29
34.	GET	12	0,27
35.	THEME	12	0,27
36.	**THESE**	12	0,27
37.	GENERAL	11	0,24
38.	HAS	11	0,24
39.	STRATEGY	11	0,24
40.	WAY	11	0,24
41.	WITH	11	0,24
42.	ACTUALLY	10	0,22
43.	AS	10	0,22
44.	BE	10	0,22
45.	GROSS	10	0,22
46.	HOW	10	0,22
47.	MARGIN	10	0,22
48.	MEASURE	10	0,22
49.	NOT	10	0,22
50.	NUMBERS	10	0,22
51.	WAS	10	0,22
52.	WHO	10	0,22
53.	AN	9	0,2
54.	FOR	9	0,2
55.	OFF	9	0,2
56.	PANDA	9	0,2
57.	SHIP	9	0,2
58.	**THEIR**	9	0,2
59.	**THEM**	9	0,2
60.	WILL	9	0,2
61.	COMPANY	8	0,18
62.	DECIDED	8	0,18
LECTURE 2			
N	Word	Frequency	%
1	THE	33	1,44
2	IT	31	1,36
3	AND	24	1,05
4	**THAT**	24	1,05

5	ABOUT	20	0,88
6	COURSE	20	0,88
7	IS	20	0,88
8	TO	20	0,88
9	**THIS**	16	0,7
10	IN	14	0,61
11	OF	12	0,53
12	THEME	12	0,53
13	**WE**	12	0,53
14	HAVE	9	0,39
15	WILL	9	0,39
16	BUT	8	0,35
17	ON	8	0,35
18	SO	8	0,35
19	BE	7	0,31
20	MARKETS	7	0,31
21	**OUR**	7	0,31
22	AS	6	0,26
23	DO	6	0,26
24	FINANCE	6	0,26
25	FINANCIAL	6	0,26
26	FOR	6	0,26
27	WORLD	6	0,26
28	YOU	6	0,26
29	ARE	5	0,22
30	PEOPLE	5	0,22
31	**THERE**	5	0,22
32	TIME	5	0,22
33	WHAT	5	0,22
34	ME	4	0,18
35	SINCE	4	0,18
36	MANAGER	4	0,18
37	**THEY**	4	0,18
38	THINGS	4	0,18
39	THROUGH	4	0,18
LECTURE 3			
N	Word	Frequency	%
1	THE	520	3,38
2	AND	283	1,84
3	A	278	1,81
4	OF	269	1,75
5	**THAT**	250	1,63

6	IT	227	1,48
7	IS	189	1,23
8	TO	183	1,19
9	YOU	154	1
10	IN	143	0,93
11	SO	125	0,81
12	**WE**	109	0,71
13	**THIS**	108	0,7
14	BUT	79	0,51
15	**THEY**	76	0,49
16	HAVE	64	0,42
17	IF	61	0,4
18	WHAT	60	0,39
19	ON	56	0,36
20	ABOUT	54	0,35
21	WAS	51	0,33
22	ARE	50	0,33
23	BE	49	0,32
24	JUST	49	0,32
25	RETURN	49	0,32
26	FOR	46	0,3
27	ONE	46	0,3
28	**THESE**	45	0,29
29	UP	45	0,29
30	STOCK	43	0,28
31	THEN	43	0,28
32	DO	42	0,27
33	OR	40	0,26
34	MARKET	39	0,25
35	**HERE**	38	0,25
36	NOT	38	0,25
37	**THERE**	38	0,25
38	APPLE	37	0,24
39	AT	37	0,24
40	CAN	37	0,24
41	MEAN	32	0,21
42	PROBABILITY	32	0,21
43	LIKE	31	0,2
44	KNOW	30	0,2
45	WHICH	30	0,2
46	WITH	30	0,2
47	GOING	29	0,19

48	THINK	29	0,19
49	VARIANCE	29	0,19

The software program WordSmith 6.0 was used (Lecture 1, Lecture 2, Lecture 3).Each lecture has a list of the most frequently used words, however highlighted are the words that were analysed in the empirical part of the thesis.

Extracts from the Transcribed Lectures

Appendix 6. Lecture 1 (AL1): Transcript

"Clyton Christensen on Management"

Extract from the lecture

Source: **http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ei57yFEljrI**

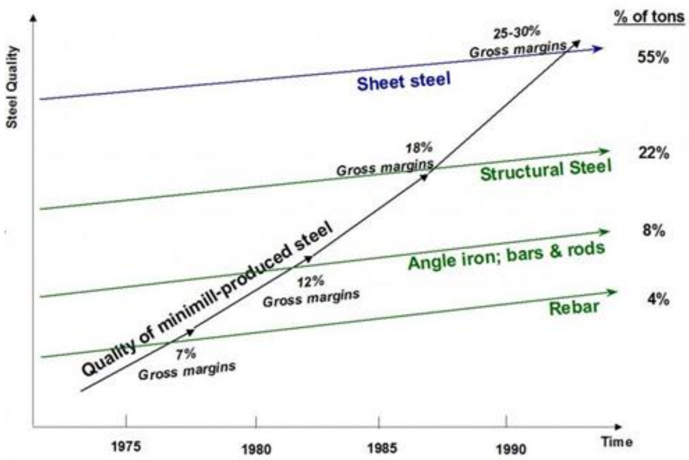
Hello. You are very kind to come back for the second time. Am… Today I think it will be a different part than last night…. I thought about last night stuff a lot…, a part of the [charter] here for me is to give a talk that I haven't given before I've written about. And… so these are the thoughts that I have made and …I would love to have you listen to it mmm and when we have discussing toward the end …have you been able criticize my thinking or …reinforce my thinking if you think that there is something here that is useful…

So, to set it up,… Stephen J. Gould***, who was an extraordinary evolutionary biologist at Harvard …wrote a book….ehh…an article before he died.., called "The Panda's Thumb" (showing his thumb). …and I can remember all the details of this article, but essentially quite he points out …is that for most rrr bears they have four claws, they are not very long…but the panda has longer fingers rrr on her paws and they have an opposing thumb (shows with his hand) and clearly that evolves with the panda so that he…they can get things and eat it given the environment in which they live… But then something happened …the environment changed and they migrated somewhere …and this…thumb became no longer …important to them, and so.. the pandas' thumb (showing on his hand) is still there but it's become rigid ..and actually if you had one of those on your hand you would [wound] it off because it just gets in a way and so he then describes in his paper all of the other panda's thumbs in a system that evolved because of one point in the past they were very useful and then today they are not useful but they are still there and if we don't think about it sometimes we assume that they need to be there when in fact they don't. and so I then put in the panda's thumb on like a set of lenses trying to go through…ah…what goes on in the company and are there panda's thumbs in management for we do things because some point in the past this was actually quite important. And somebody, some set of people decided this is the way it should be done. And now the world has changed. and yet we continue to follow this panda's thumb in our management thinking. So, that's what I wanna talk about, is just proposals about panda's thumbs and another way to put is the way I [fr…nd]is originally which is … I bet…that there are a lot of important decisions in a company that we never made… explicitly by the management but instead somebody back there made these decisions and by panda's thumb we just keep following these stupid rules. So ahh. (Points at the screen)

Management mindlessly

The metrics of financial health
Focus of the company: what we will do and won’t do
Mechanism that initiates investment
The concept of Board of Directors
Sunk, fixed and variable costs

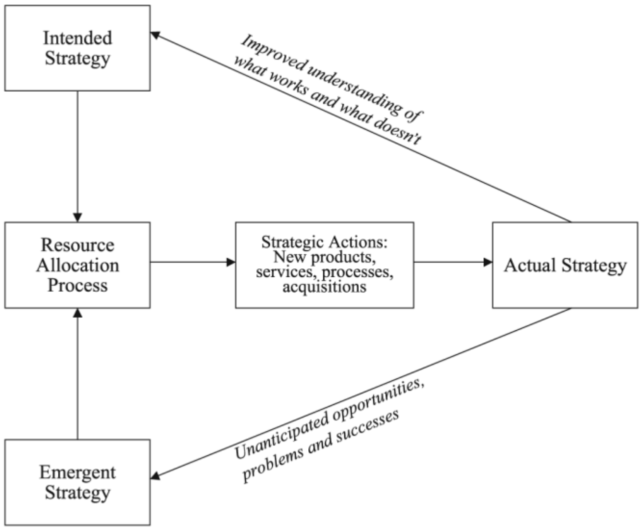
So, where I have that there… (Talking to himself). This is the list of five. We’ll see how well we do. And I checked them off. But I wanna start with the top line which is the metrics of financial health. (Moves to the next slide.)



So, you suffered through this yesterday about [how] minimills killed the integrated still companies… but integrated steel companies measured profitability by growth margin percentage… and because they measured it in that way (approaches the screen and is pointing at the slide) everything they’ve get off the rebar and when they got off angle iron and [thicker] bar and [raden] they got out off structural steel every time they got out …they locked off the lowest gross margin product from their product line and gross margin percentage improved as they [ger] out. So, the question is, who told them that they need to measure profitability by gross margin percentage? It’s a serious question. (opinion) Who told them to do that? (Rhetoric questions) (Pause) I don’t think it was God. (Audience laughing) But somehow, somebody back there decided to measure profitability by gross margin percentage and because they measured it in this way (uses index finger, point at the screen) it caused the integrated steel companies to just get in in out and get in out and get in out. It turns out that there are other ways to manage it. So, ahh. ..there is a company in a similar kind of a business called [Dellacorni]and they make silicons of all sorts and what was happening to them is their customers would come to [Dellacorni], engineers and say, you know we got a big order here, but actually e need this silicon to cure faster than what we’ve been using historically and you know if you could just make the colour a little bit pinky, pearlish, the customers will like it better and it has to have these measures of strength and [tensile] strength and so on…And so, ah… the engineers were get together and tried to customize the product to the customer’s need and when they do it their engineers would come and say: You won’t believe what’ s happened to us, we have these stupid people who work in purchasing and the rule is when you are ordering this [ ] material we have to put it out to bid and I am sorry to tell you, but this company in China has just come in with the 15% lower bid and they can emulate all these things that you have done to the material and I’ll tell you if I was

making the decision we would put it all with you, [Dellacorni], but I don't, I can't, I can't. And so it has all gone to these guys in China. This happened in [Dellacorni] over and over again. And so, what was happening is that they were incurring the cost of serving their customers but then they didn't get the volume. So, they read this junk about destruction and decided we are not going to let the Chinese to destruct it, but that means that we've got to reduce the cost or the prices by 15%, but we still have to be profitable as before and this is a very difficult problem, but they decided that they could do it if when the order came in …the customer could not talk to a human. It had to be done all [online]. We couldn't ship it from stock because then we had to give it an allocation for capital inventory cost…. And you have to take it in a [tancar] but if you live with this we will ship the money, we will ship it to you. And it turned out that if they do those things they could price it 15% lower. But then the big one is they said: We are gonna change the way we measure it, so we are gonna measure it by net profit not gross product, not gross margin. Because when you measure it by gross margin you focus on reducing the direct cost, but you assume that the overhead cost is somehow dictated by [deady] and if you measure the net profit but then at the bottom then you worry about …the overhead cost as well as the direct cost …and when they did that …what they decided is that measuring in that way caused them to stay in the lower into the market because you had more volume at the bottom that absorbed all of the overheads… and that meant that the customized staff at the higher became very profitable, but they stayed at the bottom of the market. And the result of that is that their volume increased by 40%, these were the customers that they never met before… and profitability increased 900x. Isn't it unbelievably good idea? Ahh, but just measuring profitability made the whole difference. So, these guys, actually don't have to measure profitability by gross margin percentage, they can measure by net profit at the bottom of the market and it would cause them not to walk away from the volume of the low [weird] Anyway, to me it is just… I never thought about that before, but actually, the metric caused the invaders to [limer] and if people didn't measure profitability by gross margin percentage may be of this phenomenon that made [clantenior] will become obviated.
(Turns to the screen)
Process of Strategy Formulation and Implementation
Deliberate
Strategy

So, I wanna just walk through. This is the model that we put in the second of the books of innovators solution that really came from [Minsburgh] and a few others about where strategy comes from, but I wanna go through this to highlight how critical it is to decide what you are gonna measure. So, what [Minsburgh] says: (points at the screen) is when we start out we figure out what we wanna do and he calls this 'deliberate strategy'. But translating strategy into action means that you have to get resources for it. And there is the process by which you get funded, then use that to make products and services and what you actually do with this becomes our strategy and sometimes if this is tight your delivery strategy equals your actual strategy and as you sell those in the market place you learn about how the business works. (Points at the screen) … and as you learn about what does and what doesn't work a profit formula begins to emerge. And that is if I understand how the profitability engine works, this becomes the metric by which we decide what we will do and what we won't do.



Source: Chiristensen and Donovan (1998, p. 4)

And, so this is a kind of the way it works and then on top of that if in resource allocation process there is a proposal that does not fit the profit formula… then you just don't ever fund it and you don't see that there is actually a can there that what you judged as to be bad ideas get thrown in to. Now, what also happens is that any anticipated problems and opportunities emerge every day and those things we call them 'Emergent opportunities and problems' and they start to compete against deliberate strategy to see what actually gets funded and what doesn't. And as you know, as some of you have run businesses …what happens in the resource allocation process becomes very complicated ... because some of these things that have emerged are actually bigger, nicer or more exciting ideas than the original strategy that you have. And, so you wanna be sure that the process is capable to identifying better ideas so that we can walk away from those that aren't good. But on the other hand you can't do everything and so you've all lived in that thing. But this process's just going on rr… where is …when I studied studied strategy in my MBA programme or when I worked to be CG I thought of strategy as an event followed by implementation, and what this is is no strategy is the process, it goes on 24/7 in any organization.

Now let me describe how this worked at Intel, in fact, how they still work in Intel. So, Intel started by making….

Let's see Now, let me just do this next one (means slide)..and then I'll give some time for your observations… I decided that the development of the spreadsheet has been a pucks for mankind. (The audience is laughing), because before the spreadsheet was developed Clay Christensen…Oh, thanks (water is given to the speaker) I remember in the 70-ies when I was in our MBA programme… I remember our finance professor taught me how to calculate internal rate of return and I had a calculator and I had to make the pro-forma finance documents by hand on paper with the pencil and if I did it all done and got the wrong answer, I had to do the whole thing over again by hand and so we just didn't use the concept of internal rate of return at all because it was just too [complicated] (The audience laughing), but there Goodness, it was just at Harvard Business School that one of my classmates invented the spreadsheet and so what that did is that it allows analysts to effortlessly build financial models of any company and the great thing about the spreadsheet is that they can tweet this input and this input and see the impact that it has on the owner or [IRR] or whoever you wanna do and that allows then the analysts to take their model to Executives and teach executives how to run their companies. And with shorts, calls & puts they can punish executives who don't meet or exceed the numbers. And that's what they do in a lot of instances. And what the executives' job has become in many ways is the job of a general manager who assemble and ship numbers. And this is not the job that is fun for General Managers. In my classes I very often ask people if they work in direct responsibility to the General Manager to sit through the meetings that General Manager put together. How much of the General Manager's time is spent assembling and shipping the numbers? Meaning, look you guys, we have to ship the numbers in 8 days. And we need 2 more percentage points of gross margin. Who's gonna find that? And they spend all their time figuring out where they are gonna find these numbers. And that's what their job is – to assemble and ship numbers. And the number that kinds of questions about Who's grown gonna cone form and who're our competitors and what're they doing actually rarely come up in management meetings, because this process has redefined the life of a General Manager. Am, (the next slide appears) and the way this works is really …nobody decided to cause this system to occur, but it creates the real trouble. We had a case in my class about Intel new business initiatives and so it's an incubator they got a budget of 20 million dollars a year and if you have an idea just start a new company using something that relates to Intel you can go to an MBI with a business proposal, if they like it they give you money. And then, what happens in the company is they give you enough money to get the product developed and then launch it into the market and then when you are in [lessons] in this product the funding stops and then you have to find somebody who will take the product. And so then you visit all of the General Managers in the different divisions within Intel, explain that you've got this thing and it's taken off, and that you would like to put it into your product line. And what they found is that over and over again the General Managers say No. Why is it that they say No to products that are taking off in the market? And the answer is the job of a General Manager is to assemble and ship numbers. And somebody brings to them an opportunity that is in the market that is growing but its profit is negative and its cash flow is very negative and the General manager has made a commitment to ship, assemble and ship numbers and because this idea doesn't help me my job done I can't take it on. And so, over and over again, so far 42 exciting ideas took off and then they needed to get funding and nobody would fund it and it ends up in a [drink]. 42 out of 42 and the idea is not that they can't come up with great ideas, but because of the spreadsheet I think this is the cause , they develop financial models, you have to deliver the numbers or I will punish you, therefore the job of the General manager has evolved, so that they can't think about these things .. they have to deliver the numbers and innovation therefore is very hard to do. And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but just it happens to us and we need to be more conscious about it. Anyway, the other two are even worse (the audience is laughing), but we can talk about that another time. If I can go down here and if you guys have questions can you throw that on me (applauses).

Appendix 7. Lecture 2 (AL2): Transcript
"Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes"
Extract from the lecture

PROFESSOR ROBERT SHILLER:
Ok. Welcome to Economics 252.
This is Financial Markets, and I'm Robert Shiller. This is a course for undergraduates. It doesn't presume any prerequisites except the basic Intro Econ [Introductory Economics] prerequisite.
It's about -- well, the title of the course is Financial Markets. By putting "markets" in the title of the course, I'm trying to indicate that it's down to earth, it's about the real world, and, well, to me it connotes that this is about what we do with our lives. It's about our society. So, you might imagine it's a course about trading since it says "markets," but it's more general than that. Finance, I believe, is, as it says in the course description, a pillar of civilized society. It's the structure through which we do things, at least on a large scale of things. It's about allocating resources through space and time, our limited resources that we have in our world. It's about incentivizing people to do productive things. It's about sponsoring ventures that bring together a lot of people and making sure that people are fairly treated, that they contribute constructively and that they get a return for doing that. And it's about managing risks, that anything that we do in life is uncertain. Anything big or important that we do is uncertain. And to me that's what financial markets is about.
To me, this is a course that will have a philosophical underpinning, but at the same time will be very focused on details. I'm fascinated by the details about how things work. It can be boring, and I hope I'm not boring in this course, but it's in the details that things happen. So, I want to talk about particular institutions, and I'm interpreting finance broadly in this course. I want to talk about banking, insurance.
Sometimes people don't include insurance as part of finance, but I don't see why not, so we'll include it. It's about securities, about futures markets, about derivatives markets, and it's going to be about financial crises. And it's also about the future. I like to try to think about the future, although it's hard to do so. Where are we going? This course will have a U.S. bias since we live in the United States. I know the U.S. better than any other country, but at the
same time, I recognize that many of you, or even most of you, will work outside the U.S., and so it's important that we have a world perspective, which is something I will try my utmost to incorporate in this course.
The world perspective also particularly matters since we have other viewers for this course besides those people in this room. This course is one of a couple dozen courses that Yale University is offering free to the world as part of Open Yale. And that means there's a cameraman back there if you've noticed. That's Dan Cody filming the course. And it will be eventually posted on the internet and it will be available through Open Yale, and then by proliferation, you'll find it on many other websites as well. This is the second time this course has been filmed for Open Yale. The first time was in 2008, three years ago. And I'm very pleased to report that I have a lot of people in every imaginable country who have watched these lectures. And I get emails from them, so I know that they're out there.
But I thought that this course needs updating, probably more than any course on Open Yale. You know, a course in physics only has to be updated for the last three years of research in physics, and it's probably not a big thing for an undergraduate course. But finance really has to be updated, I think, because it's going through such turmoil and change right now. We've had the worst financial crisis since the Great Depression, and it's been a worldwide crisis.

And governments around the world are working on changing our financial institutions. We have organizations of governments, notably the G-20, which is very involved in finance. It's one of the top items on their agenda for international cooperation, it's changing our financial markets. So, I think that that's another reason why I want to try to keep as international a focus as I'm good at doing in this course. But I hope that those of you who are in this room are not disturbed by the camera and feel you can ask questions. You don't have to be on camera. I think I'm just being filmed.

So, that's where we are. Now, I wanted to put this in a little bit broader context. The other major finance course that we have here at Yale is Economics 251 and it's taught by Professor John Geanakoplos, who is a mathematical economist and also a practitioner. He's research director for Ellington Capital. So, he's somewhat like me in that he's interested both in theory and practice. But his course is definitely more theoretical and mathematical than mine.

His is entitled "Financial Theory." And I can read some of the topics that -- and his course also will appear on Open Yale shortly. You can take the whole course. But I don't know -- it's not up at this moment. It will be up in a matter of months.

So, I encourage you, if you want to, to take Open Yale Econ 251. But the things that he talks about in that course, if you read the topics in this course you'll see that they're more mathematical and technical than mine. He talks about "Utilities, Endowments and How It Leads to Equilibrium," "Assets and Time," "The Mathematical Theory of Bond Pricing," "Dynamic Present Value," "Social Security and the Overlapping Generations Model," "Uncertainty and Hedging." I'm quoting his titles. "State Pricing." That's kind of an abstract theory. We talk about the price of a state of nature. I won't explain that. He talks in some length about the "Theory of Risk" and the "Capital Asset Pricing Model," and about the "Leverage Cycle," which is relevant to our crises. So, I recommend you take Econ 251, but I don't expect you to take it. This course is self-contained. And I'm going to keep mathematics to the minimum in these lectures. But the idea here is that we can't avoid it completely. I personally am mathematically inclined, too, but I'm understanding that we have divided our subject matter. So, John Geanakoplos is doing the math and the theory, and

I'm doing the real world. It's not a complete division like that, but it's something like that. So, I'm going to stay to that. I'm going to talk more about institutions and history than about mathematics. Since I know that most of you or many of you will not take Economics 251, what we are doing is, I'll give a little indication of the mathematical principles, more intuitive, and we have review sessions with our teaching assistants. We plan to have six of those. And those will be on a Friday in this room. And they won't be on Open Yale. Those will cover the theory, and it will be like a short form of Geanakoplos' course. And then we'll have problem sets. And there will be six problems sets, one for each of those sessions. So, there will be some math in this course. I wanted to talk about the purpose of this course, to clarify it.

One thing is, what do I imagine you're going to do with this course? Well, first of all, I pride myself that I think I teach -- if I might boast for a minute -- I think I teach one of the most useful courses in Yale College. At least that's the way I think about it. Because this course really prepares you to do things in the world. By the way, I've been teaching this course now for 25 years. I first taught it in the fall of 1985. Now I don't know if that's depressing or not.

To me, it's great. I like to be able to keep moving ahead. I wonder what my 1985 course looked like. Unfortunately, they didn't do Open Yale and I can't go back and look at it. But I think I've gotten more philosophical and maybe more real world oriented as time has gone by. But the excitement I have is when I go up -- I give a lot of public talks, and it's often on Wall Street. And when I do one on Wall Street, I like to ask people for a show of hands. How many of you were in my Economics 252 class? And I typically get one or two at least who raise their hand. So, that's a source of pride to me, that I was involved in the beginning of their careers. And I hope I instilled some kind of moral sense to what they do. But I should say I don't think that most of you will go into finance, because I think that most of you have other purposes. What does it mean to go into finance? Well, it sounds like that means you would be listed as someone who is very focused on finance. But I think everyone should know finance. This should be a required course, actually, at Yale College, because finance is so fundamental to what we do and the structure of our lives that I don't see how you can avoid doing finance if you want to do something big and important. Maybe you don't want to do that either, so you might want to become a hermit and then you don't need finance. But to me I like to think that many of you have a sense of purpose in life. I should say -- that sounded funny, didn't it? But what I'm saying is your purpose is not to make money. And this is one thing about finance that bothers me, is that people think that it's a field for money-grubbing people who just want to go out and make money. And I don't think so. I think it's a technology for doing things, and you don't want to be mystified by it. When someone talks some financial jargon, you don't want to say, I don't have a clue what that's about, because what that's about is how we make things happen.

And so, I hope that you have other purposes in life besides finance, even those of you who go into finance.

But the question is whether this is a vocational course. Here at Yale College there has been a long tradition that we are not a vocational school -- I suppose you know that -- that Yale is a liberal arts [college]...

Appendix 8. Lecture 3 (AL3): Transcript
"Risk and Financial Crises"

Extract from the lecture

Professor Shiller introduces basic concepts from probability theory and embeds these concepts into the concrete context of financial crises, with examples from the financial crisis from 2007-2008.

What I want to do this time is talk about probability. I don't think many of you have taken a course in probability theory. I don't take that as a prerequisite for this course, but I think that actually probability theory is fundamental to the way we think about finance. So, I wanted to talk about that a little bit today. And I'm going to put it in a concrete context, namely, the crisis that's the world has been through since, and which we're still in at this point. It's a financial crisis that's bigger than any since the Great Depression... There's many different ways of thinking about a crisis like this. And I wanted to focus on one way that people think about it in terms of probability models.

So, that's not the only way, it's not necessarily my favourite way of thinking about it. That's, I think, a good way of introducing our discussion of probability as it relates to finance. Excuse my cold. I am managing to talk. I didn't bring any water. I hope I make it through this lecture. It's a little bit iffy. So, let's just think about the crisis. Most people, when they talk about financial crises, they talk in terms of narrative, of a historical narrative. So, I'll give you a quick and easy historical narrative about the crisis. The crisis began with bubbles in the stock market, and the housing market, and also in the commodities market.

Bubbles are - I will talk about these later, but bubbles are events, in which people get very excited about something, and they drive the prices up really high, and it's got to break eventually. And there was a pre-break around when the stock market collapsed around the world. All over the world, the stock markets collapsed in. But then they came back again after and they were on another boom, like a roller coaster ride. And then they collapsed again. That's the narrative story. And then, both the housing market and the stock market collapsed. And then, what happened is, we see a bunch of institutional collapses. So, we see, in failures in companies that had invested in home mortgages.

And we see a run on a bank in the United Kingdom, Northern Rock. It was arrested, but it looked like’s all over again with the bank failure. We saw bank failures in the United States. And then, we saw international cooperation to prevent this from spreading like a disease. And then, we had governments all over the world bailing out their banks and other companies. So, a disaster was averted, and then we had a nice rebound. That's the narrative story, OK. And it makes it sound -- and I'm going to come back to it, because I like the narrative story of the collapse. But I want to today focus on something that's more in keeping with probability, with the way financial theorists think about it. And what financial theorists will think about is that actually it's not just those few big events.

The crisis we got into was the accumulation of a lot of little events. And sometimes they accumulate according to the laws of probability into big events. And you are just telling stories around this accumulation of shocks that affected the economy. And the stories are not, by some accounts, not that helpful. We want to understand the underlying probabilities. And so that's -- thank you, a good assistant. He knows what I need. I just announced what I need, he got it. A bottle of water. Tomorrow I may have absolutely no voice. You're lucky. I'm going to talk today about probability, and variance, and covariance, and regression, and idiosyncratic risk, and systematic risk. Things like that which are core concepts in finance. But I'm also going to, in the context of the crisis, emphasize in this lecture, breakdowns of some of the most popular assumptions that underlie financial theory. And I'm thinking particularly of two breakdowns. And we'll emphasize these as other interpretations of the crisis. One is the failure of independence.

I'll come back and redefine that. And another one is a tendency for outliers or fat-tailed distributions. So, I'll have to explain what all that means. But basically, let me just try to elaborate on -- probability theory is a conceptual framework that mathematicians invented. And it's become a very important way of thinking, but it doesn't go back that far in time. The word probability in its present meaning wasn't even coined until the ... So, you if you talk to someone before the year, and say, this has a probability of, they would have no idea what you're talking about. So, it's a major advance in human understanding to think in terms of probabilities. Now we do. And now it's routine, but it wasn't routine at all. And part of what I'm thinking about is, what probability theorists do, or in particular finance theorists like to do, is they think that the world is, well, let me just say, it's kind of a realization that the world is very complex, and that the outcomes that we see are the results of millions of little things. And the stories we tell are just stories. So, how do we deal with the complexity of the world? Well, we do it by dealing with all of these little incremental shocks that affect our lives in a mathematical way. And we think of them as millions of shocks. How do they accumulate? We have mathematical laws of how they accumulate. And once we understand those laws, we can we can build mathematical models of the outcomes. And then we can ask whether we should be surprised by the financial events that we've seen. It's a little bit like science, real hard science. So, for example, weather forecasters.

They build models that -- you know, you see these weather forecasts. They have computer models that are built on the theory of fluid dynamics.

And there is a theory of all those little atoms moving around in the air. And there's too many atoms to count, but there's some laws about their cumulative movement that we understand. And it actually allows us to forecast the weather. And so, people who are steeped in this tradition in finance think that what we're doing when we're doing financial forecast is very much like what we do when we do weather forecasts. We have a statistical model, we see all of the shocks coming in, and of course there will be hurricanes. And we can only forecast them -- you know there's a limit to how far out we can forecast them. So, all hurricanes are a surprise two weeks before they happen. Weather forecasters can't do that. Same thing with financial crises. This would be the model. We understand the probability laws, there's only a certain time horizon before which we can forecast the financial crisis. That isn't exactly my view of the situation. I'm presenting a view this time which is very mathematical and probability theory oriented. So, let me get into some of these details. And again, these are going to be re-covered in the review session that Elan Fuld, one of our teaching assistants, will do. I have just slides with graphs and equations. But, that's not Elan Fuld. I want to start out with just the concept of return. Which is, in finance, the basic, the most basic concept that – When you invest in something, you have to do it for a time interval. And I'm writing the return as one time period.

T is time. And so, it could be a year, or it could be months, or it could be a day. We're going to number these months, let's say it's monthly return, we're going to number these months, so that the first month is number one, second month is number two. And so, return at time t, if t is equal to, that would be the return at month three. And we'll do price at the beginning of the month. And so, what is your return to investing in something? It's the increase in the price. That's p t plus , minus p t. I'm spelling it out here. Price -- I spelled it out in the numerator, I guess I didn't do it in the denominator. It's price at time t plus minus the price at time t, which is called the capital gain, plus the dividend, which is a check you receive, if you do, from the company that you're investing in. That's the return. We have something else called gross return. Which is just plus the return. Returns can be positive or negative. They can never be more than -- never be less than minus %. In a limited liability economy that we live in, the law says that you cannot lose more than the money you put in, and that's going to be our assumption. So, return is between minus % and plus infinity. And gross return is always positive. It's between zero and infinity. Now what we're going to do – this is the primary thing that we want to study, because we are interested in investing and in making a return.

So, we want to do some evaluations of the success of an investment. So, I want to now talk about some basic statistical concepts that we can apply to returns and to other random variables as well. These on this slide are mostly concepts that you've already heard. This is expected value. This is the mathematical expectation of a random variable x, which could be the return, or the gross return, or something else, but we're going to substitute something else. We're going to substitute in what they are. So, the expectation of x, or the mean of x, mu sub x is another term for it, is the weighted sum of all possible values of x weighted by their probabilities. And the probabilities have to sum to. They're positive numbers, or zero or positive numbers, reflecting the likelihood of that random variable occurring, of that value of the random variable occurring. So, I have here -- there's an infinite number of possible values for x, and we have a probability for each one, and the expectation of x is that weighted sum of those, weighted by probabilities, of those possible values. This is for a discrete random variable that takes on only a finite, only a countable number of values. If it's a continuous random variable, if x is continuous, then the expectation of x is an integral of the probability density of x, times x dx. I'm just writing that down for you now for completeness. But I'm not going to explain or elaborate that. These two formulas here are measures of the central tendency of x, OK. It's essentially the average of x in the probability metric that we have up here. But this formula is something we use to estimate the expected value of x. This is called the mean or average, which you've learned long ago. If you have n observations on a random variable x, you can take the sum of the x observations, summation over

I equals to n, and then divide that by n. That's called the average. So, what I want to say is that this is the average, or the mean, or sample mean when you have a sample of n observations, which is an estimate of the expected value of x.
So, for example, if we're evaluating an investor who has invested money, you could get n observations, say an annual returns, and you can take an average of them. And that's the first and most obvious metric representing the success of the investments if x is the return, OK. People are always wanting to know, they're looking at someone who invests money, is this person a success or not? Well this is the first and most obvious measure. Let's see what that person did on average. You were investing for, let's say n equals, ten years, let's take the returns you made each year, add them up and divide by. And that gives us an average. I put this formula down as an alternative, because it's another -- this is called the geometric mean. This is the arithmetic mean. This is the geometric mean and you're probably not so familiar with that, because it's a different concept. The geometric mean, instead of adding your n observations, you multiply them together. You form a product of them. And then, instead of dividing by n, you take the nth root of the product. And so, that's a formula that's used to estimate the average return of a portfolio of investments, where we use gross return for x, not just the simple return. This geometric mean makes sense only when all the x's are non-negative. If you put in a negative value, you might get a negative product, and then, if you took the nth root of that, it could be an imaginary number, so let's forget that.
We're not going to apply this formula if there are any negative numbers. But it's often used, and I recommend its use, in evaluating investments. Because if you use gross return, it gives a better measure of the outcome of the investments. So, think of it this way. Suppose you invested money with some investment manager, and the guy said, I've done a wonderful job investing your money. I made % one year, I made % another year, oh, and by the way, I had one bad year with minus %, OK. So, what do you think of this investor? Well, if you think about it, if he made % one year, and then % another year, and then he lost everything. That dominates everything, right? If you have a minus % simple return, your gross return is , OK? So, if I plug in, if I put in a here to any of the x's, right, this product will be . Anything time is . And I take the nth root of zero, and what's that? It's . So, if there's ever a year in which the return is minus %, then the geometric mean is. That's a good discipline. This obviously doesn't make sense as a way to evaluate investment success. Are you with me on this? Because you care a lot, if the guy wipes you out. Whatever else is done after that doesn't matter. So, that's why we want to use the geometric return. These are all measures of central tendency. That is, what is the central result? Sometimes the investor had a good year, sometimes the investor had a bad year, but what was the typical or central value? So, these are a couple of measures of them. But we care about more than just about central tendency when evaluating risk. We have to do other things as well. And so, you want to talk about -- and this is very fundamental to finance. We have to talk about risk. What could be more fundamental than risk for finance? So, what we have here now is a measure of variability. And the upper equation here is something called variance. And it's equal to the weighted average of the x random variables [correction realizations of the x random variable] squared deviation from the mean, weighted by probabilities. OK? All it is, is the expectation of the square of the deviation from the mean. The mean is the centre value, and the deviations from the
mean are -- whether they're positive or negative, if you square them they become positive numbers. And so, that's called variance. So, for example, if x tends to be -- if the return tends to be plus or minus % from the mean return...
say the mean return for an investor is % a year, and it's plus or minus %, then you would see a lot of 's when you squared the deviation from the mean. And the variance would probably be. And

the standard deviation, which is -- the standard deviation is the square root of the variance. And it would also be. OK. This is a very simple concept. It's just the average squared deviation from the mean. The estimate of the variance, or the sample variance, is given by this equation. And it's s squared of x. It's just the sample mean. Take deviations of the variable from its sample mean. You have n observations, say someone has invested money for ten years, you take the average return for the ten years and that's x bar, and then you take all deviations from the mean and square them, and then divide by n. Some people divide by n minus , but I'm just trying to be very basic and simple here, so I'm not going to get into these ideas.

The next thing is covariance. We're getting through these concepts. They're very basic concepts. Covariance is a measure of how two different random variables move together. So, I have two different random variables, x and y. So, x is the return on, let's say, the IBM Corporation, and y is the return on General Motors Corporation. And I want to know, when IBM goes up, does General Motors go up or not? So, a measure of the co-movement of the two would be to take the deviation of x from its mean times the deviation of y from its mean, and take the average product of those. And that's called covariance. It's a positive number if, when x is high relative to its mean, y is high relative to its mean also. And it's a negative number if they tend to go in opposite directions. If GM tends to do well when IBM does poorly, then we have a negative covariance. Because, if one is above its mean, and the other is below its mean, the product is going to be a negative number. If we get a lot of negative products like that, it means that they tend to move opposite each other. And if they are unrelated to each other, then the covariance tends to be. And this is the core concept that I was talking about.

Some idea of unrelatedness underlies a lot of our thinking in risk. So, if x and y are independent, they're generated -- suppose IBM's business has just nothing at all to do with GM's businesses, they're so different. Then I'd say the covariance is probably. And then we can use that as a principle, which will underlie our later analysis. Correlation is a scaled covariance. And it's a measure of how much two variables move together. But it's scaled, so that it varies only over the range of minus to plus. So, the correlation between two random variables is their covariance divided by the product of their standard deviations. And you can show that that always ranges between minus and plus. So, if two variables have a plus correlation, that means they move exactly together. When one moves up %, the other one moves up % exactly. If they have a correlation of minus, it means the move exactly opposite each other. These things don't happen very often in finance, but in theory that's what happens. If they have a zero correlation, that means there's no tendency for them to move together at all. If two variables are independent, then their correlation should be zero. OK, the variance of the sum of two random variables is the variance of the first random variable, plus the variance of the second random variable, plus twice the covariance of the random variables. So, if the two random variables are independent of each other, then their covariance is zero, and then the variance of the sum is the sum of the variances. But that is not necessary. That's true if the random variables are independent, but we're going to see that breakdown of independence is the story of this lecture right now. We want to think about independence as mattering a lot. And it's a model, or a core idea, but when do we know that things are independent? OK, this is a plot. I was telling you earlier about the -- let me see, OK, let me just hold off on that a minute. Well, I'll tell you what that was. That was a plot of the stock market from to in the U.S. And I'm going to come back to that. These are the crises I was telling you about. This is the decline in the stock market from to or and this is the more recent decline from to. Those are the cumulative effects of a lot of little shocks that didn't happen all at once. It happened over years. And we want to think about the probability of those shocks occurring. And that's where I am going. But what I want to talk about is the core concept of independence leading to some basic principles of risk management. The crisis that we've seen here in the stock market is the accumulation of -- you see all these ups and downs in the stock market, and then all these ups and downs on the way up. There were relatively more downs in the period from and and there were relatively more ups from the period to. But how do we understand the cumulative effect of it, which is what matters? So, we have to have some kind of probability Model. The question immediately is, are these shocks that affected the stock market, are they independent, or are they somehow related to each other? And that is a core question that made it so difficult for us to understand how to deal with the potential of such a crisis, and why so many people got in trouble dealing with this crisis.

So, we had a big financial crisis in the United States in..., when there was a stock market crash that was bigger than any before in one day. We'll be talking about that. But after the crash, companies started to compute a measure of the risk to their company, which is called Value at Risk. I'll write it up like that. I capitalized the first and the last letter, so you'll know that I'm not -- this is not the same thing as variance. This is Value at Risk. And what companies would do after to try to measure the risk of their activities is to compute a number something like this. They would say, there's a % probability that we will lose $ million in a year. That's the kind of bottom line that Value at Risk calculations would make. And so, you need a probability Model to make these calculations. And so, you need probability theory in order to do that. Many companies had calculated Value at Risk numbers like this, and told their investors, we can't do too badly because there's no way that we could lose -- the probability is only % that we could lose $ million. And they'd have other numbers like this. But they were implicitly making assumptions about independence, or at least relative independence. And that's the concept I'm trying to emphasize here. It's a core concept in finance. And it's not one that is easy to be precise about. We have an intuitive idea that, you know -- we see the ups and downs on the stock market, and we notice them, and they all average out to something not too bad. The problem that brought us this crisis is that the Value at Risk calculations were too optimistic. Companies all over the world were estimating very small numbers here, relative to what actually happened. And that's a problem.

Appendix 9. Lecture 4 (AL4): Transcript
“The Economics of Climate Change”
Extract from the Lecture

Today we have a guest speaker Evan Mail. He spoke to you last year and I think it was clear from the student response that it was one of the most interesting and significant presentations. I love a number... a very interesting and significant presentation (unclear text) here we got a master's group, the energy and resource group which is a unique interdisciplinary group that works on sustainability issues. I and then he went on to the University (unclear text) in Sweden where he got a PHD. He is currently a scientist with the Berkeley Lawrence Berkeley National Lab where he works on energy efficiency issues, climate change impacts and on the insurance issues. He will be discussing today I think for many of us ... (unclear text) to discover that the insurance industry has anything to do with climate change.. ehh because we tend to think them in the context of the car crashes and ... maybe burning houses but in fact as you'll see there's a very significant connection, so I hope you all will join me and welcoming doctor Bill either send a pic. ...the Discovery Channel's doing a special on climate change with Tom Brokaw or something coming out later in the year. In your campus today interviewing about people on Climate Change so that's what this is about thanks for allowing them to come in the class ...and they’re very ...

they're very interested to hear that there was a classic climate change in the law school and so Am I so I'm gonna I'm gonna cover some other things I did last year ...

I continue to work on this topic it's been a what a 15-year quest for me now looking at the intersection between insurance and and climate change and I find it I find it really fascinating. I title the talk in most other parts I I give these these days and the main report that I write as an annual update from wrist to opportunity because a climate change is a is a a threat to challenge to the insurance industry as as I'll try to explain but it's also a source of opportunity and there's this amazing rafter up green insurance products that are coming out now products and services and activities more broadly in public policy on the part of insurers that address the climate change issue. So, there's a the risk and there's the opportunity and I'm gonna spent about half the time on on you telling those why insurance and climate change why why I to even put those two things together and I think just the language no risk management climate change is is just the kind of issue that I think needs to be approached. And risk management is what to talk about uncertainty and it's usually used as a as a way to kind of dog do concern or to say well let's wait on the sidelines to we need more but for insurers uncertainty really mean something very different. It means a they can stop doing business so they'd rather not so uncertainty whether its climate change for the health effects of cigarette smoking or whether or not a certain customers can get in a car accident. That's their business that's that's the environment that they always work and it doesn't mean paralysis that means uh okay analysis and in business activity so and risk management means understand the risk and and understanding uncertainties and then manage those downwards and so it's also very constructive mindset I think when it comes to what do you do about climate change. So, insurers are are the messengers insurers are 11 messenger climate change, they send a signal back to the economy back to society through higher insurance prices or ways that they adjust the terms of the availability of their product in response to what threatens as climate change. They're also integrators because they take risk from anywhere you can imagine right whether floods are washing cars away or fires are burning houses down hurricanes are blowing off over oil rigs or temperatures are raising malaria risk whatever the consequences of climate change may be they often will be manifesting in insurance losses and so insurers or an unusual example of how all those risks can be kind of cool that brought together and and hopefully managed so they they assess. And and hopefully help actually get in front of those problems but they're also vulnerable themselves and they don't have infinite well especially after the last week with (unclear text).They also can't just take any risk that comes along to their selective about risk and and they also partially fly blind on this issue as as you see with climate change on any issue you look at all the ideal data that might be there aren't there and insurers have. But like the rest of us know you click date on something you think is important then once you realize something's important you wish you had been collecting data on it for 10 years before that net very much happens here there's a lot that they don't know they don't have a good baseline and that's problematic cause on the capital ...e watch change occur a but also their part of the solution and again that's that's kinda the second part of my my message here. So so what is it insurance is the biggest industry on the planet up four trillion dollars up premium revenue last year. That’s true 4000 billion dollars a premium revenue around the world depending on how you define an industry. This this really makes it the world's largest industry it's it's even with today's oil prices up right twice as big as the oil industry and it's everywhere and this just shows the breakdown of premiums in the industrialized world in blue. So called mature markets and emerging markets which is what we would think was the developing world, and while only 10 or 12 percent is in the developing world that's almost half a trillion dollars a premium have a new route Africa China India and growing not surprisingly... two or three times the rate up insurance premiums in places like this because these markets are pretty saturated so one of the backdrop issues is that claiming that what happens in developing world vis-a-vis climate change is particularly impactful on insurers because that's where their growth is as we're very much in our future is as those economies develop they're buying insurance you know in greater greater numbers and so with if whether it's again malaria typhoons if there are new hazards coming up that serves as a you know it can curtail the growth insurance market maybe even think insurers making think twice about whether or not to do business there. That would not be a good thing I mean... as consumers we all experience insurers as sketchy bottom-feeding you know companies very often but you know in its highest form and ... for from a macroeconomic level insurance is really a critical part of the cement. Have an economy you need insurance order to have financing and peace of mind and you need insurance. They have investment and other sorts and so and meanwhile the developing world is particularly vulnerable to climate changes, you know, you've heard and we'll be hearing in this class there they don't have building codes they don't have you know preparedness for disasters they're they're very dependent on the agricultural sector you know you had a talk here on agriculture think about how independent china is on their cultural sector India our Indonesia. So there at one hand politically vulnerable in (unclear text) way and underdeveloped in insurance and so this is one of things that really keeps me up at night about insurance and climate change is how this will all play out the developing world for here. These are just some interesting charts from Munich which is the best data (unclear text) on insurance losses and natural catastrophe that they've been running a database okay since 1950. Their fuller dataset starts in 1980 but it's still almost three decades have data and just put the US in context little bit so clockwise from the upper left I'm they have 17,000 natural hazard events in their database over the time while 15 percent of those took place in the US only one percent of the fatalities not surprisingly but there it is you know clear number one percent of that mortality from natural disasters occurs in the US in just a few more per cent in the industrialized world it's mostly these you know that the vulnerability is a thousand times higher in the developing world to the same event so you know somehow Hurricane Katrina took a thousand lives you know. You could take that same (unclear text) could take a million lives if it happened in the wrong place in the developing world are now we start to look at economic losses in the lower left corner 1.8 trillion dollars have economic losses over this time frame a third of which or in the United States and if the insured losses two-thirds in the United States the US today well the developing world is kind of where the action will be tomorrow today very much of this is is in the US insurers feel the pain when storm losses in...

Appendix 10. Lecture 5 (AL5): Transcript
"Game Theory"

Extract from the lecture

Professor Ben Polak: So this is Game Theory Economics 159. If you're here for art history, you're either in the wrong room or stay anyway, maybe this is the right room; but this is Game Theory, okay. You should have four handouts; everyone should have four handouts. There is a legal release form--we'll talk about it in a minute--about the videoing. There is a syllabus, which is a preliminary syllabus: it's also online. And there are two games labelled Game 1 and Game 2. Can I get you all to look at Game 1 and start thinking about it? And while you're thinking about it, I am hoping you can multitask a bit. I'll describe a bit about the class and we'll get a bit of admin under our belts. But please try and look at--somebody's not looking at it, because they're using it as a fan here--so look at Game 1 and fill out that form for me, okay? So while you're filling that out, let me tell you a little bit about what we're going to be doing here. So what is Game Theory? Game Theory is a method of studying strategic situations. So what's a strategic situation?

Well let's start off with what's not a strategic situation. In your Economics - in your Intro Economics class in 115 or 110, you saw some pretty good examples of situations that were not strategic. You saw firms working in perfect competition. Firms in perfect competition are price takers: they don't particularly have to worry about the actions of their competitors. You also saw firms that were monopolists and monopolists don't have any competitors to worry about, so that's not a particularly strategic situation. They're not price takers but they take the demand curve. Is this looking familiar for some of you who can remember doing 115 last year or maybe two years ago for some of you? Everything in between is strategic. So everything that constitutes imperfect competition is a strategic setting. Think about the motor industry, the motor car industry. Ford has to worry about what GM is doing and what Toyota is doing, and for the moment at least what Chrysler is doing but perhaps not for long. So there's a small number of firms and their actions affect each other. So for a literal definition of what strategic means: it's a setting where the outcomes that affect you depend on actions, not just on your own actions, but on actions of others. All right, that's as much as I'm going to say for preview right now, we're going to come back and see plenty of this over the course of the next semester. So what I want to do is get on to where this applies. It obviously applies in Economics, but it also applies in politics, and in fact, this class will count as a Political Science class if you're a Political Science major. You should go check with the DUS in Political Science. It count - Game Theory is very important in law these days. So for those of you--for the half of you--that are going to end up in law school, this is pretty good training. Game Theory is also used in biology and towards the middle of the semester we're actually going to see some examples of Game Theory as applied to evolution. And not surprisingly, Game Theory applies to sport. So let's talk about a bit of admin. How are you doing on filling out those games? Everyone managing to multitask: filling in Game 1? Keep writing. I want to get some admin out of the way and I want to start by getting out of the way what is obviously the elephant in the room. Some of you will have noticed that there's a camera crew here, okay. So as some of you probably know, Yale is undergoing an open education project and they're videoing several classes, and the idea of this, is to make educational materials available beyond the walls of Yale. In fact, on the web, internationally, so people in places, maybe places in the U.S. or places miles away, maybe in Timbuktu or whatever, who find it difficult to get educational materials from the local university or whatever, can watch certain lectures from Yale on the web. Some of you would have been in classes that do that before. What's going to different about this class is that you're going to be participating in it. The way we teach this class is we're going to play games, we're going to have discussions, we're going to talk among the class, and you're going to be learning from each other, and I want you to help people watching at home to be able to learn too. And that means you're going to be on film, at the very least on mike. So how's that going to work? Around the room are three T.A.s holding mikes. Let me show you where they are: one here, one here, and one here. When I ask for classroom discussions, I'm going to have one of the T.A.s go to you with a microphone much like in "Donahue" or something, okay. At certain times, you're going to be seen on film, so the camera is actually going to come around and point in your direction. Now I really want this to happen. I had to argue for this to happen, cause I really feel that this class isn't about me. I'm part of the class obviously, but it's about you teaching each other and participating. But there's a catch, the catch is, that that means you have to sign that legal release form. So you'll see that you have in front of you a legal release form, you have to be able to sign it, and what that says is that we can use you being shown in class. Think of this as a bad hair day release form. All right, you can't sue Yale

later if you had a bad hair day. For those of you who are on the run from the FBI, your Visa has run out, or you're sitting next to your ex-girlfriend, now would be a good time to put a paper bag over your head. All right, now just to get you used to the idea, in every class we're going to have I think the same two people, so Jude is the cameraman; why don't you all wave to Jude: this is Jude okay. And Wes is our audio guy: this is Wes. And I will try and remember not to include Jude and Wes in the classroom discussions, but you should be aware that they're there.
Now, if this is making you nervous, if it's any consolation, it's making me very nervous. So, all right, we'll try and make this class work as smoothly as we can, allowing for this extra thing. Let me just say, no one's making any money off this--at least I'm hoping these guys are being paid--but me and the T.A.s are not being paid. The aim of this, that I think is a good aim, it's an educational project, and I'm hoping you'll help us with it. The one difference it is going to mean, is that at times I might hold some of the discussions for the class, coming down into this part of the room, here, to make it a little easier for Jude. All right, how are we doing now on filling out those forms? Has everyone filled in their strategy for the first game? Not yet. Okay, let's go on doing a bit more admin. The thing you mostly care about I'm guessing, is the grades. All right, so how is the grade going to work for this class? 30% of the class will be on problem sets, 30% of the grade; 30% on the mid-term, and 40% on the final; so 30/30/40. The mid-term will be held in class on October 17th; that is also in your syllabus. Please don't anybody tell me late - any time after today you didn't know when the mid-term was and therefore it clashes with 17 different things. The mid-term is on October 17th, which is a Wednesday, in class. All right, the problem sets: there will be roughly ten problem sets and I'll talk about them more later on when I hand them out. The first one will go out on Monday but it will be due ten days later. Roughly speaking they'll be every week. The grade distribution: all right, so this is the rough grade distribution. Roughly speaking, a sixth of the class are going to end up with A's, a sixth are going to end up with A-, a sixth are going to end up with B+, a sixth are going to end up with B, sixth are going to end up with B-, and the remaining sixth, if I added that up right, are going to end up with what I guess we're now calling the presidential grade, is that right? That's not literally true. I'm going to squeeze it a bit, I'm going to curve it a bit, so actually slightly fewer than a sixth will get straight A's, and fewer than a sixth will get C's and below. We'll squeeze the middle to make them be more B's. One thing I can guarantee from past experience in this class, is that the median grade will be a B+. The median will fall somewhere in the B+'s. Just as forewarning for people who have forgotten what a median is, that means half of you—not approximately half, it means exactly half of you--will be getting something like B+ and below and half will get something like B+ and above. Now, how are you doing in filling in the forms? Everyone filled them in yet? Surely must be pretty close to getting everyone filled in. All right, so last things to talk about before I actually collect them in - textbooks. There are textbooks for this class. The main textbook is this one, Dutta's book Strategy and Games. If you want a slightly tougher book, more rigorous book, try Joel Watson's book, Strategies. Both of those books are available at the bookstore. But I want to warn everybody ahead of time, I will not be following the textbook. I regard these books as safety nets. If you don't understand something that happened in class, you want to reinforce an idea that came up in class, then you should read the relevant chapters in the book and the syllabus will tell you which chapters to read for each class, or for each week of class, all right. But I will not be following these books religiously at all. In fact, they're just there as back up. In addition, I strongly recommend people read, Thinking Strategically. This is good bedtime reading. Do any of you suffer from insomnia? It's very good bedtime reading if you suffer from insomnia. It's a good book and what's more there's going to be a new edition of this book this year and Norton have allowed us to get advance copies of it. So if you don't buy this

book this week, I may be able to make the advance copy of the new edition available for some of you next week. I'm not taking a cut on that either, all right, there's no money changing hands. All right, sections are on the syllabus sign up - sorry on the website, sign up as usual. Put yourself down on the wait list if you don't get into the section you want. You probably will get into the section you want once we're done. All right, now we must be done with the forms. Are we done with the forms? All right, so why don't we send the T.A.s, with or without mikes, up and down the aisles and collect in your Game #1; not Game #2, just Game #1.

Appendix 11. Lecture 7 (AL7): Transcript
"Entrepreneurial Opportunities-Babson College's Brush"

Extract from the lecture

Hello everyone. I'm here to talk about opportunity creation and discovering opportunities are an essential part of what burial plot action because opportunities needs to be identified or created they need to be acted on and they need to be shaped and it's very important for opportunities to be an essential part of any entrepreneurial endeavour. So, what is an opportunity? Opportunity is a favourable set of circumstances where you can provide a solution or a new way of doing things. Now there's many different forms of opportunities. An opportunity can be a new markets, it can be a new product or service, it can be a new distribution channel, a new way of doing things. What causes opportunity? Opportunities are caused by many different circumstances. They can be a disruptive technology. We think about the internet that was a disruptive technology that allowed us to have many new possibilities for business opportunities and solutions to problems. Another cause of opportunities is industrial changes, for example deregulation opened up all sorts of possibilities in the airline industry. Another cause if an opportunity would be trends social trends for example. Right now there's lots of concern for obesity and so this is opening up many new possibilities for how we solve health problems and encourage people to be more healthy through exercise or nutriceuticals. Another cause of an opportunity might be socio demographic trends for example when you have large waves of immigration into an area that opens up new opportunities for either serving that immigrant population or perhaps their the innovators in creating new opportunities for new business ideas. So there's different ways to either identify or discover opportunities discovery assumes that there's an opportunity out there and that you can go out and identify that opportunity. It means that you're actively generating new ideas for new ways of solving a problem this four different methods that we teach at Babson College. The first method is very activists called active discovery and you employ a systematic search to do this. No systematic search means that you were building upon your competencies and your accomplishments to search in a very narrow knowledge channel. An example I like to think about is if you have the experience and you really understand the game of golf but you're also a salesperson so how can you combine those two competencies and apply them to the golf? See, your search might mean that you would be looking and supplier channels you might be looking of (unclear text) at golf club distributors or you might actually be looking at golf equipment or sales. See you apply your search for new opportunities either for a job for new product ideas for new market ideas for new business ideas in that narrow channel. The second possibility is called passive search in this is where you are alert opportunities but you're scanning a broader environment to make you serve objective information. Just search across the environment for new possibilities. One example I like to think about is the world map for dot com which allows you to map the entire world according to different dimensions. One of those dimensions, for example, is toy experts. Another one might be energy consumption and the third one might be water resources. View map the world according to water resources you can see that some countries are actually bloated with water resources and other countries are consumers of water resources for those countries that have very few water resources but need water the might be opportunities for how you provide access to those individuals. Those companies those people in those countries is that would be passage search it. The third possibility is I degeneration. Most of us are familiar with this because this is what we call a brainstorming technique. We're trying to maximize different features a product trying to minimize or maybe you're even combining features to create a new opportunity your business idea one example would be Barnes Noble. We used to have bookstores that we would go to when we would buy the book and then go to the coffee shop and now we've combined those two services into one particular kind of business. So combining features is a way of doing that in idea generation important about idea generation is that you're not supposed to pass judgment was but to create as many ideas as possible and then you narrow them down. The last possibility is called design thinking. This uses ethnographic approach, it is where you would go out into the environment you would observe certain situations, our work situations and one of the situations. Many of us have been standing in the line at the airport waiting to check in and if you observe what's going on in the different activities that are going on you may come up with new ideas for doing things efficiently. The same is true when you go through security at the airport those lines are very long so anything in the air travel experience if you just observe you might come up with new possibilities for how you could solve some of those problems and so I talked about four different ways to either discover or create opportunities and most important these are learnable skills and competencies and this is what we teach at Babson College…

Appendix 12. Lecture 9 (AL9): Transcript
“Objectives of Tourism Development”

Extract from the lecture

Hello, there this is a brief recap on the objects is a tourism developments. This is fully responsible tourism units at Leeds City College. You already know that tourism is one of the fastest growing sectors in the world creating employment and income to destinations in the developed and the developing world. Creating jobs and revenue are important economic objectives where tourism development but also political environmental and socio-cultural objectives play their part as well is important for the humans. You understand that toys and development is not always a smooth and trouble-free process, that sometimes conflicting objectives amongst the people investing in tourism developers, for example, looking for any tourism development to take place as quickly as possible. (Unclear text) and fast return on their investment local people on the other hand and community groups will want to ensure that any development does not cause environmental social and cultural problems. On the screen printed yet you see a really good diagram which splits into four categories the objectives that toys and development you'll see don't spit into political environmental social cultural and economic. I was going quickly went through very very quickly so you the main points about this political factors include revenue. I did some profile revenues. The old is one because does it says coming to our country generates income for the government's which can be invested you know the further tourism developments another project is a in the economy, for example, education, health and went well to services. Tracing identity is all about us. Markets and domestic tourism and how they can help create and maintain national regional identity and profile is when the country's exposure (unclear text) or an area on the (unclear word) scale can be enhanced for example when the Olympic Games are held in a country like (unclear word) well said no bustling no. This creates a huge increase in to its visitors after the games were held okay that moving on to environmental. An example would be environmental regeneration source visiting American stability improvements to the natural and and built environments such as beach cleaning, walking cycle routes except the habitat and heritage preservation would be something lined some gyms (unclear word) relieve some mountain areas where these are very fragile habitats and is very important that tourism doesn't damage these and then there's environmental education. This is where local tourists visiting the area can stimulate improvements to nature and environment by going on guided walks visiting visitor centres... let's move on to sociocultural to truly responsible tourism development. It must work in harmony with local people and their traditions. This whole is good to both developed and developing nations promoting cultural understanding and maintain into true traditions must be a prime objective over all tourism development projects tourism. Remember also has the ability to promote total understanding between people from different nations with diverse traditions and religious beliefs and funny. Let's look at its economic objectives ... tourism tourism can't create employment the contracts review to an area and recirculated to the local economy by the multiplier effects it could increase foreign currency earnings and it can contribute to economic regeneration. If planned and managed effectively tourism has the ability to generate significant amounts of foreign currency earnings.

Appendix 13. Lecture 10 (AL 10): Transcript
"Tourism in Asia"

Extract from the lecture

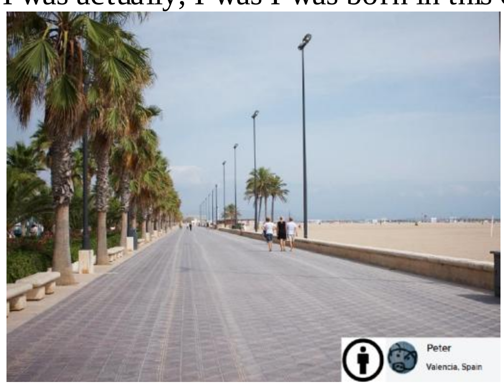
Hi everyone. This is Danny. This is the section number two for international tourism Asia and owns the other to continue on with our discussion from last week's video and class on tourism in Egypt and types of tourism. So let's get your worksheet ready and watch, listen and complete before the next class as well as the home. Please after watching this video and reviewing notes ... so let's begin ar... in this video lecture I'm going to give you a pop quiz a pop quiz on Napoli Asia okay and then ar...let's revisit the five cases the tourism experience as well talk about features ... and then we're going to talk a little bit about (unclear text) ... I have part cue up to you my Japanese Japan story and then questions tasks ... so let's get let's begin with the Napa Egypt ways okay so on your wiki you handsome on questions in some blanks to label ar.. countries that you see on in math that I was show you on-screen you've seen before and a number will be labelled so right the country mean on your worksheet for number one number two 3 up key September 8 and then choose the city that is in country and then also choose the eastern region the country see with it country city belongs to you in Union City questions so throughout this video own after the quiz in going through similar things Manhattan pause the video and work on some the activities like to give and then come back and finish the video okay so it shouldn't take you probably more than 45 minutes to finish the whole. So, let's begin with the MapQuest country. Number one - what country is this? Don't worry about (unclear text) you can go back and check your spelling like ok a country in which you country number three to number four can't remember fine down there confused want to the islands versus there and number seven ...

Appendix 14. Lecture 11(AL11):Transcript

The present lecture, recorded and transcribed in St-Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance, can serve as an excellent example of good structure (according to move analysis, use of micro and macro-markers) interactive lecturing style, lecturer's attention to students' needs and successful organization of information in the slides that has a beneficial effect on lecture comprehension and note-taking.

26 students – International group
October, 19, 2015
Course: Development and Marketing of Services
Lecture 1
<u>Marketing of Services</u>

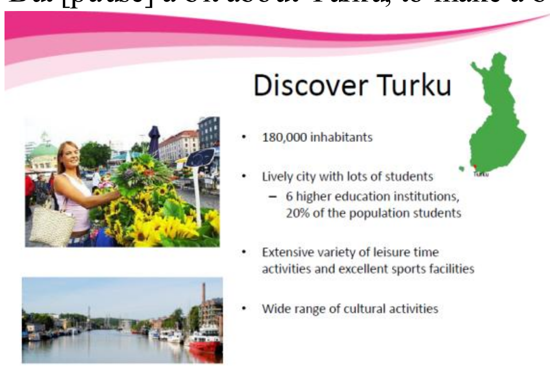
Lecturer: Good morning, everyone.
Students: Good morning. Good morning.
Lecturer: Today we start our course on Development of marketing and services. Ok? So, as you already know [pause] we will have classes throughout the week [pause], six days, four hours a day. [pause] Ahh, and, well, my name is X, I hope you have noticed it yet, I am from Spain…and I was actually, I was I was born in this city (points at the slide)



Does anybody know?
Student 1 (S1): Alejandro.
Lecturer: Looks like. Very close. It is very close to Alejandro, it is Valencia, so I am originally from there. I don't live there anymore. For the past five years I actually live in here, Isn't it a bit different, is it? And this is Turku… in… in Finland. Ok? (Points at the slide)

So, do I have anyone from Turku here? [pause] Ok. Is there anyone from Tampere? Ok. Good, good, good. So… this is where I live. Ok. And, I really like knowing my students' names. Ok. So, every class in the beginning I will say your names up loud to check the attendance. Rather

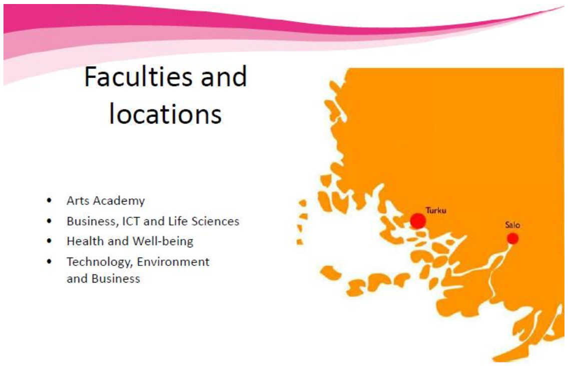
than signing an attendance list I will do it …will do it that way. Because I really wanna learn your names I always… [unclear phrase] when I start classes… I want to learn your names, but I bother remembering that…Ah… I will do my best… so let's see in the next six days if I am able to remember all. Ok? And, by the way, I might pronounce your names, so I would be very glad if you stop me and tell that I wrongly pronounced that… because otherwise I will keep calling you later so, Kelly, Ann, Konstantin… [calls students' names]. I need to keep notes here how to pronounce ha-ha… [continues calling students' names] …Ok…[students respond that they are present]… Miku, Moris… [calls all students' names, checks if he pronounces them correctly] Am I missing someone? Did I call all your names? Ok. Then I have all of you in the list.
Ok, let's get started, again just to remind you, that my name is X. You can all call me by my first name. You don't need to call me Mr. X or Professor X. You can call me Alberto. I'm more than pleased if you call me by my first name.
But [pause] a bit about Turku, to make a bit of promotion… ah…



so as I said this is where I live …this small city… ah in Finland, it is 18000 inhabitants, which is not that small for Finland, it's the fifth biggest or the sixth …. I don't know the sixth biggest city in Finland. Ok. So. We have six higher educational institutions. We have two universities and four universities of applied sciences and it's a pretty interesting city, because 20% people living there … there are students and that's a lot you see a lot of students around. There are an extensive variety of leisure time activities and excellent work facilities, information from the city of Turku, so plenty of things to do. If you are interested you can just pop on a train and you will be there in five hours and a half… not that… not that long or you can take a bus.
Ahh …a bit about myself. I always start my classes by giving a bit of a background, so you know why I am the one teaching this course…so I already told you I live in Turku, I work in Turku University of Applied Sciences… but how did I get there? A bit of a story…Ok? I first did my first bachelor in Computer science …Ah in Spain it was a three years… a three year bachelor degree. And when I was about to finish my second year I realized I didn't like it at all (emphasizes with his voice)… but I thought: well, you know it's only one more year and then you have a bachelor. So I finished my bachelor in Computer science and then I decided to get Master's degree in Engineering, so, two more years, so I moved to Engineering, so… surprise, after one year in the Master's degree I felt like I didn't like it either a... but still I thought: why not, I'm gonna to finish it and then I have a Master's degree, so I did that, so there I was a young and virtual – one Bachelor, one Master, I didn't like them …ah… but anyway it was a good thing because thanks to this Master I started working in Quality Management … and after working in Quality Management for a few years I moved to Innovation and New Product Development. And I realized this is where I like. This is what I wanna do. So, then I did the second Master's degree in Innovation Management and Business Process Development …ah… that's still what I do: I

teach Innovation Management, I teach Product Development, Service Development and marketing of those new products and services… ah, so when I was about to finish my Master's, this what I liked, Ok? So I got the opportunity to move to Finland to finish my Master's degree there, so one thing to turn over and all of a sudden I ended up teaching at this University of Applied Sciences. So well that means teaching, well, my classes…So, what do I do at the moment? I am very interested in service and science, on service innovation, ah…also on marketing of these services. I do quite a lot on sustainable development; I have some projects in South America, in Peru and in Nepal. Well, not that much in Nepal any more after the earthquake. And I am also doing my PHD at the same time. Ok. In Economics. So, a bit strange, I started in Computer science, moved to engineering and Innovation management and now it's PHD in Economics. You can imagine how my brain works. Ok, It's a bit messy. But, a bit about the university in which I work,

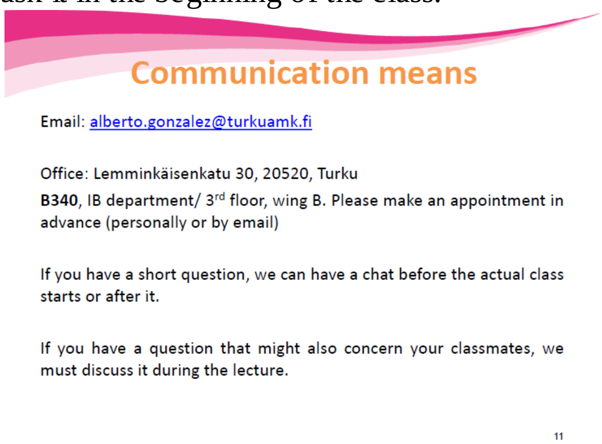
We have nearly 10000 students, we have students from all over the world. Usually when I teach in my home university where I do … I have groups of 50 – 60 students and I have on average of 30 different nationalities. So I have people from Russia, from Finland, from Nepal, from China, from Hong Kong, from Germany, from Kenya, all over the world [pause] So, I quite used to have a … [pause] (cannot find the word, changes the structure) this type of group with different background, same as in here. We have over 30 bachelor degrees, some of them in English, included the ones in which I teach, 750 employees, well, we have quite many [unclear text] products, you know. And we have 5 campuses in TUAS, well, 4 faculties, 5 campuses…I teach in the Business, ICT and Life Sciences faculty.



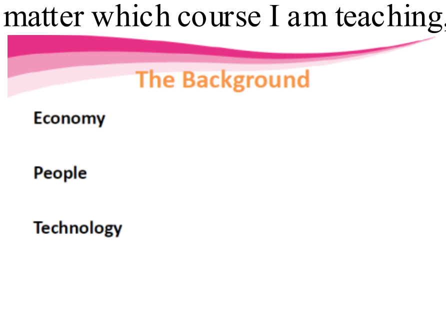
So, very big faculty, as you can get by the name. We do things in business, things with ICT, and also Chemical Engineering. So, very diverse… Ah, more specifically, I teach in here (points to the place in the slide) in the International Business Degree programme.

These are some of my students from Vietnam and Somalia. So, this is what I do. I would be over very soon with this institutional information. Why I am telling all this to you? Because we have many foreign students, international degree students.

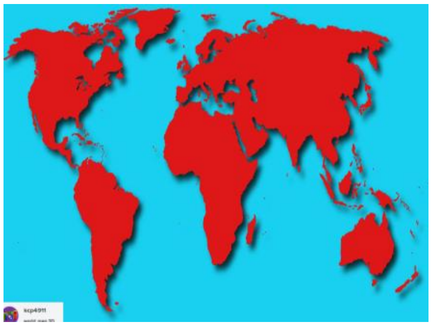
So, if you don't know where to go after Russia, and are interested to come to Turku, you are more than welcome. The things are like: No, thank you. (Laughing) But, really, do you know, why you are more than welcome? You can also contact me later on if you want more information. Ok? All right I've done this. [unclear text] So, I think this is more practical for you. If you want to contact me, then there is my email …………… . Please notice that my surname is written with the [z] in the end. I am telling you this because people usually tend to write it with [s], because of the pronunciation […………………………]. So, you are free to send me an email if you have any questions. If you have a question I really encourage you to ask it to me before or after the class. You don't need to write me an email, I will be here the whole week, so if you have something that is unclear, let me know before or after the class. But haven't I said that if you have a question that might regard, or might concern your classmates, it will be better if you ask it in the beginning of the class.



So, before I start you can just come to me and say: Alberto, I have a question, and then I give the answer to you and everyone listens. Ok? If you want to come to Turku to visit me that's my address, I am promoting Turku, very well. Ah… that's my address, you will get all the slideshows, so you can check this later on. Ok? Any questions this far about the university, my background, my personal life? Ok. Excellent. So, what I usually do when I start my courses, no matter which course I am teaching, the first class is what I call "the background"



The background isn't related directly to service development, but it's a background… it is common to every single course, every single field. And this background…ah… it consists of three things. Ok? People, economy and technology. So, I will go to them, again that is very- very at the micro level. So I always need this information, because I think it's important. For later on. Because you will be developing services in my course and you need to keep this in mind. Ok? By the way, my all courses are all about interaction. And I really don't enjoy, you know talking for one hour and a half. I bet you don't enjoy this either, so I am hoping to have a discussion in all my classes. So, it's very common with me to start my classes with some questions.



So, I have the map of the world in here and I would like to ask you at the very general level to look at the trends happening in the world at the moment. And I am talking about really big macro trends. What's going on in the world? Which things are happening in the world in the really general level?
[pause]
Thanks Moritz, just a minute.
So, it will be important if you raise your hand and I tell you, please do talk, if you say your name out loud. So, it helps me remember it.
Student 1 (S1): Moritz. And I think that at the macro level the refugee crisis.
Lecturer: Very good. Refugee crisis. It's good that you said refugee, that you didn't say immigrants. Common mistakes, so to say.
Student 2 (S2): Alex. I think the aging population in the Western world.
Lecturer: So, people are getting older and older in the Western world. Thank you, Alex. Riko.
Student 3 (S3): Riko. War in Syria.
Lecturer: War in Syria. I have a question regarding your name. Does it have two or one [k]?
S3: Only one [k]
Lecturer: Ok, yes. I saw it with two k in the list, then I heard the way you pronounce it, and now I am very confused. (Laughing). Ok, very good. Thank you.
S3: Yes.
L: What else?
Student 4: Karli. Climate change.
Lecturer: Climate change. Thank you, Karli. What else? [pause] Ok, very good, very good.
So, although if we take a look on a more [unclear text] on the economic level, we might say… I have this map in here …

What's strange about this map? Do you see anything strange with it?
Lecturer: Konstantin, please.
Student 5 (S5): As a European it is very strange for me, because the perspective is different.
Lecturer: Really good. Because for Europeans it looks very strange for us. You look at this map and think: this is very wrong. You know. Europe is not in the middle. How static. How is it then even possible? Well, there is a reason for that… the maps they started… if you think about how

the maps started like. They were drawn from Europe. So, that's the whole reason. But there is no logical reason why Europe should be in the centre… And… I think this is … what I am trying to say … is that it also relates to economy. We might start looking at the world from a different perspective. May be in this case, I think Japan, it is a Japanese map. That's why the market is like that. So, we might want to take a look at the world from different points of view.

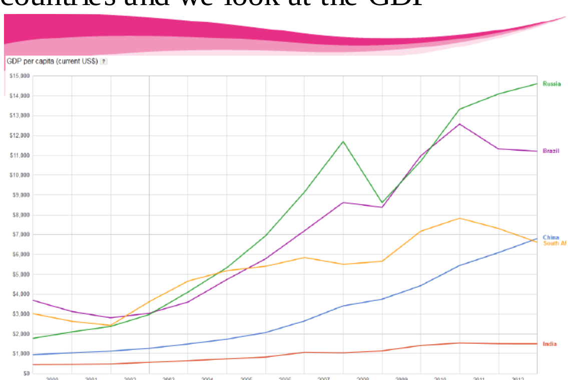
How many of you have heard about this? I hope many of you. BRICS countries are Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. We've been talking about BRICS countries I don't even know for how many years – 10 years? 9? 7 years? Ah, well, you all know why are they important? Why are the BRICS countries important? Why are people talking about BRICS all the time? What's with them? Why are they interesting?

Student 6 (S6): Economical potential.

Lecturer: Economical potential (hesitation in the voice). What else? Please.

S6: Huan. They are also developing countries.

Lecturer: Developing countries. So, usually when you hear, when we talk about BRICS countries, they are growing, the economy is growing. There is a lot of economic potential, they are developing countries. But, if we take a look at some statistics, well, now we are in Russia, we will come back to Russia in a minute. That is only until 2012 that if you take a look at the BRICS countries and we look at the GDP



… we can argue whether this is the best way to measure the economy or not. But if you look at GDP, what you can see already in 2010 some countries they were already going none, some of the BRICS countries. So if you take a look at South Africa end of 2010 already going down. If you take a look at Brazil, already going down. Russia is still growing. So, talking about BRICS countries, as countries that are growing it's a bit misleading. I am not saying ...

Appendix 15. Examples of the Layout of the Corpus Findings Extracted from Academic Lectures Using the Programme WordSmith Tools 6,0

ACTUALLY									
N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent. #	Sent. Pos.	Para. Pos.	Sect. Pos.	File
1	but it's become rigid ..and actually if you had one of those			398	7	51%	9%	9%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
2	things that have emerged are actually bigger, nicer or more			1 929	49	72%	43%	43%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
3	thought about that before, but actually, the metric caused the			1 549	39	66%	35%	35%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
4	we got a big order here, but actually need this silicon			954	25	22%	21%	21%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
5	and what're they doing actually rarely come up in man			2 475	68	58%	56%	56%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
6	difference. So, these guys, actually don't have to measure			1 498	39	6%	34%	34%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
7	you don't see that there is actually a can there that what			1 840	47	75%	41%	41%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
8	me point in the past this was actually quite important. And			526	7	99%	12%	12%	lecture 1, transcript.doc

COULD								
N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent. #	Sent. Pos.	Para. Pos.	
1	order came in …the customer could not talk to a human. It			1 238	29	93%	28%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
2	if they do those things they could price it 15% lower. But			1 307	33	76%	29%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
3	but they decided that they could do it if when the order			1 227	29	78%	28%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
4	historically and you know if you could just make the colour a l			973	25	30%	22%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
MAY								
N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent. #	Sent. Pos.	Para. Pos.	
1	by gross margin percentage may be of this phenomenon that			1 567	39	87%	35%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
SHOULD								
N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent. #	Sent. Pos.	Para. Pos.	
1	decided this is the way it should be done. And now the wo			541	8	88%	12%	lecture 1, transcript.doc
2	And nobody decided that we should live life this way, but			2 885	78	27%	65%	lecture 1, transcript.doc