

**THE ORAL ACADEMIC PRESENTATION IN A  
HUNGARIAN EFL SETTING:  
A PRAGMATIC AND LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS**

PhD Dissertation

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## **Abstract**

The present research focuses on a single genre of academic spoken discourse, the oral academic presentation (OAP), which, as opposed to academic written discourse genres, has so far received unduly scarce attention in the ‘English as a foreign language’ (EFL) setting in Hungary. The investigation carried out at a prestigious university in Hungary was centred around three major sets of objectives, conducted by three main groups of research instruments and analytical procedures: a survey study to explore a variety of academic speech events, with special attention to the OAP, in terms of frequency and importance as perceived by participating students and tutors, a discourse analytical study aimed at describing the structural, discourse socialisation-related and interactive features of recorded OAPs delivered by participating students, as well as a study of contexts and needs intended to produce a qualitative overview of course documents and interview data obtained from participating students and tutors. Based on the empirical outcomes of the project, it may be suggested that the OAP as a fundamental instrument in the process of academic discourse socialisation plays a considerable role in the professional initiation and maturation of Hungarian university students of English, evident in the rhetorical and linguistic strategies employed by student presenters. As one of the implications of the research, it is argued that existing frameworks for describing OAPs should be partially revised to account for additional rhetorical functions and the concomitant linguistic exponents. At the same time, it is hoped that insights afforded by the close analysis of academic discourse and narrative data will help further clarify students’ needs set against the expectations and norms of the discourse community.

## Tartalmi összefoglaló

A jelen kutatás a tudományos szóbeli diskurzus egy konkrét műfajával, a szóbeli tudományos előadással (Oral Academic Presentation; OAP) foglalkozik. A szóbeli tudományos előadás, szemben a tudományos írásbeliség műfajaival, mindeztidáig méltánytalanul kevés figyelmet kapott az „angol mint idegen nyelv” (EFL) magyarországi kontextusában. A vizsgálatot, mely egy jelentős magyarországi egyetem angol nyelv és irodalom szakán zajlott, három fő célkitűzéscsoport határozta meg. Ezek a célkitűzések jól tükröződnek a vizsgálatban használt három fő kutatási eszköz és elemzési eljárás megválasztásában: a különféle tudományos beszédesemények, különösen az OAP-nek, a kutatásban résztvevő hallgatók és oktatók által deklarált gyakoriságának és vélt fontosságának megállapítását célzó statisztikai felmérés, a kutatásban résztvevő hallgatók által tartott OAP-k hangfelvételeinek szerkezeti, diskurzus-szocializációs és interakciós vonásainak jellemzésére irányuló szövegnyelvészeti vizsgálat, valamint a résztvevő hallgatókkal és oktatókkal készített interjúanyagok, illetve a kapcsolódó kurzusokon használt dokumentumok kvalitatív áttekintését elősegítő kontextus- és szükségletelemzés. A kutatási projekt empirikus eredményei alapján arra a következtetésre lehet jutni, hogy az OAP, a tudományos diskurzus-szocializációs folyamat alapvető eszközeként, a magyarországi angol szakos egyetemi hallgatók szakmai beavatásában és kiteljesedésében jelentős szerepet játszik, mely jól tetten érhető a prezentációkat tartó hallgatók által alkalmazott retorikai és nyelvi megoldásokban. A kutatás egyik fő üzenete az, hogy az újonnan megfigyelt retorikai funkciók és a hozzájuk tartozó nyelvi megoldások figyelembevételével, a jelenlegi OAP-modellek bizonyos fokig átdolgozásra szorulnak. Ugyanakkor, a tudományos diskurzusadatokból, illetve a kapcsolódó narratívákból származó adatokból nyert megfigyelések remélhetőleg lehetővé teszik a hallgatók szükségleteinek precízebb feltárását a diskurzusközösség elvárásainak és normáinak függvényében.

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*In honour of two early linguists, educators and translators, St. Cyril and Methodius, the Apostles of the Slavs and Co-patron Saints of Europe*

# **1. Introduction**

## **1.1. The background to investigating OAPs**

Whereas academic writing has been in the spot-light of discourse analytical interest for decades now, academic speaking has received comparatively less attention. This disparity in terms of empirical coverage may be explained by the widely held view that discourse features in a written text are more easily grasped quantitatively, and a large written corpus allows for more generalisable results by virtue of the arithmetic accountability such a databank is endowed with. The lopsided distribution of empirically founded findings must be responsible for the much deplored mismatch between the wide application of impressive schemes for testing oral skills in academic settings and the relatively simplistic descriptors that these schemes are hinged on. This discrepancy is particularly true about academic tasks centred on oral communication in the Hungarian EFL context. Nowadays, when English is increasingly promoted as a medium of instruction at a number of universities in Hungary, the absence of thorough and coherent descriptions of academic speech events is felt ever more acutely, especially when it comes to addressing the students' formal speaking needs both in and beyond the classroom.

## **1.2. The aims and rationale of the research**

Based on the experience of the author having taught academic skills to students of English language and literature at a prestigious Hungarian university for seven years, students often come to and leave the classroom with a farrago of ideas about spoken academic genres, unable to clarify notions about English and Hungarian conventions for



themselves. Therefore, the underlying aim of this dissertation research was to produce a detailed description of one academic oral genre which accompanies students throughout their university studies and even beyond the classroom: the oral academic presentation (OAP). Embedded in the context of a sociocultural understanding of the activity as a primary instrument of discourse socialisation, championed by Duff (1995), Willet (1995) and Morita (2000), informed by the needs analysis-centred approach of Ferris and Tagg (1996), influenced by a genre-based perspective advocated by Biber (1988) and Csomay (2006), as well as combining considerations foregrounded by a relatively young offshoot of the contrastive rhetoric school, discourse identity research, the present undertaking could not but assume an empirical orientation that takes account of the complexities constituted by the institutional setting, the variety of discourse types and the agents concerned. In other words, the present project was motivated by the author's intention to gain insights into an educational discourse setting where students not only strive to obtain a degree at the end of their studies but also explore, inquire, make discoveries, adapt, mature and are initiated into a community that will define their professional future to varying degrees. Thus, while showing due respect to a previously little researched context in terms of avoiding any preconceptions or presupposition that would have imposed constraints on the study which could have hindered unbiased observation and full appreciation of the complexities of the phenomena under investigation, the Dissertation Project adopted a treatment pivoted around three main focal points:

1. a preliminary survey study focusing on the research setting in terms of the various speech events including their quantifiable properties;

2. a discourse analytical study delving into the discourse socialisation-related, structural and linguistic traits of OAPs 'at the chalk-face';
3. a context and needs analysis study drawing on the insights supplied by the chief agents of the research setting: students and course tutors.

Consequently, although the current research might best characterised as a predominantly heuristic and qualitative exploratory study, it utilised a range of research instruments such as statistical surveys, voice recordings, interviews and document reviews.

### **1.3. A brief overview of the structure of the dissertation**

In accordance with the background and the aims of the project presented above, the dissertation contains a detailed report on the research project structured in a manner that is envisaged to ensure due representation and reader-friendly discussion of its most essential circumstances. Hence, in conformance to academic traditions in the publication of empirical inquiries, the present report is divided into four major parts: Overview of literature, Method, and Results and discussion.

The chapter on the related literature discusses theoretical and empirical antecedents of the present research project, with a marked emphasis on language socialisation, interaction analysis, needs analysis as well as issue of genre identification and discourse identity in academic discourse. In the method section a review of the research questions, the research design, the instruments and procedures of data collection, and the analytical frameworks is presented. Finally, the chapter relating the empirical results and offering a discussion of the research findings is divided into four major parts: survey data on

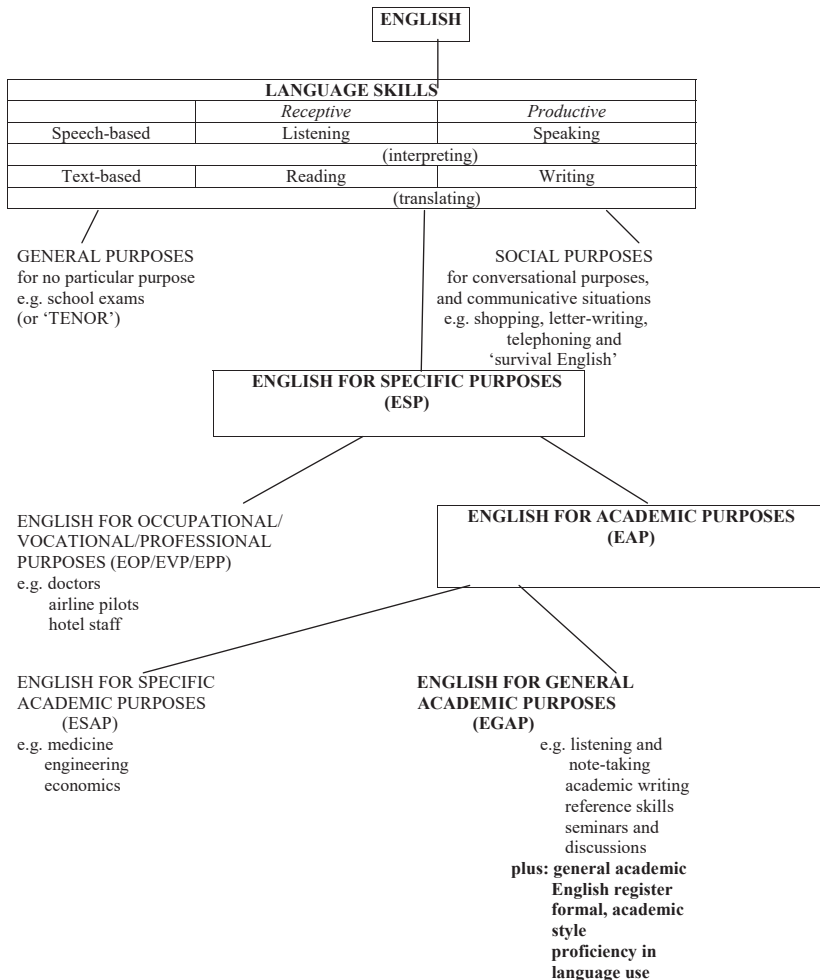
speech events; detailed analysis and interpretation of the structural, rhetorical, discourse socialisation-related and interactive features of the recorded OAPs; document analysis of course syllabi and handouts; analysis of interview data.

## **2. Overview of literature**

As has been suggested in Chapter 1, academic oral discourse is a relatively under-researched area within discourse analysis. This chapter is intended to provide a succinct outline of theoretical works and empirical investigations to signal the perimeters of the territory of scholarly inquiries the present dissertation is meant to make a contribution to. In accordance with this principal epistemological orientation, Chapter 2 is divided into two major units: the first section is devoted to the most significant theoretical findings of fields relevant for the observational and analytical considerations of the present research, and the second section focuses on some selected empirical undertakings that are related to the research topic of the present project from the point of view of research foci, as well as research methodology. Preceding these two reviews, a brief section on the definitions and relative place of English for Academic Purposes is supplied to furnish the reader with some insights found in the literature on the educational setting the present dissertation research and many theoretical and empirical works discussed below are most directly related to.

### **2.1. English for Academic Purposes**

In his comprehensive work on English for Academic purposes, Jordan (1997) defines the concept EAP by making references to three key components of the field: communication skills, study purposes and formal educational systems (p. 1). In a brief overview of the settings in which this special branch of ESP may occur, Jordan points to the multifarious nature of EAP in terms of geographical, curricular and classroom contexts (p. 2). As *Figure 1 (Purposes of teaching English, based on Jordan, 1997)* demonstrates, there are multiple links between EAP, study skills and ESP.



A model of the purposes of teaching English in the USA (Johns, 1991):

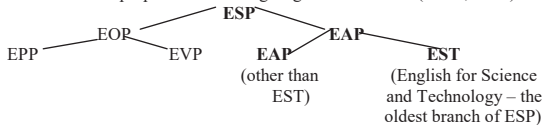


Figure 1: Purposes of teaching English (based on Jordan, 1997).

In Jordan's (1997) framework EAP may be divided into two subsections: 'common core' and 'subject specific' (p. 4). This classification corresponds to Blue's (1988(a)) distinction between 'English for General Academic Purposes' (EGAP) and 'English for Specific Academic Purposes' (ESAP). The bulk of the former category is traditionally primarily associated with a marked focus on study skills. However, as Jordan argues, EAP is characterised by some unique additional features: 'These additional features can be summarised as *a general academic English register, incorporating a formal, academic style, with proficiency in the language use*' (p. 5) (italics in the original).

In further exploring the relationships between EAP and study skills, Jordan (1997) points out that a lot of students who are not native speakers of English have some advanced L1 study skills (p. 5). He broadly determines students' EAP needs in two consecutive steps. The first one may be formulated as developing their general study skills to match the subject related requirements, in harmony with the improvement of language proficiency. The second stage is about learning the 'academic code'. The main skills that the various study situations include are organising study time efficiently, logical thinking, accuracy, memory and the use of computers. Throughout the two-stage process, skills are acquired in an integrated way (see *Figure 2: Categorisation of study skills*). Jordan explains the interactive nature of the process of skill acquisition by highlighting multiple strands between various receptive and productive skills:

The receptive skills are seen as necessary inputs to the productive skills, with each receptive skill having its place with each productive skill, depending on the appropriate study situation or activity. Note-taking is seen as an adjunct to listening or reading (i.e. receptive skills), but also as a lead-in to, or link with, the productive skills of speaking or writing, e.g. listening to a lecture, taking notes, and then making use of the notes to make comments in a seminar or in writing an essay (pp. 6-7).

STUDY SKILLS			
RECEPTIVE SKILLS		PRODUCTIVE SKILLS	
LECTURE SEMINAR TUTORIAL	LISTENING (AND NOTE-TAKING) Understanding and discrimination: 1 main v. secondary ideas 2 relationship between ideas 3 fact v. opinion 4 idea v. example and so on PLUS use of conventional abbreviations	SEMINEAR TUTORIAL	SPEAKING (with(out) notes) a) Initiating (e.g. presenting a seminar paper): 1 introduce and conclude 2 present body of material, i.e. describe, define, exemplify, classify, assume, hypothesise, compare, advise, express caution, summarise, paraphrase, etc. b) Initiating and responding (e.g. as a member of a group contributing to a seminar discussion): Many of the items in 2 above PLUS: formulate questions, agree, disagree, interrupt, apologise, etc.
			ESSAY REPORT DISSERTATION THESIS EXAM PRIVATE STUDY
PRIVATE STUDY	READING (AND NOTE-TAKING) a) Intensive b) Skimming c) Scanning Understanding and discrimination: 1 main v. secondary ideas 2 relationship between ideas 3 fact v. opinion 4 idea v. example and so on PLUS use of conventional abbreviations		

Figure 2: Categorisation of study skills (based on Jordan, 1997).

As, out of the wide of array academic skills discussed by Jordan (1997), the research focus of the present dissertation may most naturally be associated with speaking skills, it seems fitting for the purpose of the literature review section to give an overview of Jordan's treatment of this productive skill. Jordan deems it to be indispensable to clarify

the underlying aims of one interactive type of academic speech event, namely group discussion, from the point of view of course planning and material design. Adopting Beard and Hartley's (1984) conceptualisation of the most characteristic objectives of group discussion, Jordan gives a list of the specific goals of group discussions featuring promoting critical thinking, helping students in problem solving, providing practice opportunities for oral presentations, reflecting on students' work, broadening study scope beyond topics covered in the curriculum and surveying related literature (pp. 10-11).

It is interesting to note that Jordan (1997) identifies students' reluctance to participate as the most severe problem that tutors face in conducting group discussions in their classes. Among the possible reasons the author adduces to account for the is problematic phenomenon, one finds shyness, lack of self-confidence, unwillingness to initiate, poor knowledge of the subject, inappropriate choice of discussion topic, excessively large classrooms, unfavourable seating arrangements and dominant speakers taking the floor too often (p. 11).

Although, as Jordan (1997) remarks, group discussions typically occur in seminars, it is hard to produce a uniform description of seminars, as various disciplines observe different academic traditions in this respect (p. 195). He grasps the most essential purposes of a seminar by giving a synthesis of previous research (Johns and Johns, 1977; Johns, 1978, Furneaux, Locke, Robinson & Tonkyn, 1991) and proposes that a seminar seems to fulfil two major functions: students asking questions, and receiving as well as sharing new information. Jordan quotes Furneaux et al.'s (1991) identification of four major seminar types to illustrate the varied but, at the same time, overlapping characteristics of seminars. These include: student group work, lesson type, discussion type and presentation type (p. 196). Jordan also reports that the studies on seminars



alluded to above are not confined to merely observing language difficulties but examine language use in its complexity and explore the role of participants in constructing socio-academic parameters. Touching upon some of the challenges seminar students must tackle, based on Anderson (1991), Jordan mentions difficulties derived from the publicness of the performance, the necessity to react decisively and without prior thinking, the expectation to retrieve related knowledge, the need to present logically sequenced arguments and the fear of possible performance-based evaluation (p. 197).

### **2.3. The theoretical background to the dissertation research**

In presenting the major theoretical foundations informing the current study, the cited works will be arranged under six main headings, reflecting four perspectives that yield a six-dimensional approach to the phenomena under investigation. Tracing the historical development of scholarly and empirical interest in academic oracy, the psychological and sociocultural roots of the study of academic oral communication will be highlighted. Subsequently, the field of interaction analysis will be looked at with special emphasis on its applications to English for Academic Purposes settings. This preview will be followed by the presentation of studies motivated by considerations related to the problem of needs analysis in teaching and assessing academic oracy. The fourth perspective will involve the issue of genre demarcation. Following considerations of controversies of determining genre systems and memberships, some culturally and psychologically controversial questions stemming from the notion of multiple identities in academic discourse will be addressed in order to allow for some informed reflections on the struggle students with a Hungarian sociocultural background go through in an educational setting influenced by Anglo-Saxon academic conventions. Although the studies to be discussed with reference to this fourth aspect are mostly related to written

academic discourse, the findings and implications they provide are easily transferable to the context of the corresponding issues in spoken academic genres. Finally, with an eye to ensuring due coverage of an issue relatively more remotely related to the immediate empirical concerns of the present research project, but definitely necessitated by the potential cross-cultural implications of the study, contrastive rhetoric will also be devoted a separate section.

### **2.3.1. The language socialisation perspective**

Although studies researching various aspects of academic oracy are relatively recent, the connection between this novel area of inquiry and previous traditions in the domain of the psychological and sociocultural approach to language socialisation is well established. Drawing on the Vygotskian conceptualisation of ‘activity’, Duff (1995) and Willet (1995) discussed the process of language socialisation as a result of lasting exposure to language mediated social activities. Besides this general treatment of second and foreign language socialisation, a substantial body of lately published reports has emerged focusing exclusively on the academic scene. These studies, however, deal only with written genres (Atkinson and Ramanathan, 1995; Currie, 1998; Johns, 1997; Leki, 1995; Prior, 1995; Riazi, 1997).

Clennel (1999), in his report on a classroom research project carried out at an Australian university, links success in oral discourse to pragmatic awareness. Preoccupied with the challenges faced by non-native speaking university students in terms of communicating with their peers in academic settings, he promotes the idea of exposing learners to authentic interaction and enabling them to interpret the socio-pragmatic functions of spoken academic discourse (pp. 83-91).

Carrying the concept of **problematisation strategy** developed by Barton (1993), Mei (2006) examines in what ways novice essay writers take up a contrastive stance on particular issues in argumentative writing. As the author points out, undergraduate essays may serve as the context for internalising academic discourse and the conventions associated with the discourse community as student writers are compelled to feel that they write for a particular target audience (p. 329). In her study, Mei employs a model called **Appraisal Framework**, originally developed by Martin (2000), based on three main systems: **attitude**, i.e. valuing aesthetic and behavioural quality, **graduation**, i.e. setting the intensity of valuations and **engagement**, i.e. ‘dialogic space afforded for the negation of these values’ (p. 332). Out of these three systems, Mei (2006) gives prominence to **engagement** in her analysis as the best indicator of a writer’s efficiency in terms of adopting a contrastive viewpoint in argumentation:

In the creation of dialogic space, the different sources of contrastive views may or may not be indicated. The proper attribution of source ideas is not always apparent to the learner writer. The *engagement* system highlights the source of attribution and the element of writer responsibility in contributing to the evaluative quality of texts. Also, the evaluative expression of levels of alignment with or distance from source ideas may be effected through a range of options beyond modal verbs that are frequently presented in textbooks. The *engagement* system thus highlights the more recent perception of the role of attribution and citation verbs as instrumental to expressing evaluative meaning (p. 347).

Hansen (2000), in presenting a longitudinal study of EAP writing skills development tracing a graduate student’s hardships with the frequently conflicting expectations of two sequential ESP composition courses and those of her main subject, addresses the question to what extent students should be prepared to become members of a particular discourse community. Hansen identifies three main sources of conflict: audience, purpose and content knowledge (p. 34). On the basis of empirical findings, she argues

that embracing these three aspects by ESL/EAP students is made difficult by problems around the transferability of skills taught in ESL/EAP courses to content courses, as well as by the fact that most often non-professional tutors are in charge of teaching writing skills intended to be applied later on in professional contexts and with a real professional audience in mind (pp. 45-47). Hansen even goes as far as to questioning the relevance of the teaching of academic genres in a rigorously focused way to international students, solely on audience-related grounds:

Although they are writing for a specialist audience, the context of this writing task is within an ESL course, and the reader and grader of the students' work is an ESL instructor. In writing for this nonspecialist audience, students must simplify the content, to some extent. In addition, they cannot rely on shared information, which they would be able to if they were really writing for their own fields or on field-specific shortcuts because their ESL instructor may not understand them. In fact, it appears that to resolve these conflicts, a student may choose to write for the instructor, concentrating on rhetorical and grammatical conventions to receive a passing grade. This is clearly writing for the instructor's discourse community and expectations, rather than the students', which seriously questions the validity of EAP courses (pp. 47-48).

In the same vein, Curry (2004), adopting an angle peculiar to critical discourse analysis, advocates a link between academic literacy instruction and disciplinary content (p. 52). She clearly champions a teaching framework that takes a holistic approach to instructions, with a profound analysis of students' background in terms of culture, language, education, as well as further academic and occupational objectives. In a way sidelining the time-honoured practice of grouping international students into various EAP classes based on their proficiency levels in English, Curry, borrowing Bourdieu's (1998) concept of **cultural capital**, chooses to ascribe a dominant role to students' previous experience with educational settings. Alluding to Brammer's (2002) findings, Curry suggests that, irrespective of the medium of instruction as it seems, students with prior experience in academic settings tend to function in Anglo-Saxon institutions of

higher education with considerable dexterity. Although such antecedents in a student's life may turn out to be critical especially at the initial stages of their college studies in an Anglo-Saxon environment, the author does not fail to point out that the explicit teaching of English literacy skills (particularly, reading academic texts analytically, note-taking, using dictionaries, consulting library resources, compiling bibliographies and the avoidance of plagiarism) is indispensable. Contrary to previous understandings of the transferability of academic skills across disciplines, Curry asserts that 'different disciplines have specific rhetorical conventions, activities, communicative needs and genres' (p. 58).

Apparently motivated by considerations and recognitions about the process of academic discourse socialisation similar to those cited above but placing the spotlight on oral skills in the EAP classroom, Morita (2000) emphasises the diverse utilities of research focusing oral language use in academic settings. She links the relevance of such studies to the presumed needs of students in higher education in coping with various socioculturally prescribed demands:

In their daily academic life, university students, particularly graduate students, are normally required to interact orally in various contexts. Their performance and participation in oral activities, such as class presentations and discussions, meetings with professors, conference presentations, and thesis oral defenses, are important not only for the successful completion of their courses and programs but also for their disciplinary enculturation and apprenticeship into academic discourse and cultures (p. 280).

She also goes on to stress the general intellectual values and academic skills fostered by the academic milieu of graduate students in terms of *critical thinking, the ability to relate issues to one's own field, the ability to work both on one's own and in collaboration balanced against competition and, finally, the dissolution of dichotomous relationship between theory and practice* (pp. 285-286) (bolding mine).

In her study she singles out one widely practised occurrence of academic communication, the oral presentation, associating it with one aspect of 'academic apprenticeship' represented by its natural link with real world academic presentations. The academic oral presentation as an instrument of discourse socialisation is shown to reflect the speaker's communication of an epistemic stance, his or her strategies to engage the audience and the efforts to promote social collaboration.

In line with the sociocultural viewpoint governing Morita's (1995) study, a wide range of research projects have probed into the socially formative nature of the process of gaining membership in the academic community through oral activities and engagements. As one of the most prominent features of the symbiotic and complementary nature of student and instructor activities, conversation has been in the focus of a number of studies. Benwell and Stokoe (2002), employing a CA based investigation of tutor-led and peer group discussion tasks in university tutorials, identified three characteristics pointing to interpersonal and metadiscursive functions in tutors' opening three-part sequences, students' discursive resistance to the formation of academic or intellectual identities and the complex and contradictory process of negotiating interactional power, the latter being indicative of an array of social functions comprising 'attention to the 'face' concerns of the group, categories of membership and orientation to broader cultural trends' (pp. 429-453).

Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992) emphasise the fundamental differences between naturally occurring conversation and institutional conversation by drawing attention to native and non-native closings aimed at closing academic advising sessions. They point out that the chief difference between native and non-native closings lies in the latter employing less felicitous verbal and pragmatic devices, often intended as clumsy attempts to reopen the conversation (pp. 93-114).

The empirical examination of a formally less organised and less central feature of academic oracy was the major theme of Strodt-Lopez's (1991) paper. Focusing on asides used by professors at university lectures, she identifies the phenomenon in question as local interruptions or momentary deviations from topicality meant to enhance 'global semiotic endurance and pragmatic consistency' with the express aim of inducing a 'variety of interpretive frames' in students (p. 117). As a potential ramification of this research focus, Strodt-Lopez recommends further inquiries with the purpose of describing multiple-strand discourse structures 'where one component of the discourse provides running commentary on another' (p. 117). It seems, as the author argues, that the overt implications of such a line of investigation would likely call for the revision of materials used for teaching academic listening.

Another study with a close pedagogical focus that accentuates the sociocultural dimensions of academic oral communication is Baxter's (2000) description of the instructional aspects of speaking in public. Situating her investigation in the context of teaching and testing of academic oracy in Britain, she traces a paradigm shift involving the emergence of the 'public voice' defined as an increasing preference for formal, expository talk as opposed to the earlier model of the collaborative speaker. She summarises the chief differences between the two models as the former emphasising a positive, constructive and co-operative attitude meant to foster a mutually satisfying conclusion by the end of the group discussion, and the latter as stressing the demand for sounding persuasive, academically influential and as formal as possible in the presentation, anticipation and rebuttal of arguments. Within the framework of the latter model she also makes an attempt to distinguish between two major types of speakers: the dominant speaker and the effective speaker along the following lines:

Whereas the ‘dominant’ speaker is concerned *to make a vocal impact on their audience by minimising the chance of other voices being heard*, an ‘effective’ speaker is one who is able *to make a vocal impact on their audience which may maximise the chance of a dynamic interplay with other voices*. (p. 29)

As a response to the question as to what constitutes effective and efficacious speech in public contexts, she proposes an answer that summarises her findings from a classroom-research-based case study worded in five motto-like phrases: **speaking out, case-making skills, parallel-processing** (referring to the speaker’s resilience in astutely switching between ‘different styles of engagement’), **being the agent provocateur** (referring to the speaker’s flair and readiness for defying the seemingly obvious) and **humour** (pp. 30-32) (bolding mine). Regarding the immediate instructional message that her model of the effective speaker conveys, Baxter supplies three ‘teaching tips’ targeting students’ emotional security, the benefits of competitiveness, and meta-analytical considerations meant to refine students’ cognisance of context- and situation-based power relations.

Although embedded in a remarkably different research environment from that of Baxter’s (2000) not only in terms of institutional background and research population but also with regard to the main analytical interest, Dyer and Keller-Cohen (2000) present a strikingly similar picture of the sociolinguistic issues underlying the notion of the effective speaker. The two researchers’ analysis of narratives produced by university lecturers as an embodiment of the discursive construction of professional self suggests that the major concern for instructors in trying to communicate with their audiences in lecture halls is to poise between ‘expressions of expertise and equality’, verbalised in the alternation between ‘self-aggrandizement’ and ‘self-mockery’ (pp. 283-304).

Whereas Baxter (2000) in her treatment of academic oracy solely drew on data from an English as a first language setting, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) examined the problem of learning the rules of academic conversation from a native speaker versus



non-native speaker perspective. Their longitudinal study targeting two speech acts, *suggestions* and *rejections* yielded the conclusion that by the end of the study non-native subjects displayed a higher degree of resemblance to native speakers in using more suggestions and fewer rejections. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford also point out that non-native speakers continued to lag behind native speakers in the use of mitigators and showed a tendency to use aggravators unlike their native counterparts.

With respect to the similarities in the pragmatic development of L1 and L2 speakers, Kasper and Schmidt (1996) observe that most studies focusing on academically pertinent speech acts, such as requests, suggestions, invitations, refusals, expressions of disagreement, corrections, complaints, apologies, expressions of gratitude, compliments and indirect answers, seem to suggest that both L1 and L2 speakers tend to move from direct speech acts based on contextualised cues towards indirect speech acts in their developmental process (p. 156-157). Touching upon the unresolved question of L1 influence on L2 pragmatic development, Kasper and Schmidt make the following remark:

(...) studies have not always been clear what is transferred: learners' assessment of the social situation and the contextual variables in it, their assessment of whether it is appropriate to carry out a certain speech act, the strategies by which a linguistic act can be realised, the linguistic forms by which such strategies can be implemented, or the appropriateness of particular matches between the social situation and strategy choice. (pp. 156-167)

In an attempt to have a closer look at the process of acquisitional pragmatics, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) further pursues the issue of L2 pragmatic development by addressing the interlanguage aspect of interlanguage pragmatics. She apparently shares Kasper and Schmidt's (1996) opinion suggesting a strong link between the description of interlanguage pragmatics and cross-cultural pragmatics. The new element in Bardovi-Harlig's discussion, however, is that she proposes a research agenda which, drawing on

the empirically founded tenet that pragmatic competence and grammatical competence are interdependent, foregrounds the notion of the interlanguage of interlanguage pragmatics in response to its neglect it has been treated with in L2 pragmatics research (p. 677). Partly owing to the fact that interlanguage pragmatics has largely been investigated from a comparative angle contrasting native and non-native speakers' practices in choosing particular speech acts and ignoring other variables characterising the speakers involved, Bardovi-Harlig deplors the nearly total absence of acquisitional approaches in interlanguage pragmatics (cf. Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Kasper, 1992; Kerekcs, 1992; Robinson, 1992; Svanes, 1992; Trosborg, 1995; Siegal, 1994). On the one hand, spurred by the recognition of this rather lopsided empirical attitude to interlanguage pragmatics and, on the other hand, by acknowledging the merits of Kasper and Schmidt's (1996) article in changing the status quo, Bardovi-Harlig outlines a research agenda which takes account of changes in the L2 pragmatic system and influences thereon. The author argues that native and non-native speech act production may be shown to differ in four principal ways: choice of speech acts, the use of semantic formulas, the content of the encoded proposition and diversity of linguistic form (pp. 681-682). Thus, the resulting research framework that Bardovi-Harlig draws up is defined by the exploration of the relation of grammatical and pragmatic development, with the former category based on a broad understating of grammar including notions such as the tense-mood-aspect system, prosody, morphology, clausal complexity, as well as lexical and formulaic elements (pp. 686-702). The empirical and instructional relevance of this research agenda is convincingly reinforced in Bardovi-Harlig (2002), explicating the importance of studying the relationship between grammatical and pragmatic development with a marked emphasis on the speaker

making a pragmatic choice, which is influenced or even constrained by his or her linguistic competence:

By examining a learner's level of linguistic and grammatical development we ask what linguistic devices are available to that learner. Because pragmatic value is derived from the *choice* of available linguistic devices to signal relationships among speakers, if a learner has only one linguistic form available to him or her, then the use of a particular form signals nothing pragmatically within the learner's linguistic system itself. It only reveals the learner's level of interlanguage development. Thus, the study of acquisition within the framework of interlanguage pragmatics is necessary because it is the study of the development of alternatives. [...] Within interlanguage pragmatics research, the study of grammatical development is not only about form, it is about how form develops in contexts and the choice among alternatives that new forms present to learners. It is about the acquisition of pragmatics (pp. 28-29).

Parallel to the scholarly interest in describing pragmatic development, or rather complementing it, there is a vast body of literature discussing the pedagogical implications of the findings of pragmatics research and the teachability of pragmatic proficiency. Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan and Reynolds (1991), besides commending the empirical value of the descriptions of a wide array of speech acts (cf. Wofson, 1988; Holmes and Brown, 1987; Scotton and Bernsten, 1988; Borkin and Reinhart, 1978; Eisenstein and Bodman, 1986), hasten to stress that descriptions are only an initial step from the point of view of aiding the process of the development of pragmatic competence (pp. 4-5). They also opine that the teacher's main job in this respect is not so much about the overt teaching of speech acts but more about raising awareness of the pragmatic functions that are found in a particular language. Bardovi-Harlig et al. suggest a four step procedure for incorporating pragmatic aspects into the language classroom: **1. identification of the speech act; 2. data collection and description; 3. text and materials evaluation; 4. development of new materials.** This

four-step model is expanded to include a fifth element, which is meant to exhort professionals to share the results of the preceding four steps (p. 13).

House (1996) takes the notion of pragmatic fluency development in EFL one step further. She does not only put forward recommendations for teaching but, by applying a experimental research design, contrasts the outcomes of two EFL communication courses, one furnishing participants with explicit metapragmatic information and one depriving them of such information (p. 225). Harking back to Lyons's (1968) definition of conversational routines, House establishes a set of criteria that must be met in order for an interactant's performance to qualify as pragmatically fluent as judged by several native speaker assessors:

1. Use of routinized pragmatic phenomena focused on in the instructional treatment, namely gambits, discourse strategies, and speech acts [...].
2. Ability to initiate topics and topic changes using appropriate routines.
3. Ability to "carry weight" in a conversation manifest in substantive comments
4. Ability to show appropriate uptaking, as well as replying and responding behavior [...], anticipation of end-of-turns as evident in latching, overlapping, and the use of appropriate "second pair parts" in routinized reciprocation.
5. Appropriate rate of speech, types of filled and unfilled pauses, and frequency and function of repairs (p. 229).

Using these five main criteria in her longitudinal research setting involving treatment for one of the two groups of participants, the author observes that negative pragmatic transfer from the subjects' first language was more prominent in the control group. This basic observation, further refined by some other empirical evidence, leads House to a conclusion that, on the one hand, stresses that indispensability of metapragmatic information in offsetting negative pragmatic transfer from L1, and, on the other hand,

cautions that metapragmatic information alone does not automatically boost students' responding behaviour (pp. 249-250).

In line with the research focus of House (1996), Bardovi-Harlig (2001) also targets the teachability of pragmatic competence, basing her discussion on a pool of empirical evidence substantiating the assumption that native and non-native speakers of a given language have different systems of pragmatics (p. 13). In a sense, foreshadowing the juxtaposition of grammatical and pragmatic competence, emphasised by Bardovi-Harlig (2002) (see above), the author suggests that, although in most cases there seems to be a straightforward correlation between high grammatical proficiency and pragmatic success, describing non-native students as generally clumsy from a pragmatics point of view would be preposterous (pp. 13-14). By the same token, she asserts that non-native students as a group tend to be pragmatically less astute than their native counterparts, a phenomenon that is best observed in institutional settings. Bardovi-Harlig discusses the differences between learner and native speaker pragmatics along the lines of four categories: choice of speech acts, semantic formula, content and form. As for the circumstances that determine the pragmatic competence of learners, Bardovi-Harlig cites availability of input, influence of instruction, proficiency, length of exposure and transfer (pp. 24-29). As the bottom-line of the thorough, error-analysis-like, investigation of each of these areas, the author formulates the conclusion that insufficient or inadequate instruction is likely to entail pragmatically infelicitous patterns of behaviour in learners. Although she sounds sceptical as to whether all differences between native and non-native pragmatic performance need to be taken care of by instruction, Bardovi-Harlig is ready to blame incomplete and delusive input in pedagogical materials for the divergence between L1 and L2 pragmatics (p. 30). Regarding the manner of equipping learners with the necessary means and the

information which enable them to approximate native speaker level socio-pragmatic competence, Bardovi-Harlig leaves room for individual freedom and further research, tough:

The adoption of sociocultural rules as one's own in an L2 may have to be an individual decision. Providing the information so that a learner can make that choice is a pedagogical decision. The most appropriate and effective ways to deliver this information and the manner in which learners integrate such information into a developing interlanguage remain empirical questions (p. 32).

One can find another in-depth treatment of pragmatic input in academic settings in Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996), embedded in the context of individual case studies. As one of the main conclusions of the paper, it is suggested that naturally occurring input does not typically ensure due cognizance of form (p. 189). As the two authors postulate, attention to form must be secured from external sources. They also tentatively posit that the academic setting itself, thanks to its segmented institutionalised encounters, greatly facilitates learners' L2 pragmatic development, as opposed to colloquial everyday exchanges. At the same time, they highlight the importance of observation and imitation in the process of pragmatic acquisition in academic environments (pp. 185-186).

Whereas Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) narrow down on such speech events characteristic of academic spoken discourse that not only encourage but require learner interaction for successful functioning in the given communicative situation, Cohen (1997) explores a different set of speech events in the academic setting where instruction is primarily intended to improve participants' reading and writing skills rather than their communicative abilities (p. 134). Taking a self-retrospective look at his own performance in an academic course in Japanese, Cohen articulates four principles that might constrain one's pragmatic development in an academic setting:

1. If the classroom is reserved for the teaching and use of the more formal register (the superordinate norm), then learners will not have sufficient exposure to the more informal or vernacular to be able to use it effectively when called upon to do so. Native-speaking teachers, like other native speakers, may assume that everyone already knows the vernacular norm, that everyone picks it up, because that is what they did and what people do in the outside world [...].
2. In the best of classroom situations, learners are still in a rarefied world, a world of language usage rather than use [...]. In such an environment, the best performers may indeed be those who monitor their language behavior for accuracy to a lesser or greater extent. This may not be so much the case in the real world where fluency of speech may be more important than accuracy.
3. In the social context of a classroom, the teacher is in charge, always to be performed for, always correcting and grading the learners on form and accuracy, and not necessarily paying attention to or interested in the content that the learners transmit or want to transmit. Since for the most part, the teacher is not really engaged in what the learners did yesterday, they could make it up and the teacher would be perfectly happy, as long as the output were grammatical, used the expected structures, and had appropriate vocabulary.
4. When their vernacular (or automatized) rule system is small, learners have to produce everything by paying attention to form, memorizing, monitoring, using retrieval strategies such as mnemonic devices, and so forth. This need to access linguistic forms takes longer than the rapid accessing of an automatized rule system and can fall apart under pressure (pp. 134-135).

Setting these four principles against the backdrop of the academic environment where the author spent a considerable period of time, Cohen (1997) deems case studies highly expedient from the point of view of discovering how certain speech acts are used by the individual, especially in cases where there is limited exposure to out-of-class language usage (pp. 156-157).

The decisive role of the quality of pragmatically relevant input is also taken up in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998). In their report on a project exploring the subject of language learners ability to recognise pragmatic and grammatical violations in academic settings, the two researchers start from the tenet that mismatches between learners' and native speakers' pragmatic competence may be imputed to differences in the

'availability of input and the salience of relevant linguistic features in the input from the point of view of the learner' (p. 234). This assertion is corroborated and, at the same time, further refined by their evidence implying that in a comparison of EFL learners and ESL learners the former group identified grammatical errors as more serious than grammatical errors, the latter group ranked pragmatic errors as more graver than grammatical errors. This finding buttresses a framework encompassing theories on the evolution of pragmatic competence the focal point of which has been identified as the learner's awareness by Kasper (1996) and apperceived input by Gass (1997) (quoted in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998)).

Pragmatic transfer also emerges in Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) discussion of ESL refusals. They claim that pragmatic transfer is mainly 'the transfer of L1 sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other aspects of L2 conversation' (p. 56). In a contrastive analysis of refusals by Japanese speaking Japanese, Japanese speaking English and Americans speaking English Beebe et al. found evidence of negative transfer in the Japanese-English speaking group in the order, frequency and content of semantic formulas (p. 58).

Rejection as a domain necessitating the use of status preserving strategies is spoken academic discourse was also investigated by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1991). In their article centred around a research project involving native and non-native university students they conclude that the most often used semantic formula for rejections for both groups is explanation, while the two groups exhibit divergence regarding the second most common semantic formula: natives tend to suggest alternatives, whereas non-natives resort to avoidance (p. 55).

As the overview above discussing the most important theoretical and pedagogical research on various aspects of discourse socialisation and pragmatic development in



academic settings indicates, over the past two decades a large amount of scholarly and empirical interest has been taken in observing and describing the sociocultural and sociolinguistic processes learners experience in ESL and EFL environments. In other words, exploiting discourse data for signals of discourse socialisation, one of the chief orientations of the present project, is apparently well-grounded in previous theoretical considerations and empirical investigation.

### **2.2.2. Interaction analysis**

As besides signals of discourse socialisation and structural properties, the dissertation research is envisaged to explore the interactive features of the OAPs submitted to analysis, it seems appropriate to review the main objects and empirical findings of interaction analysis. Hence, in what follows, major works and papers on interaction analysis have been assigned to two main subsections: one presenting the most fundamental theoretical contributions to the field of interaction analysis, and the other one concerned with research projects specifically addressing issues of interaction analysis in EAP settings.

#### **2.2.2.1. Some theoretical underpinnings in interaction analysis**

In order to appreciate the empirical and instructional utility of interaction analysis, it is worth taking a look at the some of the attributes of spoken academic discourse and the place conversation in educational settings is assigned in that framework. Hoey (1991) provides a cogent justification for the pedagogical value of observing learners' interaction by suggesting that a structural understanding of discourse organisation in the

classroom will enable teachers to assess the efficiency of their activities (p. 66). So as to allow for the identification of those elements in classroom discourse that are characteristic of natural conversation, he sets out eight features he considers to be typical of naturally occurring dialogues: distinction of frozen and free pairs, occasional non-compliance with the co-interactant's will, departures from simple pairs, extension of topics over several exchanges, combination of exchanges for greater complexity and flexibility, interruption of exchanges to contradict the co-interactant, freedom in choosing the next step, and real information to be shared (pp. 67-82). In a sense, issuing some pedagogical recommendations, Hoey sums up the instructional message of his largely theoretical discussion in the following terms:

[...] what we need is communicative methodology that recognises the richness and complexity of discourse and is prepared to settle for nothing less than the real thing. For this the learner will need access to vocabulary and grammar if he or she is to be able to contribute freely to discussions [...] (p. 83).

Adopting a broader perspective on conversation analysis both in magnitude and latitude, Tsui's (1994) seminal work focusing on the linguistic aspects of English conversation creates a link between the social embedding (context) of interactions with their linguistic exponents (p. 3). Contrary to previous work on Conversation analysis (cf. Lee, 1987), Tsui (1994) departs from the established practice of using interaction data as illustrations to already existing hypotheses and, adopting an exploratory approach, she scrutinises interactions with the aim of proposing and substantiating a framework based on the linguistic regularities displayed in them, instead. Her monograph is largely guided by questions of the definition of performative utterances, the criteria for identifying units in interactions, the patterns of conversational organisation and the

factors affecting the development of conversations. These queries may as well be captured in terms of four areas of linguistic inquiry:

1. criteria for characterising functions of conversational analysis
2. descriptive units of conversational interactions
3. the structure of conversation
4. conversational processes (p. 5)

The language data Tsui (1994) employs in her analyses are characterised as instances of ‘natural conversation’ arising as a result of real-life situations and spontaneity as opposed to solicited role-play utterances (pp. 5-6).

With regard to the problem of determining units in conversational interaction in classroom settings, Tsui (1994) continues the tradition instituted by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and employs the terms ‘act’, ‘move’ and ‘exchange’. Later on, as an empirical outcome of conversation analysis, she suggests that conversations may be broken down into three exchanges: ‘initiation’, ‘response’ and ‘follow-up’ – a classification that is also endorsed by Halliday (1984) (p. 43). It is also in line with Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) findings that Tsui emphasises structural location as key to utterance characterisation (p. 17). Although, based on illustrative examples, an initiating move usually triggers the expectation of a responding move, Tsui is quick to stress the co-operative nature of conversation, where the only major force that can constrain the what type of response could follow an utterance is discourse coherence (pp. 18-19).

Prior to her attempt to establish a taxonomy of discourse acts, Tsui (1994) alludes to some controversies surrounding the identification of the function of an utterance. In an effort to elucidate the notion of ‘multiple functions’, she makes the following assertion: “... when we characterize the issuance of an utterance as the performance of a particular

speech act, we are characterizing the performance of an illocutionary act” (p. 45). However, her claim that a single utterance may not realize two speech acts simultaneously does not preclude the possibility of ambiguity. At the same time, Tsui hastens to remark that ambiguity is usually resolved by participants in naturally occurring conversations with the help of straightforward scenarios and contextual clues (pp. 48-49). Following these clarifying points, Tsui proceeds to chart a taxonomy of primary discourse acts, further subdivided into subclasses. Whereas primary classes are defined on the basis of structural location, subclasses are determined with reference to the prospected response (pp. 52). Thus, the resulting labels for the former are *initiating acts*, *responding acts* and *follow-up acts*, relative to the corresponding moves. Subclasses within initiating acts include *elicitations*, *requestives*, *directives* and *informatives*. Responding acts, in turn, comprise *positives*, *negatives* and *temporization*. Conversely, follow-up acts, depending on the prospected responses, may be *endorsements*, *concessions* or *acknowledgements* (pp. 52-61).

In the largest part of the remainder of her monographic work, Tsui (1994) gives a detailed and principled characterisation of each subclass within the categories initiating acts, responding acts and follow-up acts, respectively. In her treatment of elicitation, she repudiates solely syntactic criteria for identification, labelling them inconsistent. Instead, she advocates a more pragmatically rooted approach, defining elicitation as ‘any utterance in the *initiating move* which prospects an obligatory verbal response’ (p. 89).

Subsequently, when narrowing down on the subclasses of requestives, Tsui (1994) foregrounds two aspects as the basis for characterisation. The two aspects are best captured by two questions: ‘who is to perform the future action?’ and ‘who (does) the action benefit?’ (p. 115). The author also goes on to point out that, owing to the socially

'risky' or, in fact, often face-threatening nature of requestives, there is a certain degree of ambivalence present in a number of utterances classified as requestives, calling for the admission of utterances that apparently perform 'a particular discourse act under the linguistic disguise of another discourse act' (p. 115). In emphasising this duality, Tsui introduces the term 'indirect speech act', as a category suitable for grasping this unique characteristic of requestives (p. 115).

Tsui (1994) retains this perspicacious attitude to the discrepancy between illocutionary verbs and actual acts in her discussion of directives. As a reference point for the identification of subclasses within directives, she accentuates the importance of discourse behaviours, expanding on the questions posed for requestives by adding concepts such as 'authority to get compliance', the 'consequence of complying or not complying' and the extent to which the speaker may be held answerable for inducing the consequence (p. 133).

When providing a thorough treatment of the last subclass of initiating acts, Tsui (1994) presents a broader picture than what would be conventionally understood by informatives. Besides supplying information, informatives are demonstrated to fulfil a range of other functions including reporting events, expressing judgements and conveying feelings and attitudes (p. 154). In terms of the obligatory rejoinder that is prospected by an informative, Tsui proposes acknowledgement as an underlying category, the actual realisations of which might be message-received signal or a supportive comment to a report, a second evaluation related to an assessment, or 'reciprocating the goodwill, expressing appreciation, minimization, or empathy' in response to an expressive (p. 154).

As for the other two main classes of discourse acts, i.e. responding acts and follow-up acts, Tsui (1994) is by all means justified to use the appellation 'neglected aspects' if

one considers the pragmatically volatile nature of the subclasses that constitute them (pp. 159, 194). After scrutinising various contexts of response giving, Tsui (1994) suggests that an utterance may be considered to be response even if it does not fulfil the illocutionary intent of a particular subclass of initiating acts, provided it does not challenge the pragmatic presuppositions pertaining to it. Subclasses of follow-up acts, at the same time, are shown to display similarly varied patterns all tied to the prospective nature of a given response (pp. 194-213).

In the concluding volume of her seminal work on English conversation, Tsui (1994) provides some glimpses into a linguistic description of conversation processes based on naturally-occurring conversation corpus data. In building up a descriptive framework, the author seems to adopt a twofold approach marked by a balanced attention to linguistic concepts and linguistic data. Through a series of 'trial applications' of her descriptive framework, Tsui is not reluctant to concede that the framework does, in fact, suffer from a number of limitations and inadequacies, notwithstanding its capability of coherently formalising 'some of the observations of functions of conversational utterances, processes, and organization' (p. 248).

To complement the overview of the theoretical foundations of interaction analysis outlined above by adding some relevant aspects of the practical use of the study of interaction analysis, Amidon and Hunter's (1972; ed.: Stones and Morris) observations on teacher trainees' practice teaching performance may be cited. Amidon and Hunter, based on empirical evidence, suggest that teacher trainees who had received training in interaction analysis displayed a number of behavioural characteristics that others did not. These included allowing for more and more extended pupil initiated talk, fewer pauses, a wider range of teaching behaviours (p. 117). This list of instructionally desirable traits may be continued by referring to Bondi and Ober's (1969) findings

revealing that teacher trainees studying interaction analysis ‘used more praise, accepted and clarified pupil’s ideas more, used more indirect teacher talk as opposed to direct teacher talk [and] used more extended praise [...]’ (quoted in Stones and Morris, 1972, p. 117).

Another noteworthy study applying interaction analysis in public settings is by Heilig and Mundt (1984). The authors, drawing on analytical system developed by Walcott and Hopmann (1978), employed three categories of Bargaining Process Analysis (BPA), Initiation, Agreement and Disagreement, with an end to obtain an interaction-based description of city council meetings (p. 100).

#### **2.2.2.2. Interaction analysis in EAP settings**

Although theorising and synthesising in the relatively spacious realm of organisational discourse, Fairhurst (2004) undertakes to examine the functions of intertextuality and agency in interaction analysis, pointing to conclusions that might as well be applicable in academic discourse. Through providing well-elaborated descriptions of six genres of interaction analysis (see *Table 1: Genres of Interaction Analysis*), Fairhurst highlights a gradual shift from the ‘negotiation approach’ to ‘sequential patterns of communication’, where considerations of time become more and more prominent (p. 340).

In response, on the one hand, to cognitive researchers’ criticism of pragmatic and behaviourist foundations of interaction analysis emphasising the indispensability of a coding system’s potential to reconstruct participants’ intended meanings for the sake of validity, and, on the other hand, to objections to the definability of the meanings of utterances because of their evanescent nature, Fairhurst advances the following arguments:

Genre	Focus	Coding schemes	Representative research
Interaction Process Analysis	Task and socioemotional functions of group interaction	(a) Interaction Process Analysis (IPA) (Bales, 1950) (b) Systematic, Multiple-Level Observation of Groups (SYMLOG) (Bales and Cohen, 1979)	(a) Sargent and Miller (1971) (b) Keyton and Wall (1989)
Behaviorist Studies	Leader verbal behavior (e.g. performance monitoring) and employee performance	(a) Operant Supervisory Taxonomy and Index (OSTI) (Komaki et al., 1986) (b) Organizational Verbal Behavior (OVV) categorization system (Gioia and Sims, 1986)	a) Komaki (1998)  (b) Gioia and Sims (1986); Gioia et al. (1989)
Systems Interaction	Control patterns in hierarchical relationships	(a) Relational Control Coding (Rogers and Farace, 1975) (b) Relational Control Coding (Ellis, 1979)	(a) Fairhurst et al. (1995); Courtright et al. (1989) (b) Watson-Dugan (1989); Glauser and Tullar (1985)
Negotiation Research	Bargaining and negotiation tactics, message patterns, and phases	Various (e.g. Donohue, 1981a,b; Hopmann and Walcott's Bargaining Process Analysis [BPAA], 1976; Putnam and Wilson, 1989; Weingart et al., 1996)	Olekals et al. (1996); Putnam et al. (1990); Weingart et al. (1999)
Adaptive Structuration Theory	Technology adaptation in group interaction	Interpretive Coding (DeSanctis and Poole, 1994)	DeSanctis and Poole (1994); Poole and DeSanctis (1992)
Group Time Studies	Time orientation and temporal pacing in group task activity	Mentions of time (Gersick, 1989)	Gersick (1988, 1989); Ancona (1990); Waller et al. (2002)

*Table 1: Genres of Interaction Analysis (based on Fairhurst, 2004).*

The response of interaction analysts is to assert that there is much to learn in the patterns and temporal form of concerted behavior. That is why most interaction analysts avoid making claims about subjective levels of interpretation or the cognitive bases of discourse production (Folger, 1991; Poole et al., 1987). Whether implicit or explicit, the specific interpretive basis for assigning codes is conventional or cultural meanings. These meanings are also ascertained by examining the functions of particular discourse units as they are responded to with other discourse units (Fairhurst, 1993). An adequate basis for determining these meanings comes from the membership of actors and researchers in the same language communities (pp. 344-345).



Concerned with the more immediate demand for authentic descriptions of discourse in academic events and bearing course and material designers' perspectives in mind, Basturkmen (2002) investigates patterns of interaction of sequential organisation at EAP seminars at universities in the U.K. Focusing on instances of interaction between seminar participants, she identifies two major organisational types: 'simple exchanges of pre-formed ideas and more complex exchanges that enabled ideas to emerge and be negotiated in interaction' (p. 233). Through a number of sample interactions, Basturkmen argues that more complex exchanges are essential for negotiating meaning as part of a joint effort and for fostering the elaboration of ideas in discussions, thereby co-constructing spoken academic discourse (p. 239).

In an effort to present a survey-like coverage of empirical considerations on language in interaction in EAP seminars, Jordan (1997) reports on a study carried out by Johns and Johns (1997) addressing, among other aspects, the issue of turn-taking and the realisation of particular moves in seminar interaction. The two authors conclude that when starting one's contribution in an exchange, one might call upon several non-verbal signals, 'such as breath intake, a worried facial expression, eye-contact with the tutor, a filler such as "er" or "um", or all of these simultaneously' (quoted in Jordan, 1997, p. 197). Furthermore, Johns and Johns suggest that entering a discussion is a culturally influenced move with a variety of indicators of interruption, out of which monosyllabic utterances appear to be the most universal ones. An interjection, which is seemingly indicative of concurrence, is usually followed by some more elaborate explication of one's agreement, or it is used as a preface to introducing some contradictory points.

Regarding the actual language functions occurring in seminars, Jordan (1997), harking back to previous empirical studies analysing the strategies employed (Price, 1977; Tomlins, 1993), lists agreeing, disagreeing, expressing an opinion, criticism,

objections, persuading, giving an example, explaining and making suggestions, as some of the most outstanding communicative functions (p. 198). To match these communicative functions, a number of seminar skills are recommended to be taught in preparation for successful participation in seminars according to Furneaux et al. (1991) (quoted in Jordan, 1997). The four major skills areas that receive special attention are listening skills, oral presentation skills, question asking skills and problem solving skills (pp. 199-200).

### **2.2.3. The needs analysis perspective**

Following the above presented preview of studies the research foci of which were related to the psychological and sociocultural aspects of acquiring and practising forms of academic spoken discourse, in what ensues below, bearing the actual goals of academic education in mind, a more pragmatic facet of academic oral functions will be addressed, namely the needs of the students.

Addressing the issue of linking needs analysis to course descriptions in the relatively broad context of ESP, Basturkmen (2003) points to the diversity of interpretations in this respect. Although she acknowledges the ubiquitous consensus on the necessity of matching students' needs with course contents, she argues that this general consensual agreement is usually subject to various understandings of the term 'needs' (p. 49). She suggests that there is a major divide between ESP courses corresponding to the two different conceptions on needs identification. One of them is described as viewing students as a homogenous group of individuals with largely identical needs associated with one particular occupation or discipline. The other approach regards students as sharing interests and demands to some degree, but does not tie their future career to a

single profession. Therefore, as Basturkmen phrases, courses designed with this perspective in mind naturally target broader professional fields. To put this difference in metaphoric terms, the author uses the term ‘narrow-angled’ to refer to the former type, and the term ‘broad-angled’ to capture the essence of the latter type. In agreement with Hyland (2002) and Ferris (2002), Basturkmen notes a remarkable shift in EAP from ‘narrow-angled’ to ‘wide-angled’ courses, imputing the phenomenon to institutional unwillingness to finance highly specific teaching programmes (50). Far from wholeheartedly partaking in the Hyland’s and Ferris’s deprecation of this tendency, Basturkmen discards this dichotomous division in needs analysis approaches and proposes a paradigm involving of a third element: a wide-angled option that centres on language variety. (For a synoptic representation of Basturkmen’s model, see *Table 2: Various course designs in ESP, based on Basturkmen (2003).*)

Type	Narrow or Wide Angled	Point of departure for selection of course content	Examples
1	Narrow	Analysis of needs with reference to particular needs or occupation	English for pilots and air traffic controllers English for legal studies
2	Wide	Analysis of common needs with reference to a set of disciplines or occupations	English for general academic purposes English for health professionals
3	Wide	Features of language use in a variety of English	Business English Academic English

*Table 2: Various course designs in ESP, based on Basturkmen (2003)*

As for the main preoccupations of option 3, Basturkmen (2003) notes the following:

The primary concern of Type 1 and Type 2 courses is the assessment of the needs of the learners and predicting when, where and for what purposes they will use English. This concern is secondary in Type 3 designs. In Type 3 designs, the primary concern is to illustrate the features of language variety itself. [...]. Type 3 courses are designed around the features of language in the variety and because of this may cater for quite a diverse group of learners (p. 53).

Basturkmen (2003) also expands her discussion of three options in needs analysis and course design to include an evaluation of each of the three types. In support of Type 1 (i.e. narrow-angled course design), she cites arguments from social constructive theory and psychology (pp. 54-55). Taking the social constructive perspective, she stresses the pivotal role of discursive practices in the construction and reproduction of disciplines and professions. With regard to psychological evidence, the author highlights high level of students' motivation clearly attributable to the obvious relevance of the subject matter. At the same time, Basturkmen reveals some of the downsides of Type 1, quoting *restrictedness* in terms of social mobility, linguistic variety and communicative goals. To sum up her discussion of the various circumstances potentially precluding a number of relevant features from the course design, Basturkmen makes the following remarks:

However specific we endeavour to make an ESP course (and the thus the content relevant to the learners), it is always a matter of compromise, and at least some of the content is bound to be more relevant to the communicative needs of some individuals more than others. If the course content comprised the generative structures of English (often referred to as the 'common core') rather than the surface linguistic forms, this would be acceptable. All generative structures are potentially useful. If, however, course content comprises largely surface-level linguistic items, such as expressions for language functions X or Y or models of genres for doing X or Y, and if the students do not in fact later need to do X or Y, the ESP course content is of dubious value (p. 57).

In favour of Type 2 (i.e. wide-angled course design based on common needs), Basturkmen (2003) alludes to two widely held premises about the existence of generic skills and their transferability to specific fields following acquisition (p. 58). However,

she does not procrastinate to evince her doubts about the validity of these two premises, demanding research-based evidence to substantiate the claim the such generic skills do in fact exist, and if learners are in fact capable of transferring generalised skills and strategies acquired in EAP classes to their actual professional areas. Furthermore, Basturkmen debilitates the case for Type 2 by warning that in dealing with general needs, one might easily fall into the trap of not dealing with any real needs at all. Quoting Johns and Dudley-Evens (1991), she seems to suggest that a wide-angled approach may not be appropriate for graduate students and professionals.

When coming to the assessment of Type 3 (i.e. wide-angled course designed based on a variety of English), Basturkmen (2003) mentions two major advantages (pp. 59-60). On the one hand, learners do not necessarily have to be at a high level of language proficiency as the basics of language use may be taught through any variety of English as a medium. On the other hand, introducing students to a given variety could give them an impression of specificity heightening their motivation to levels similar to those that may be achieved with Type 1 and Type 2. However, by showing Type 3 as noticeably distinct from Type 1 and Type 2 as it is not directly based on students' needs, Basturkmen poses the question if Type 2 courses can indeed be classified as ESP courses. A reply to this query is furnished by Hyland (2002):

The discoursed of the academy do not form an undifferentiated, unitary mass but a variety of subject-specific literacies. Disciplines have different views of knowledge, different research practices, and different ways of seeing the world, and as a result, investigating the practices of those disciplines will inevitably take us into greater specificity (p. 390; quoted in Basturkmen, 2003).

In a similar vein, Basturkmen (2003) calls for thorough-going research and constant consultation with experts of particular fields so that informed decisions may be made as to what language items to incorporate into a particular Type 3 course (pp. 60-61).

Besides reviewing the most prominent considerations in the field of needs analysis in EAP, Jordan (1997) lays down some fundamental tenets of needs analysis. He firmly asserts that needs analysis ought to be the centre of syllabus, course and material design (p. 22). To illustrate the multi-layered composition of needs analysis, the author enumerates the analytical approaches subsumed under the category 'needs analysis', such as target-situation analysis or TSA (i.e. the compilation of a profile of the learners' language needs by collecting data about the learner rather than from the learner), present-situation analysis or PSA (i.e. establishing the learners' state of language proficiency at the start of the course), deficiency analysis (i.e. focusing on the needs based on the gap between the target proficiency and the student's current knowledge), strategy analysis (i.e. balancing needs, wants and lacks), means analysis (i.e. accommodating courses to local situations), language audit (i.e. large-scale investigations to determine necessities for a larger organisations or administrative units) and constraints (pp. 22-28).

As for the actual steps to be taken in needs analysis, Jordan (1997) supplies an incremental ten-stage procedure:

1. Establishing the purpose of analysis
2. Delimiting student population
3. Deciding on the approaches
4. Acknowledging constraints and limitations
5. Choosing methods of data collection
6. Data collection
7. Results analysis and interpretation
8. Defining objectives

9. Executing decisions with regard to syllabus, content, materials and methods

10. Assessing procedures and results (p. 23).

When narrowing down on the actual measures to be taken to put together a needs analysis profile for a specific EAP course, Jordan (1997) suggests adopting an approach centred around three major elements: *subject* (i.e. what subject is the EAP course meant to prepare students for?), *language* (i.e. what language is required for studying the subject in question?) and *study situation*, including the concomitant study skills (p. 28). These considerations need to be set against the students' existing language abilities and study skill so as to establish the gap and, consequently, their needs. As for the methodology of addressing these questions, the author offers fourteen methods: advance documentation, language test at home, language test on entry, self-assessment, observation and monitoring, class progress tests, surveys, structured interview, learner diaries, case-studies, final tests, evaluation or feedback, follow-up investigations, as well as previous research (pp. 30-38).

As part of a comprehensive study intended to map out the diverse spoken and written academic communication needs of advanced ESL students at a US university, Ostler (1980) concludes that graduate and undergraduate students apparently differ in terms of the academic skills needed by these two types of students. The two dimensions she applied when computing questionnaire data were "major" (i.e. subject of the participants' studies), on the one hand, and "standing" (i.e. participating students' position based on their years of studies). One interesting finding based on the distribution of academic needs according to the dimension "major" was that being required to give a talk was most prominent (50 % or above) in three out of the ten investigated areas, namely in Public Affairs, Soft Science and Music (p. 493). Another

noteworthy revelation, pertaining to the dimension “class standing” was that the need to function successfully in performing oral skills, including giving talks, panel discussions and discussing issues in class, showed a steady increase parallel to students' place on the class standing chart (p. 495). This discovery must have prompted the author to remark that the continuous development of creative language skills enabling students to meaningfully take part in ever more formal oral, as well as aural engagements is essential from the point of view of academic success (p. 501). Furthermore, Ostler issues an imperative to incorporate explicit instruction on giving talks and participating in panel discussions into graduate programmes.

Relying on Ostler’s (1980) study as an antecedent in terms of research focus and methodology, but with markedly different conclusions from those by Baxter (2000), Ferris and Tagg (1996) and Ferris (1998) expand upon the needs analysis angle of academic oral and aural skills. Ferris and Tagg (1996), exploring the academic oral communication needs of EAP learners as determined by 900 subject matter instructors at four different institutions in the USA, demonstrate a marked departure from formal, lecture type speech events to less formal, interactive types. As a result of their survey, it turned out that requirements varied across academic discipline, type of institution and class size. Based on frequency measures, a rank-order of academic speech event categories was set up containing **class participation, small group work, working with peers, oral presentations, leading discussions** and **debate** as the top six items on the list. Drawing upon the rich data and judging from the well documented results of the project involving statistical analysis of several hundreds of multiple-section questionnaires, the two authors offer three succinct implications:

1. EAP teachers should not assume that all graduate students or all students in a particular major will need exposure to the same oral tasks.



2. EAP programs should consider offering context-specific EAP courses whenever feasible.
3. Teachers should be aware that lecturing styles vary and that college/university classrooms (...) appear to be evolving toward less formal, more interactive styles (pp. 50-51).

A similar research focus was adopted for a nationwide study conducted by Ferris (1998) aimed at exploring EAP students' perceptions of their instructors' requirements regarding academic aural and oral skills at three different institutions in the USA. The most prominent categories identified by the respondents included **formal speaking, general listening comprehension, pronunciation, communication with peers, class participation, note-taking during lectures** and **communication with professors** (p. 305). In a fashion similar to that of Ferris and Tagg (1996), the author furnishes three concise statements regarding EAP aural and oral skills instruction:

1. Students need assistance with listening comprehension in academic contexts
2. Students need assistance with lecture comprehension and note-taking
3. Students lack confidence in their oral/aural abilities (pp. 309-311)

As a set of research methodological recommendations regarding a needs analysis-based investigation, she stresses the use comparable contexts, considering the respondents' relative knowledge of specialised subjects and a critical, but, at the same time, descriptive approach to any academic contexts (pp. 311-314).

Staying with the oral/aural needs analysis perspective in the context of tertiary education, with special respect to the intimate and interdependent relationship of the two, Vidal (2003) makes an attempt at identifying the factors that expedite academic vocabulary acquisition. Her statistical analytical framework, based on a pre-test post-test research design, demonstrates a significant correlation between lecture listening and vocabulary retention.

In a relatively recent study, virtually replicating the quantitative data collection instrument and analytical framework of Ferris (1998), Kim (2006) demonstrates the applicability of a needs analysis centred research design originally developed for a general North American EFL setting, both in terms of the nationalities and the subject areas of the respondents, with a group of East Asian graduate students studying non-science and non-engineering subjects. As she argues, in non-science and non-engineering classrooms oral communication is normally felt to be comparatively more essential, and therefore more refined oral and aural skills are required in such classes (p. 482). As the bottom line of the study, Kim points out that the participating students marked taking part in whole class discussions, raising questions during class and engaging in small group discussions as the three most frequently occurring classroom activities. Regarding the respondents' perceived difficulty they reported in connection with the investigated academic speech events, the author highlights leading class discussion and participating in whole class discussions as the most problematic ones for students. Finally, with respect to the oral skills most essential for their academic success, somewhat surprisingly, the study identifies giving a formal oral presentation as the primary challenge for students with an eye to their future academic assignments as conference presenters or teachers (p. 485).

Somewhat detached from the needs analysis studies presented above characterised by a descriptive attitude to the target situations under scrutiny, Benesch (1996) emphasises the critical dimension in EAP needs analysis. Instead of succumbing to the constraints imposed by the status quo, she centralises issues like the social context, access to power and the influence of academic traditions. Benesch also criticises previous EAP needs analysis taxonomies for their inadequacy to reveal their ideological

bases. To provide some convincing illustration of the limitations of the descriptive approach, she quotes two examples from a US collage setting.

The first one, a project by McKenna (1987) intended to shed some light on the causes of international students asking fewer questions during lectures is shown to suffer from a number of deficiencies. McKenna notes that questions from non-native students meant to request the clarification of particular words or the repetition of information are felt to be inappropriate by native students. In contrast with McKenna's recommendations advocating patterns of conduct in asking questions that seem to conform to native students' norms of behaviour in a lecture hall, Benesch argues that critical needs analysis would be likely to call for an empirical search for solutions targeting the linguistic and social difficulties experienced by ESL students during lectures:

For example, when McKenna (1987) discovered that ESL students wanted to ask for repetition of information, she might have worked with faculty members to make time for such requests. Or she might have encouraged the use of peer discussion groups to break up the lecture and give students time to answer each other's questions (p. 727).

Another example of research representing the descriptive approach that Benesch (1996) assesses from a critical needs analysis angle is Prior's (1995) ethnographic study purported to probe into the sociohistoric context of graduate ESL students. Benesch, however, warns that Prior's study is apparently more psychological than social neglecting questions about the social causes of those dynamics (p. 728). She continues her critique of Prior's investigation pointing to the author's oversight of questions 'about the politics of graduate work and its effect on the ESL students he studied' (p. 728).

Pursuing her emphasis on the social context of EAP further, Benesch (1996) refers to researchers and theoreticians, Swales (1990) and Johns (1990), who have both endeavoured to set their contributions to the field against the backdrop of cognitivist ESL research (p. 729). Examining the relationship between audience and the student who produces a composition for the given audience, Johns defines audience as made up of ‘members of academic discourse communities with the power to accept or reject writing as coherent, as consistent with the conventions of the target discourse community’ (p. 31, quoted in Benesch, 1996). Students, at the same time, are described as ‘novices’ who ‘surrender their own language and modes of thought to the requirements of the target community’ (p. 33, quoted in Benesch, 1996). As opposed to this social constructivist view of the liaison between audience and the individual student, Berlin (1988) uses a social-epistemic model, which does not require the student to yield in to external expectations and criteria, but the material, the social, and the subjective are at once the producers and the product of ideology, and ideology must be continually challenged so as to reveal its economic and political consequences for individuals’ (p. 489, quoted in Benesch, 1996). In this respect, Benesch clearly points to a major shortcoming of EAP: the lack of in-depth analysis of academic content and teaching, as well as of any other aspect that might have a bearing on students’ academic and professional lives (p. 730).

Finally, seeking some solutions to the problems of EAP presented by the social context, Benesch (1996) offers a critical needs analysis-oriented guide to EAP curriculum development grounding her recommendations in the findings of a research setting involving a paired ESL/psychology course. The guide consists of three recommendations, each translated into actual activities. In this vein, the first phase labelled ‘dealing with the limitations’ includes adjunct instruction activities, such as

peer revision and peer writing tasks (p. 733). The second phase, 'challenging the requirements' is characterised by questions generated by students. The third phase, 'creating possibilities' typically involves students' critical discussion of a relevant subject-matter topic by looking at its socially significant and controversial layers (p. 735). Thus, highlighting the political and subjective nature of needs analysis, Benesch wishes to promote equality and the improvement of conditions for the individual springing from EAP classes as 'agencies of social change' (p. 736).

The needs analysis studies discussed above are largely concerned with students' immediate (curricular) or less immediate (extra-curricular or even occupational) necessities. A research project broadening the needs analysis perspective into horizons looming ahead of university students after graduation is reported on by Kormos, Hegybíró Kontra and Csölle (2002). The three researchers examined the language wants of English majors in a Hungarian EFL context. Considering issues of relevance of context, it is interesting to note that the six Hungarian universities they conducted their project at included the School of English and American Studies of Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, the very setting where the investigations for the present dissertations were carried out. The Kormos et al.'s study was a statistical survey soliciting responses from nearly 300 students (roughly 10% of the entire target population) at six universities in Hungary where there were students majoring in English language and literature, as well as TESOL. At the same time, the same questionnaire was administered to 80 graduates of the six institutions participating in the survey. The main findings of Kormos et al.'s study suggest that, during their academic years, students use English primarily for academic purposes (p. 531). Conversely, the analysis of graduate responses seems to indicate that students in the careers use their English language skills for expressing their views, reading on-line

texts, talking to other non-native speakers, composing e-mail messages, supplying explanations and instructions, as well as for oral and written translation.

#### **2.2.4. Issues of genre demarcation**

Establishing the genre membership of given spoken text always seems to a controversial issue largely due to the often conflicting criteria traditionally employed in different genre analysis studies. Askehave and Swales (2001) undertake to examine this problem with an eye to communicative goal-orientation and communicative purpose. Harking back to Swales (1990), the two authors tentatively maintain the position that the definition of the genre membership of one particular communicative event is most directly connected to the identification of a set of communicative purposes that are 'recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre' (p. 58, cited in Askehave and Swales, 2001). As corollary of this basically functional understanding of genre membership, Askehave and Swales theorise that genres are to be thought of more as social or communicative events, rather than mere categories of discourse (p. 197). However, as they demonstrate through a series of convincing examples, genre identification may not solely be subject to the identification of the often elusive concept of communicative purpose. At the same time, they appear to be quick to issue admonishing remarks concerning the other extreme, which takes only mandatory structural elements and their arrangements as the exclusive basis for genre demarcation (p. 204). What they deem to be a more conclusive treatment of the problem may be recapitulated in two alternatives both of which resort to a cyclic reformulation of communicative purpose through the constant comparative review of structural- and extra-structural properties, but with two different reference

points: text and context. Since such an approach seems to offer a sufficient degree of perspicacity regarding textual, contextual, goal-related, subject-dependent, institutional and discourse community-based variables, it promises to function adequately in determining and reinterpreting the genre membership of spoken academic events.

Applying genre-based categories when it comes to spoken academic discourse seems to become particularly problematic for, as it has repeatedly been indicated in the present section of this dissertation, unlike written academic discourse, academic oracy appears to have been relegated to a somewhat neglected position in discourse analysis. This relative inattention is especially acutely felt in the case of academic lectures and talks, in contrast with academic prose (cf. Csomay, 2000, pp. 30-31). In line with Biber (1988, 1995), Csomay (2000) postulates an oral-literate continuum, with academic lectures, seen as representing somewhat hybrid register, occupying an intermediate position on it. (p. 32). When further expounding on the properties that link academic lectures to either end of the scale, Csomay points out that academic lectures are similar to academic prose both are meant to supply a vast amount of information in an abstract and explicit way, both evolve out of planned discourse and both rely on written prose as an antecedent. Furthermore, besides their marked focus on providing information, academic lectures and academic prose are both marked by low interactivity. (p. 33). At the same time, however, academic lectures are also closely affiliated with naturally occurring face-to-face conversations in the sense that, albeit to varying degrees, but both share interaction as an inherent feature, and as a corollary, they take place in real time (i.e. participants are found in the same temporal and spatial setting). Motivated by such comparative insights, Csomay employs a corpus-based research design to explore the academic lecture as register incorporating characteristics of both academic prose and natural conversation. Consistent with the discourse features presumed to show resemblance to

Dimension	Feature group	Associated linguistic features
1	<i>Informational focus - "with communicative situations that require a high informational focus and provide ample opportunity for careful integration of information and precise lexical choice" (Biber, 1988, p. 104).</i>	noun preposition attributive adjective passive
2	<i>Involved production - "fragmented, generalized packaging of content with an affective, interpersonal focus" and "on-line production circumstances" (Biber, 1995, p.145).</i>	present tense private verbs <i>that</i> -deletions contractions first person pronouns second person pronouns 'be' as copula
3	<i>Explicit discourse (elaborated reference) - "referentially explicit discourse" (Biber 1995, p. 156).</i>	wh relative object position wh relative subject position phrasal co-ordination
4	<i>Abstract style - "especially prominent in the academic sub-register of technical and engineering prose ...all spoken registers are marked by the absence of this" (Biber, 1995, p. 165).</i>	agentless-passive by-passive post-nominal past participial
5	<i>On-line informational elaboration - "used in spoken, on-line registers ... provide informational elaboration while explicitly presenting the speaker's stance or attitudes towards the proposition" (Biber, 1995, p. 167).</i>	that verb complement that adjective complement demonstrative pronouns existential 'there'

Table 3: Functional categories in academic lectures examined by Csomay (2000) and the associated linguistic features, based on Csomay (2000).



either of the two aforementioned extremes of the literate-oral continuum, Csomay centres her investigation around parameters like information focus, involved production, explicit-elaborated reference, abstract style and on-line informational elaboration (pp. 33-34). (For more detailed definitions of each feature group and their linguistic exponents, see *Table 3: Functional categories in academic lectures examined by Csomay (2000) and the associated linguistic features, based on Csomay (2000).*)

Another scholarly undertaking that makes an attempt at adapting the research methodological yields of Biber's (1988) multi-dimensional model to the context of analysing samples from conversation, speech and academic prose also commands attention. Xiao and McEnery (2005), in an effort to compare the usability of the multi-dimensional analysis and Tribble's (1999) adoption of Scott's (1999) keyword function analysis, arrive at the conclusion that findings afforded by the two designs show close similarities (p. 76), although there are some dissimilarities as well. One of them, between conversation and speech, is to be sought in dimension 1, i.e. informational vs. involved production. Another point of salient of difference between these two genres is observed in connection with dimension 6, i.e. online elaboration. The bottom-line of these juxtapositions between conversation and speech, ultimately set against the third genre, academic prose, is worded by Xiao and McEnery in the following terms:

[...] conversation is considerably more interactive and affective than speech. While speech is informationally dense, it is subject to real-time production conditions, and thus speech needs online informational elaboration. The two spoken genres differ significantly from academic prose along dimensions 1, 3, and 5. This means that on one hand, academic prose is the most "literate," technical, and abstract of the three genres under consideration; on the other hand, it tends to make explicit in-text reference, whereas the two spoken genres make context-dependent references (pp 76-77).

Tackling the problem of clarifying the genre-specific properties of academic talk in American university classrooms, Csomay (2006) uses a corpus-based method to analyse nearly 200 university class sessions across the US. Drawing on the analytical framework constructed by Biber (1988), she carries out a multi-dimensional register analysis by juxtaposing the situational and linguistic features of university classroom, on the one hand, and academic prose and face-to-face conversation, on the other hand (p. 119). Csomay's research suggests that academic talk is more akin to face-to-face conversation in terms of most situational features than to academic prose (p. 131). This finding seems to provide further evidence of the tendency of academic speech events to become increasingly informal (cf. Ferris and Tagg (1996); Ferris (1998)).

Although electing to place her empirical focus on a very specific genre of oral academic discourse, namely *Honoris Causa* acceptance speeches, Fortanet (2005) spurred by the comparatively meagre attention devoted to spoken academic discourse as opposed written academic discourse, a generally observed condition alluded to throughout this present dissertation, advocates a systematic and principled treatment of the genres of academic oracy (p. 31). She quotes the main arguments against setting aside equally elaborate and extensive genre-based taxonomies of oral academic discourse, mainly constructed by Swales (1990) and Gimenez (2000), representing as a stance which views spoken academic genres as dependent on written ones, usually documents prepared in advance and adjusted to a spoken discourse setting. Amongst the oral genres she lists in this respects, one can find conference presentations, which is conventionally perceived as the oral projection of research papers. Accentuating the fact that in the academic context, in a number of instances, discourses representing oral and written genres may often share the same audience, Fortanet adopts Gimenez's (2000) categorisation of spoken academic genres:

- a. expository genres: lecture, paper presentation, poster presentation, etc.;
- b. interactive genres: the interview, the speech, the workshop, the negotiation, the academic meeting, etc.;
- c. teaching genres: the tutorial, the seminar, and the academic lecture (p. 32).

Fortanet, however, hastens to voice her reservations about the solidity of such a classification, arguing that it fails to clearly spell out the relation between the speaker and the audience and the actual function of the given utterance. Therefore, she proposes a model which, among other refinements, subsumes tutorials and seminars under the heading ‘interactive genres’ and assigns an expository role to academic lectures (see *Figure 4: Categorisation of academic genres according to purpose (based on Fortanet, 2005)*). In her classification, Fortanet seems to relegate interaction between speaker and audience to a secondary position and chooses to predicate her model on the purposes of academic genres. At the same time, especially with regard to the research focus of the present dissertation, it is well worth observing that Fortanet separates academic oral presentations into two distinct categories: one type represents students’ presentations that take place in a classroom environment, whereas the other applies to oral presentations delivered at conferences and is therefore dealt with in a single category with other spoken genres that derive from empirical research and occur in conference settings. Furthermore, this construct-related decision of the author, who is primarily interested in describing one particular genre of institutional academic discourse, i.e. Honoris Cause speeches, suggests that academic spoken genres cannot be treated in isolation, even when the focus is on a single genre in a given study, but their generic specificities and relationships with other genres also ought to be addressed. A similar scholarly attitude is intended to be adopted by the author of the present dissertation, in full cognisance of the perils of becoming deeply engrossed in grasping the details of a

single genre and, thus, failing to recognise the wider implications it may offer for understanding for academic praxis in more general terms.

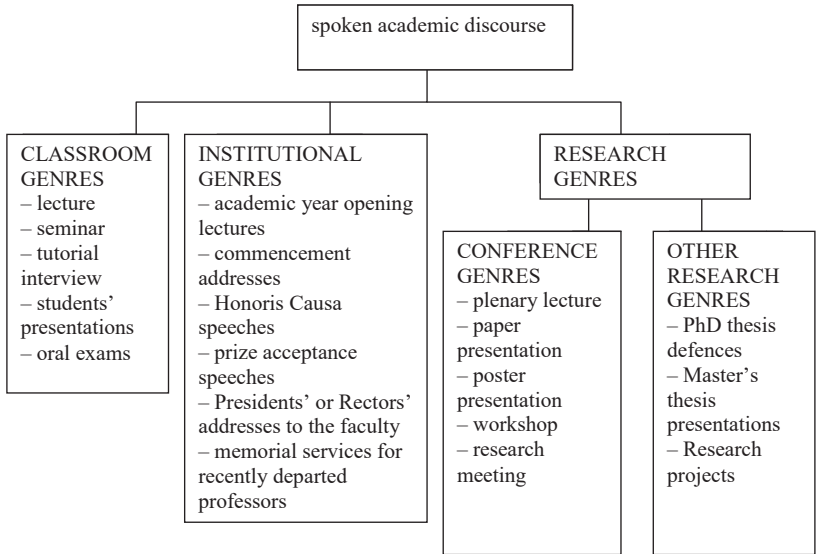


Figure 4: Categorisation of academic genres according to purpose (based on Fortanet, 2005, p. 35).

This systemic interpretation of genre, taking full account of not-only text-internal but text-external factors as well is the major theme of Bhatia's (2010) article. In his discussion, Bhatia foregrounds the notion 'interdiscursivity' as opposed to 'intertextuality' and asserts that the former is 'a function of appropriation of generic resources across discursive, professional and cultural practices, which, it is claimed, is central to our understanding of the complexities of genres that are typically employed in

professional, disciplinary, and institutional communication' (p. 32). Drawing on an earlier work of his (Bhatia, 2004), the author describes a three-space multi-perspective framework for the analysis of written discourse comprising textual, socio-pragmatic and general social layers, which he shows to be particularly fitting for interpreting professional discourse. Carrying this model further, Bhatia proposes a slightly modified framework containing four levels, namely 'textual', 'genre-specific', 'professional practice' and 'professional culture' (p. 33). He accounts for the validity of this representation of professional discourse by pointing out that the text, as the final outcome of a series of compositional processes, may be seen as a result of an amalgamation of these processes, thereby making analyses at the four specified levels possible contemporaneously. In addition to emphasising these aspects of his model, Bhatia also directs attention to two relationships which he deems to be vital in professional discourse from an analytical point of view. In this vein, he identifies, on the one hand, a text-context relationship, and a discursive practice and professional practice relationship, on the other. He argues that these two relations are chiefly dependent on 'text-internal and text-external semiotic resources and constraints' (p. 34). To demonstrate the versatility of the applications of a model predicated on interdiscursivity, Bhatia also endeavours to establish a series of links between discursive practices and professional practices. To give his discussion an overall theoretical angle, the author issues straightforward claims about the centrality of interdiscursivity in genre analysis, underscoring the tension-laden relationship between generic integrity and the appropriation of generic resources. All these theoretical underpinnings delineate an orientation which is best labelled as critical genre analysis, an approach that Bhatia appears to embrace wholeheartedly for a better understanding of the phenomena and processes of professional discourse.

### **2.2.5. Construction of identity in academic discourse**

Capturing the notion of identity in academic discourse has so far been confined to written academic genres (Gale (1994); Yancey (1994); Grabe and Kaplan (1996); Ramanathan and Kaplan (1996)). Ivanić (1998), decrying the authoritarian inculcation of fossilised taxonomies describing various genres in academic discourse, advocates a broader instructional perspective which takes into account L2 academic writers' identity struggles as they strive to cope with the rather prescriptive norms of different academic contexts in English. Based on the experience of the author of the present research proposal as an academic skills instructor, it may be surmised that in an academic setting where the guidelines are mostly taken from Anglo-Saxon models, but where not only the students but many of the instructors are also expected to meet Central European academic requirements in parallel settings, a similar identity struggle may be observed.

Although in written discourse analysis used practically interchangeably, identity and voice are told apart in the theoretical comments attached to Hirvela and Belcher's (2001) case study delving into the writerly selves of multilingual academic writers. The two authors present identity alongside self-representation as two possible constructions of voice (p. 103). Emphasising the significance of multilingual students' prior experience with and accomplishments in L1 academic writing, as well as acknowledging the legitimacy of these students' well-established voices and identities imported into the L2 EAP classroom from their L1 literacy background, Hirvela and Belcher urge a more profound understanding of the hardships multilingual writers go through in trying to find their voice and discover their identities in written English (p. 88). In a sense echoing Ivanić's (1998) view on the complexity of the variables influencing the acquisition of writer identity, they stress that it is particularly hard to draft general maxims about non-native university students' voices and identities as if

they constituted a homogeneous group (p. 104). In line with Cherry's (1988) and Ede's (1992) promotion of situational voice, the two researchers subscribe to an approach which encourages students to adjust their voice in accord with contextual properties in a given setting without abdicating their L1 voices and identities (p. 90).

Another noteworthy contribution to the empirical study of discourse identity with special regard to discourse structure and actual social action emerging as functions of the articulation of various authorial identities is found in Shi-xu's (1997) monographic work. In it the author delineates a three-step approach to tackling the problem of defining the 'other' in a system of cultural representations: 1. interpreting the discursive formation of 'the Other' in the context of social action; 2. constructing 'a comprehensive, coherent and empirically backed account of the discourse of the mind' (p. 18); 3. employing 'reasoned-discourse analysis' for scrutinising argumentation patterns and explanatory passages (p. 45).

Amid the polemic over the empirical and pedagogical relevance of inquiries into voice in academic writing (cf. Helms-Park and Stapleton, 2003, and Stapleton, 2002), Matsuda and Tardy (2007) present the report of a case study in an effort to underscore the significance of research on identity. The two authors, evoking Elbow's (1994) definition, adopt a relatively broad view on voice:

1. audible voice or intonation (the sounds in a text);
2. dramatic voice (the character or implied author in a text);
3. recognizable or distinctive voice;
4. voice with authority;
5. resonant voice or presence (p. 236).

At the same time, they argue that even though some voice types may be more naturally linked to particular types of writing, especially in the informal register, academic

writing, despite its conventionally recognised requirements for stylistic neutrality and precision of wording, is by no means to be thought of as devoid of voice.

As a factor apparently detracting from a writing task's potential to allow for the identification of the writer's voice, Matsuda and Tardy (2007) point to the decisive role of the choice of context and situation when evaluating the research setting used by Helm-Park and Stapleton (2003) (p. 238). To substantiate their hypothesis, namely that the recognition of voice is of considerable importance even when it comes to assessing the content of academic writing, Matsuda and Tardy select a high-stakes academic situation in which voice seems to heavily bear on the final outcome. Thus, their research focus is on the blind peer reading process of a manuscript for an academic journal. Tailored to this central empirical theme, the research questions probe into the readers' construction of the author's academic voice and the related discursive (e.g. syntactic structure, organisation, transition devices, choice of words, selection of topics and examples, strategies of argumentation) and non-discursive features (e.g. margins, font type and size, spaces, punctuation, extra line-breaks between paragraphs and block citations) contributing to it. To elucidate their position in the throes of the scholarly debate hinted at above, Matsuda and Tardy explicitly declare their understanding of voice by making recourse to Matsuda (2001):

Voice is the amalgamative effect of the use of discursive and non-discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available yet ever-changing repertoires; it is the overall impression associated with particular features that make impersonation or 'mimicking' possible (p. 329).

Subsequently, they emphasise that voice is not identical with the mere presence of certain discursive properties in the text, but, instead, it is 'the reader's impression



derived from the particular combination of the ways in which both discursive and non-discursive features are used' (p. 239).

Similarly preoccupied with the issue of identifying instruments for expressing identity in written discourse, Abdi (2002) embarks on an investigation to explore the usage of interpersonal metadiscourse as a vehicle for at least partially disclosing one's writerly self (p. 139). He derives his findings from a sample consisting of 55 research articles selected from two disciplines: social sciences and natural sciences. The analysis concentrated on three tools of conveying interpersonal metadiscourse relations, namely hedges, emphatics and attitude markers reveals that authors of research articles pertaining to social science fields are more inclined to use devices of interpersonal metadiscourse than natural science writers. At the same time, it becomes well perceptible from the comparative analyses of individual articles that there is a remarkable difference regarding the application of hedges and attitude markers, whereas variation in terms of emphatics appears to be minimal. A contrastive look at the two samples also suggests that occurrences of hedges and emphatics significantly differ between social and natural science articles. Apart from these coalface findings, Abdi also gives a theoretical justification for the underlying utility of scrutinising metadiscourse features in scholarly enterprises aimed for attaining insights into the construction and disclosure of identity in academic discourse across disciplines and cultural domains:

Metadiscourse is a rhetorical means that is subjective and, as such, is more culture bound. Therefore, the investigation of interpersonal metadiscourse markers may be of some value in finding out underlying cultural constraints. This issue can be discussed generally and specifically. In general terms, one language is compared to another; in specific terms, on the other hand, different genres of a specific language can be compared with each other to come up with a more detailed description of a language. The specific approach therefore has the

advantage of helping to discover a variety of identities for speakers of a specific language (p. 140).

Furthermore, Abdi also spells out some wider reaching implications for a more refined understanding of genre-related discourse identities. Based on his empirical observations, he is apparently in a good position to warn that general cultural typologies are no longer adequate to grapple with issues of identity for a particular language (p. 144). Instead, he calls for adopting an approach open to multiple cultural typologies allowing for a more nuanced description of generic identities and different modes of interaction. This conclusion seems to entail that there are indeed various verbal subcultures and linguistic identities.

In an effort to bring discourse identity research to a climax by drawing on all the theoretical and empirical foundations of the field thus far, but with a special emphasis on the developments of the past decade, as well as to demonstrate the applicability of corpora in identity studies, Hyland (2010) takes a look at research articles produced by two applied linguists of world renown, John Swales and Debbie Cameron (p. 159). To situate this relatively novel approach in the over ten-year long context of discourse identity research, Hyland synthesises the main pillars and the scholarly utility of exploring authorial identity issues in a series of compact assertions:

Identity is a person's relationship to his or her social world, a joint, two-way production and language allows us to create and present a coherent self to others because it ties us into webs of commonsense, interests, and shared meanings. *Who we are* and *who we might be* are built up through participation and linked to situations, to relationships, and to the rhetorical strategies and positions we adopt in engaging with others on a routine basis. This means that it is through our use of community discourses that we claim or resist membership of social groups to define who we are in relation to others. Identity therefore helps characterize both what makes us similar to and different from each other and, for academics, it is how they achieve credibility as insiders and reputations as individuals (p. 160).

A similar take on the issue of discourse identity also materialises in Ybema, Keenoy, Oswick, Beverungen, Ellis and Sabelis's (2009) theoretical work concerned with ways and conditions of articulating discursive identity, albeit in a socially and epistemologically wider context. The authors argue that the process of identity formation is inextricably linked to 'self-other' talk, which seems to have its parallels in the agency-structure dichotomy (p. 299).

In no way detached from the notion of reflexivity in the process of identity construction, as stressed by Ybema et al (2009), Hyland (2010), in his analysis, focuses on high frequency key words and clusters, and juxtaposes his findings against a broader backdrop of applied linguistics reference corpus. To explicate the rationale for the employment of corpora in identity research, Hyland opines that, somewhat contrary to previous understandings of identity as a basically **interpretative recounting**, the concept of identity could more conclusively be captured by casting it as **performance**. It is in this dynamic conceptualisation of identity that the author thinks corpus linguistics does have a role to play in the description of authorial identity. As the main merit of the corpus-based approach, he highlights the chance to observe language usage as means of constructing an identity characteristic of a particular individual through a succession of rhetorical decisions. Hyland also sees a major advantage in corpora being capable of showing patterns of rhetorical choices rather than scatter uses of individualistic authorial solutions. Based on lexical frequency measures set against key words in corpora pertinent to the domain, he attaches labels to his two subjects, such as 'the Radical Linguist' to Cameron, through ascribing to her themes like 'Establishing Truths', 'Challenging Contrary Positions' and 'Establishing Solidarity', on the one hand, and 'the Inquiring Colleague' to Swales, through attributing to him motifs like 'Self Mention and Reflection', 'Conveying, Hedging, and Attitude', and 'Engaging with

Readers', on the other hand (pp. 167-181). In his conclusion, as if trying to reinforce the initial tenets he has set forth in the preliminary definition passage, Hyland argues 'corpus analysis can help illuminate the ways individuals construct fairly consistent authorial orientations by using the disciplinary resources available to them' (p. 181). Furthermore, he adds that

while normative and constraining, the rhetorical conventions of our communities are also the raw materials from which we fashion our professional selves, creating, through recurring selection of a rhetorical repertoire, the people we want to be. Clearly this identity work does not preclude other identity choices in the writing of these authors, and on particular occasions they may well adopt different subject positions (p. 180).

A similarly fresh look at identity construction in oral settings is taken by Wieland (2010) imbedded in the context of situated communicative practice, which is shown to capitalise on normative conceptualisations of the ideal self (p. 504). She takes a view on the process of identity construction which is best described as 'struggle' (cf. Alvesson, 2010). She depicts the essence of framing one's identity as an 'ongoing communicative process by which individuals develop a sense of whom they are'. This holistically oriented understanding of identity formation is capable of transcending the boundaries of disciplinary and institutionalised discourse identities and broadens the horizons of identity research considerably by centring on social settings that allow for sociolinguistically and pragmatically more generalisable outcomes and findings.

A thorough treatment of issues of authorial identity in academic written discourse in a Hungarian EFL context is provided by Károly (2009). The author employs a contrastive rhetorical technique to reveal differences between native expert writers and Hungarian student writers by comparing the linguistics exponents of author identity, personal pronouns and various rhetorical functions (pp. 2-4). One of the conclusions of the corpus-based project combined with follow-up interviews with participating student

writers is that the frequency of personal pronoun use by Hungarian students far exceeds that of professional native authors. As an implication of Károly's study, it is stressed that Hungarian students need EAP courses that are tailored in accordance with their cultural backgrounds.

### **2.2.6. Contrastive rhetoric in the EFL context**

When grappling with the sometimes divergent offshoots of Contrastive Rhetoric it has produced over its over 40 year-long evolution, a clear-cut and pellucid definition of the main functions and motivations of this field of scholarly inquiry comprehensively applicable to virtually all empirical enterprises pertinent to this discipline is found in Cahill (2003): "Contrastive rhetoric scholarship researches rhetorical structures across languages to predict the difficulties experienced by students learning to write essays in a second language" (p. 170). The first ever seminal work employing the notion 'Contrastive Rhetoric' was Kaplan's (1967) paper in TESOL Quarterly. Not particularly lengthy in its composition, nor extraordinarily elaborate or spectacular in its research design, Kaplan's study introduced a concept that would for long decades be the cornerstone of new school of thought. Although he identified the genre of his contribution as 'a sermon' aimed at improving the moral standards of his audience, now looking back on his work from over forty years on, the significance of Kaplan's study is felt to more eye-opening and awareness raising than moralistically authoritarian. Admitting that the core of the idea constituting the foundations of what was to be subsequently called contrastive rhetoric had some theoretical antecedents (cf. Sapir, 1954), Kaplan summarises the way of thinking governing his theory in the following terms: "Language in the whole multiplicity of its forms, both shapes and is shaped by the

experience of the society of speakers” (p 10). In line with Sapir and Whorf, Kaplan reaffirms an earlier hypothesis regarding the predetermining role of language in modes of interpretation and observation. He demonstrates through a short composition of an Arabic learner of English that there are noteworthy differences between English and Arabic syntactic patterns. The former is shown to prefer subordinations as a way of structuring syntactic constituents in complex sentences, whereas the latter, heavily influenced by the rhetorical and organisational conventions of the Koran, not completely detached from Judeo-Christian discursive traditions, tends to employ parallel structures (i.e. coordination). Extending this discussion by including implications for teaching, Kaplan proposes that not only syntactic units but even rhetorical patterns are culturally coded and should be taught explicitly to foreign students (p. 15). As for the discourse socialisation and psychological facets of this development in learners from the teacher’s viewpoint, Kaplan furnishes the ‘bottom line’ of his study:

Any language has to be learned as an entity whose only logic is internal. The student needs to be taught the “logic” which is reflected in the rhetoric in the same way that he has had to learn to “logic” reflected in the grammatical patterns.

A closer approach, at least for many of your students, to THE WORD may be accomplished by the narrow road of rhetoric. But remember, please, that at this stage you are not merely teaching the student to manipulate language – you are actually teaching him to see the world through English-coloured glasses. In doing so you run the very serious risk of being legitimately accused of brainwashing (p. 16).

Leki (1991), besides the accolades she attaches to Kaplan’s (1966) revolutionary study, usher in a new era in cross-cultural rhetorical analysis, does not mince words to exposes two disputable aspects of his work (p. 123). On the one hand, she describes Kaplan’s empirical contribution as mainly exploratory, predicated more on intuitive observations rather than on scientifically grounded ones. On the other hand, Leki also points to the apparently irresolvable tension between the attitude to the teaching of L2 composition

skills as understood by contrastive rhetoric and the process oriented interpretation of writing teaching prevalent in communicative pedagogical frameworks. Partly speaking on behalf of those embracing the principles of process-oriented writing instruction, Leki notes that contrastive rhetoric appears to restrict its research focus exclusively to the product, neglecting the rhetorical context background of L2 writers, as well as the developmental stages they may have been through. To touch on yet another objection to contrastive rhetoric commonly raised by proponents of the process approach, the author points out that traditional contrastive rhetoric is very often felt to foist certain patterns upon learners, frequently exuding an air of cultural superiority.

Despite showcasing the perceived or real weaknesses of contrastive rhetoric, Leki (1991) also tries to make sure to present a balanced and unbiased overview of the ripples this school of thought has set off since its emergence in the late 1960s (pp. 124-125). Foregrounding ESL graduate students studying in English speaking countries, she argues that it would be preposterous to disregard the rhetorical experience these students 'import' into the L2 writing classroom. She also makes haste to overthrow the assumption that rhetorical strategies may not be transferred from L1 into L2. Starting out from the premise that, although different disciplines are said to have developed their own discourse conventions even within the same language and culture, writers can easily move between these discourse communities and apply or adjust their rhetorical strategies accordingly, similarly there should no impediment for L2 writers to transfer L1 writing skills across languages. Adopting a predominantly historical perspective, Leki describes the first two decades of contrastive rhetoric as mainly intuitive, oftentimes focused on isolated occurrences, and thus rendering observations inapplicable in a wider discourse context (p. 125). As opposed to this torpor in terms of having any powerful impact on instruction and material development, the contrastive

rhetoric of the 1980s and onwards are shown to be characterised by an ever growing awareness of discourse cohesion, moving beyond surface-level observations, as well as aiming for generalisability and quantifiability (p. 126). In spite of this shift in the scope of contrastive rhetoric research, Leki still points to a somewhat fossilised and static understanding of writing conventions in English and laments the widespread use of recommendations based on model texts and style manuals. Harking back to the issue of generalisability, the author warns that meaningful comparability across languages and cultures is not always ensured, as there could be certain genres that are expressly peculiar of one particular culture, but seldom occurs in another one. To highlight the pedagogical implications of the philosophically embedded differences between contrastive rhetoric and a process oriented approach referred to above, Leki recapitulates the main divisions between these two traditions along the following lines:

A writing pedagogy that embraces the textual orientation of contrastive rhetoric would work actively to foster the construction in students of rhetorical schemata which hopefully correspond to those of English-speaking readers. A difference, then, between such a pedagogy and one less likely to be interested in contrastive rhetoric findings, a process orientation, for example, would centre on the approach taken for the development of schemata. A textual orientation suggests that schemata can be directly taught while a process orientation would hope to induce the construction of schemata indirectly, perhaps through student contact with target language (or, more precisely, target discourse community) readings. A process pedagogy appears to assume that schemata are or can be absorbed unconsciously, perhaps in somewhat the same way as comprehensible input is thought to promote acquisition of grammatical forms [...]. In a process-oriented classroom, if L2 readings are used, they do not typically serve as examples of successful target language communication but rather as sources for ideas or touchstones for personal interactions and reactions. Their content is to be evaluated against personal experience (p. 135).

To complete the juxtaposition of contrastive rhetoric, which is presented as a predominantly textual approach, and process orientation, Leki (1991), in an attempt to dispel any unfounded prejudices about the textual approach and, thus, contrastive



rhetoric at large, emphasises that its primary focus is not on form but rather on audience (p. 135). To further buttress the case for the pedagogical utility of contrastive rhetoric, the author argues that drawing learners' attention to L1 rhetorical schemata can enhance awareness of their writing practices in English (pp. 137-138). She also adds that keeping an eye on the findings of contrastive rhetoric helps bear in mind that rhetorical structures do not exist in isolation but are associated with a particular culture.

Severino (1993) goes even further in issuing qualifying labels for contrastive rhetoric. She appears to put forward some critical remarks about the apparently arbitrary nature of typecasting writers as representing one or another cultural tradition, inevitably suggesting an approach that does not particularly seem to take stock of the variations existing even within a single cultural or geographical tradition (pp. 44-45). Taking a scrutinising look at Kaplan's (1966) theory, Severino launches attacks against this archetypal construct of contrastive rhetoric on a number of fronts. First of all, she argues that in identifying 'Cultural Thought Patterns', Kaplan concentrated primarily on paragraph structure and not on any more extended stretches of discourse. Secondly, she objects to Kaplan's lack of distinction between thought patterns and rhetorical patterns. As Severino explains, applying the latter term to refer to patterns in finalised pieces of writing fails to consider the series of changes that might transpire during the process of cyclical revision and the production of multiple drafts. Another area of Severino's criticism of Kaplan's study focuses on a number of deficiencies, such as disregard for language backgrounds, gender, age, social class and geographical diversity. The author sounds particularly astringent in condemning Kaplan's assimilationist attitude when it comes to inculcating the patterns of English essay construction into foreigners' minds and the prescriptive researcher behaviour he display when, despite calling for further investigations, he seems to promulgate his own collection of exercises.

Yet another critique of Kaplan's harking back to a template of thought patterns to account for any differences in native and non-native composition is voiced by Cahill (2003):

If, for example, Asian student writing is often strange and difficult to understand for native English-speaking readers, it is not necessarily due to differences between Eastern and Western "thought patterns" but might be due instead to the sheer difficulty of learning the conventions of academic writing in any new language (as it already is in one's native language). Indeed, research in developmental theories of writing suggest that what appear to be foreign-like features in ESL students' compositions and attributed to cross-cultural transfer actually manifest the cognitive sequence of stages that all second-language writers must traverse between the first and second languages (p. 172).

Adopting a perspective similar to that of Leki (1991), Connor (2002), over a decade later, also highlights the most significant milestones in the history of contrastive rhetoric, shifting the focus to more recent developments in the field. One of the major tenets of contrastive rhetoric, as Connor points out, is that texts are not simply static products but 'functional parts of dynamic cultural contexts' (p. 493). In line with definitions framed in Kaplan's (1966) groundbreaking paper, Connor captures the essence of contrastive rhetoric by asserting that languages and language usage are culturally imbedded phenomena, resulting in different rhetorical patterns in different cultures. She also remarks that prior experience with discourse strategies in one's L1 may be transferred to L2, thus bringing about interference at a rhetorical level (p. 494). Regarding the concept of linguistic relativity (cf. Connor, 1996; Gumperz and Levinson, 1996), referring to its ever growing currency in modern linguistics and social studies, Connor (2002) suggests that there is a link between language and thought, a relationship she describes as based on influence rather than on control (p. 495). She quotes Ying's (2000) dismissal of the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity as an offshoot of linguistic determinism and the recasting of Kaplan's (1966) understanding of contrastive rhetoric as devoid of

any determinative views. Connor also goes on to report on the repercussions of Ying's claim of Kaplan's disassociation from the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis by disclosing some details of a dispute between Ying and Matsuda (2001), wherein the latter alludes to a personal communication with Kaplan revealing that, contrary to Ying's (2000) allegation, Kaplan was affected and guided by three major influences, namely, by contrastive analysis, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis and the then fledgling field of inquiry, composition and rhetoric.

After disambiguating the sometimes controversial circumstances of the inception of contrastive rhetoric, Connor (2002) continues with an overview of the research methodological and empirical orientations of the field. She underscores the initial hegemony of text analytical research methods and points to the weakness stemming from exclusive reliance on that research paradigm, i.e. decontextualised analyses of texts. However, the author makes sure to note that even at this early stage of contrastive analytical investigations, some researchers, such as Hinds (1987) ventured as far as to treat a research orientation based only on parameters of coherence and cohesion with a pinch of salt and promoted a cross-cultural comparative perspective. To foster a better understanding of the chain of shifts in empirical focus that shaped contrastive rhetoric during its first 30 years, Connor offers the following historical synthesis:

Contrastive studies of academic and professional genres and of the socialization into these genres of L2 writers were a natural development in L2 writing research. Following the lead of L1 writing research and pedagogy, in which the 1970s were said to be the decade of the composing process and the 1980s the decade of social construction, empirical research on L2 writing in the 1990s became increasingly concerned with social and cultural processes in cross-cultural undergraduate writing groups and classes (Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Carson & Nelson, 1994, 1996; Connor & Asenavage, 1994; Nelson & Carson, 1998), with the initiation and socialization processes that graduate students go through to become literate professionals in their graduate and professional discourse communities (Belcher, 1994; Casanave, 1995; Connor & Kramer, 1995; Connor & Mayberry, 1995; Prior, 1995; Swales, 1990), and, finally, with the processes and products of

L2 academics and professional writing in English as a second or foreign language for publication and other professional purposes (Belcher & Connor, 2001; Braine, 1998; Connor et al., 1995; Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Flowerdew, 1999; Gosden, 1992) (p. 497).

In a sense representing discontinuation of the scholarly tradition of contrastive rhetoric, the evolution and sundry ramifications of which have been presented in some detail so far, Donahue (2008) appears to have a less conventional take on the issue of cultural divergence and convergence in composition writing settings. Her cross-cultural analytical perspective, although not completely weaned off the empirical frameworks of contrastive rhetoric, is more heavily informed by the insights of discourse analysis and critical linguistics, functional linguistics and Bakhtinian dialogics (p. 319). Granting prominence to unit analysis, reprise modification and textual movement, Donahue underscores the demand to embed cross-cultural research of discourse in an empirical context which employs a 'broader cross-cultural methodological base' (p. 319). On the basis of her results obtained from a circumspect analysis of 250 post-secondary student essays in France and in the US, the author concludes that the institution, the type of assignment, students' general academic performance and the background readings supporting preparation for the essay writing task could be seen more as tell-tale signs of particular discourse structures than cultural influences deriving from a particular national contexts.

### **2.3. Previous research into formal academic talk**

Research into formal academic talk may be divided into two categories: one focusing on oral presentations in educational settings and the other examining oral presentations as they are practiced at professional conferences. Although one of the major undertakings

of the proposed study is to produce a detailed description of English oral academic presentations (OAP) as they occur at an institution of tertiary education in a Hungarian EFL context, findings from both types of research will be presented and interpreted here. This attention to OAPs both in an educational and a conference setting may be accounted for, on the one hand, by the fact that despite some obvious functional differences these two subtypes of the same genre share a large number of structural/rhetorical and linguistic features, and, on the other hand, by the argument raised by Kim (2006) pointing to the relevance of oral presentation skills from the point of view of students' future professional engagements:

... students perceive presentation skills to be important for their educational and professional life, applicable to their roles as conference presenters, teachers, and students (p. 485).

Morita's (2000) study, referred to earlier, with an overtly discourse socialisation perspective on OAPs in a TESL graduate programme for native and non-native speakers of English targeted the goals, the learning process related benefits and the indispensable components of the OAP, as well as the possible difficulties associated by students with this classroom activity. Her chiefly ethnographic research design was meant to obtain a thick description of the OAP context by means of interpreting data from classroom observations, video recordings, interviews with students and instructors and questionnaires filled out by students. Concerning the goals of the observed OAPs, interviews with teachers revealed that the analysed OAPs served the purpose of analytical and critical reading and thinking, presenting multiple views on class topics, initiating discussion, and practising for conference-type academic presentations (pp. 287-288). As for the OAP's bearing on the learning process,

students' responses suggested that the major utilities consisted in negotiating about instructors' expectations, preparing for OAPs, observing and performing OAPs and reviewing OAPs (pp. 294-297). With regard to students' perceived difficulties with the OAP, Morita identified three sources: linguistic, sociocultural and psychological. Generally speaking, lack of confidence was a hurdle to be overcome by non-native participants although some native students also admitted to such problems, albeit to a lesser extent (pp 298-299). As a strategy to compensate for perceived handicaps stemming from language proficiency deficiencies, non-native students reported making some additional written notes, rehearsing before delivery and putting relatively more effort into compiling a well-structured handout. Respecting the indispensable elements of a good OAP as defined by the participating teachers and students, Morita's findings boil down to thirteen key terms: summary, critique, implications, relevance, epistemic stance, emotional engagement, novelty, immediacy, conflict/tension, support items, audience involvement, delivery, time management (pp. 300-302).

Jordan (1997) defines oral presentations as a short talk, in particular, given by mostly postgraduate students often carrying out research, 'on some aspect of their studies or research' (p. 201). In his overview of empirically-based pedagogical recommendations concerning the teaching of presentation skills, Jordan quotes Price's (1977) model of the oral presentation composed of five main stages:

1. general introduction
2. statement of intention
3. information in detail
4. conclusion
5. invitation to discuss (p. 201).

Another pedagogically relevant study discussed by Jordan (1997) is by Nesi and Skelton (1987) sketching some ideas for an exemplary talk to be given by lecturers for

students to receive some input on structuring oral presentations and signalling structural units during delivery. The outline proposed by the two authors is organised around three major stages: introduction, body and conclusion. The first stage is to contain statements on content and procedure, the second stage is taken up by listing main points and framing or focusing each of those points, while the third stage is to fulfil the function of summarising (p. 202). Moreover, Nesi and Skelton devote a decent proportion of their study to the treatment of signalling devices, the use of which they deem to be essential by students from the point of view of aiding the presenter in organising and the audience in keeping abreast with the content of the presentation.

Besides emphasising the importance of giving students guidance in preparing for oral presentations, Jordan (1997) also broaches the problem of self-confidence. By making recourse to an earlier work of his (Jordan, 1990(b)), the author argues that problem solving discussion activities, with as little as possible teacher participation, may come in hand in creating classroom conditions that are conducive to boosting students' self-confidence. Describing 'pyramid discussion' activities, Jordan points to their instructional and psychological benefits:

These involve students making choices from a list of items within a given theme or subject. It is an ideal activity for practising spoken language in any academic discipline, and helps to develop self-confidence and fluency. (p. 203)

Jordan (1997) also notes that apart from a lack of self-confidence, another major drawback that can impinge on students' readiness to engage in full-blown oral presentations is students' insufficient core fluency. (For a detailed treatment of core fluency, see Chimside (1986).) As an integrated method to remedy the problems discussed above, Jordan advocates Lynch's (1988(a)) approach stressing the significance of the interaction between the presenter and the audience (p. 203). Lynch promotes the idea of

peer evaluation for reasons such as giving priority to the role of communication between and among students, highlighting the need for intelligibility in a non-native context, providing feedback on the audience's comprehension and processing of the presenters' message and ensuring that there is a variety of views when it comes to assessment.

To continue the list of difficulties students face when trying to function orally in an academic environment, Jordan (1997) goes on to discuss the issue of data verbalisation. Although he argues that interpreting non-verbal data, such as cardinal and ordinal numbers, percentages, fractions, decimals and formulae, is typically associated with sciences and technology, dismissing the problem of providing assistance to students of arts and humanities as nugatory, he also concedes that students of social sciences may in fact need practice with verbalising various types of graphic data sources, like diagrams, tables, charts and graphs. (pp. 204-205). In relation to the research focus of the present dissertation, the author's remarks on this latter category may prove to be highly relevant considering the fact that students participating in the project are required to give their interpretations and analyses of journal articles in the field of applied linguistics or language pedagogy, both of which disciplines customarily employ research frameworks originally developed for social science research settings.

To conclude the series of the potential difficulties experienced by students in EAP settings, Jordan (1997) cites two problem areas also addressed by Hewings (1988), namely word pronunciation and word stress (p. 205). Evaluating Hewings's (1993a) language laboratory practice framework consisting of peer group teaching and a tape exchange scheme, designed to treat these two frequently occurring speech problems, Jordan labels it useful and effective, notwithstanding the fact that it is rather time consuming, an apparent weakness conceded by Hewings himself.



An empirical study, treating formal speaking in class, the theoretical properties of which have been briefly delineated earlier in this chapter, adopted a similar research methodology to that of Morita (2000) applying it to a different population both in terms of age and geography and L1 background. Baxter (2000) employed an ethnographic framework to attain an overview of the prevalent practices and expectations that characterise student behaviour during formal speaking tasks at secondary schools in Britain. Her case study involved getting 24 students to participate in three oral activities: a problem-solving discussion led by students, an oral presentation given by pairs and a whole class discussion conducted by the teacher. Besides the video recordings of these activities, Baxter also collected data through student interviews and a teacher interview. Her description of the 'effective speaker' (see a detailed discussion in 2.1 above), although understandably lacking the features associated exclusively with academic discourse at tertiary level, in a number of ways bears a striking resemblance to the presenter-related attributes in Morita's (2000) conceptualisation of a good presentation.

As has been shown by Morita's (2000) and Baxter's (2000) studies, oral presentations in educational settings display formal and informal elements alike. Webber (2005) endeavouring to uncover the interactive features of conference presentations arrived at the conclusion that the strictly stipulated structure of monologues at medical conferences did not preclude the utilisation of techniques characteristic of the conversational mode (p. 158). Capitalising on Ziman's (1974) model of the social production of science, the author chose to concentrate on audience-oriented and interactionally motivated conversational features, such as personal deictics, markers and imprecise quantifiers (p. 159). Her selection of the three categories of interactive devices is partially reminiscent of the research focus adopted by Heino,

Tevonen and Tommola (2002) who investigated the use of metadiscourse signals in conferences. The spoken corpus of Webber's study was composed of seven plenaries and seven paper presentations delivered at international medical conferences. As one of the main conclusion of the research project, she emphasises that the major purpose of conference presentations is to negotiate information in a cooperative and consensual atmosphere achieved by switches between formal language and more conversational styles (p. 174). She also proposes that techniques of transition between these two registers should be explicitly taught to students trying to understand or even aspiring to give conference talks.

In a sense parallel to Heino, Tevonen and Tommola's (2002) focus on the features of metadiscourse in conference presentations, Swales (2001) makes an impressive attempt at narrowing down on the characteristics of metatalk in academic talk in US university settings. To set the stage for his exploration and provide rationale for his research foci, he takes a comparative view at the empirical study of academic writing and academic talk and identifies three clusters of issues that clearly set investigation into academic talk, irrespective of specific speech events, apart from the analysis of written academic genres (p. 34). Firstly, Swales points to the disturbing mismatch between the relatively modest samples of academic talk and the considerably larger actual number of speech events as well as the structural, functional and stylistic diversity characterising the latter. Secondly, the author stresses the fact that academic speech definitely seems to more easily lend itself to evincing hardships and problems the speaker runs into during his or her talk than in academic writing (e.g. apologies, admitting mistakes, owning up to errors, etc.). Thirdly, Swales hypothesises that there is marked tendency in academic talk to signpost and signal stages of discourse, as well as indication of directions both cataphorically and anaphorically. (This assumption is later on confirmed backed by the

adduced empirical evidence in Swales and Malczewski, 2001). To further expand on this third trait of academic speech, Swales singles out a relatively small group of linguistic exponents capable of signalling stages and relations in an academic presentation. He chooses to concentrate on the discussive uses of a handful of nominal phrases: *question*, *problem*, *issue*, *point* and *thing*, based on frequency measures. To account for the potential interest these items might offer to the researcher, Swales supplies the following justification smoothly situated in previous research findings:

These uses—that is, their orchestrating roles in academic discourse management, their linking of prior to imminent utterances, and their functions in commenting on and “pointing up” aspects of the discussion that the speaker feels salient—emerge as of greatest interest to the analyst on both descriptive and practical pedagogical levels. They form part of what has been called either “Vocabulary 3” (Hoey 1983) or “summary words” (Swales and Feak 1994) and typically perform important anaphoric and cataphoric functions. They are often self-reflexive (“my point is . . .”) or overtly intertextual (“turning now to your second point”) and in these uses form part of metadiscourse, which has become an area of great interest to those concerned with academic prose over the past decade or so (e.g., Mauranen 1993). As Barton (1996) has observed, metadiscourse is being increasingly recognized as what she calls a “rich feature,” that is, a discursive characteristic that can serve to distinguish one class of discourses from another and also to relate those distinguishing aspects to contextual factors (p. 35).

Not denying that considerably less is known about the patterns of reflexivity, retrospection and prospection of academic speakers than of academic writers, Swales (2001) volunteers to delve into the usage of two words, unequivocally more typical of academic oracy than of written academic discourse, namely ‘point’ and ‘thing’. His corpus-based analysis carried out on the Michigan Corpus of Academic Speech in English (MICASE) (700,000 words strong at that time) reveals that apart from the ‘surface’ findings, such as ‘thing’ featuring as the most common of the lexical items concerned, and ‘point’ coming six in the same ranking, the discussive use of ‘thing’ and ‘point’ represents only a minor fraction of all occurrences (p.50). It also becomes evident that occurrences and usages of these two lexical items may most often be

accounted for with reference to specific genre-related properties and not merely by the academic nature of the context they emerge in. An interesting recognition made by the researcher concerns the function of ‘point’ in monologues, which frequently fulfils a self-referring and advance signalling purpose. Conversely, in dialogues, ‘point’ is shown to provide external allusions, especially to prior discourse or to furnish explanatory inserts on previously produced utterances. At the same time, ‘thing’ seems to be more impervious to genres and is indicative of predominantly ideolectal preference. Ultimately, Swales raises some controversies around the teachability of such discussives or the question of necessity of teaching such items to non-native speaker academics or academic aspirants. The author, however, apparently leaves this query unresolved.

When it comes to equipping presenter with some concrete advice, Edwards, McMasters, Acland, Papp and Garrison (1997) appear to be considerably more recipe-like. Besides highlighting the importance of clarity, easily understandable methods, interpretable data and scientific implications, the authors, in their article intended as a collection of recommendations and tips for presenters at surgical meeting, also foreground the speaker-audience relationship (p. 87).

An even more straightforward attitude vis-à-vis engaging the audience is voiced by Vickers (1997). His recommendations are based on the emphasis on form (‘how you say something’) as opposed to content (‘what you say’) or even practicalities (‘evaluating how you did’) (p. 175). After clarifying his guiding perspective, he continues to supply presenters with the ‘Three Golden Rules of Presenting’:

1. Engage your audience
2. Tell a story
3. Clear words, clear slides (p. 175).

The first of these rules is most directly associated with a series of conscious efforts on part of the presenter to maintain his or her listener's attention by means of taking up various postures fitting individual sections of the talk, reinforcing emphatic points with gestures and facial expressions, as well as adding some variety in terms of the melody and acoustics. Thus, by highlighting these rhetorical features, which the author implicitly describes as signs of informal language behaviour, he likens good conference presentations to conversations with friends.

The second rule, telling a story, is shown to be synonymous with moulding one's messages into a narrative framework entailing logical progression over the entire talk and organising individual sections into a unifying structure, which permits listeners to anticipate and retrieve information (pp. 176-176).

The third rule, centred around the notion of clarity, lays emphasis on voice projection and considerations of visual delivery. Vickers (1997) also stresses the importance of determining the underlying function of visual materials (p. 176). He argues that visual aids meant to serve the purpose of illustration and of summarising call for different layouts respectively. As a corollary of the three rules delineated above, it is asserted that on-going interaction at a conference presentation between presenter and audience, and presenter and material is essential (pp. 176-177).

## 3. Method

### 3.1. Research questions

The underlying aim of the research project is to attain a qualitative and hypothesis generating description of a widely practiced but little investigated genre, the OAP. To this end, it was considered to be essential to extensively explore the relevant educational and discourse environments, namely EAP in more general terms, the place of the OAP within EAP, and existing practices regarding the OAP in a specific environment, at the School of English and American Studies of Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest (SEAS, ELTE). This study seeks answers to eight research questions. The first two research questions were meant to produce some preliminary data regarding the different types of academic speech events occurring at the seminar courses offered by the five departments of SEAS, ELTE. In the framework of the current study the term “speech event” is to be understood as denoting “activities ... that are directly governed by rules or norms for the use of speech” (Hymes, 1972, p. 56). This overview of speech events is intended to enable a conclusive treatment of the remaining six questions. In this vein, research questions 1 and 2 constitute the initial stage of the inquiry, whereas research questions 3-8 represent the main part of the investigation aiming at acquiring a detailed description of the Oral Academic Presentation (OAP) as practiced at first year academic skills courses at SEAS, ELTE. This larger part has been broken down into two stages: a discourse analytical stage describing structural, qualitative, sociocommunicative and interactional phenomena, and a context- and needs analysis stage elucidating the relationship between the observed phenomena and the underlying curricular, pedagogical, sociocultural and cognitive factors. Hence, the various stages constituting and the research questions governing the research are as follows:

Stage I: a questionnaire study with students and instructors

1. What kind of academic speech events are students of English at SEAS, ELTE expected to perform during their studies?
2. How is the OAP rated in terms of frequency and perceived importance according to teachers of SEAS, ELTE, on the one hand, and students, on the other hand?

Stage II: Discourse Analysis

3. Relying on Morita's (2000) model, what are the key structural units and qualitative features of OAPs as practiced in Academic Skills classes?
4. What features of discourse socialization as identified by Morita (2000) are expressed in the OAPs produced in the Academic Skills classes under analysis?
5. What interactive features are represented in the OAPs produced in Academic Skills classes?

Stage III: Analysis of context and needs (document analysis and interview study)

6. What type of formal instruction do students performing the OAPs under analysis receive?

7. What challenges do students in Academic Skills groups face in terms of disambiguating norms and expectations regarding OAPs in English in a Hungarian educational setting?

8a. What are the instructors' pedagogical goals in and views on teaching presentation skills?

8b. What are the difficulties they encounter during the process of instruction on and production of OAPs?

## **3.2. Research design**

### **3.2.1. Participants and setting**

#### **3.2.1.1. Stage I: The questionnaire study**

The population from which the participants for the study were selected was students and instructors at SEAS, ELTE. As the research questions targeted different segments of this population, the researcher worked with different subgroups of this population in accordance with the scope determined in the corresponding research question.

The respondents for the preliminary questionnaire targeting the frequency and perceived importance of academic speech events practiced in classes offered by SEAS, ELTE from the students' viewpoint were 50 students studying as English majors at the institute. In order to ensure that a relatively wide cross-section of the population in question would be involved in the survey, 25 questionnaires were administered to



students in the second or third year of their studies and another 25 to students in the fourth or fifth year of their studies. Questionnaires were distributed at the courses the respondents attended. First-year students were excluded from the survey as they do not have sufficient experience to be able to answer the questions of the questionnaire.

Respondents of the preliminary questionnaire focusing on instructors' perspectives on the same items as the ones in the survey described in the previous paragraph were teachers working for SEAS, ELTE. All instructors teaching at the five departments of SEAS (Department of American Studies, Department of English Applied Linguistics, Department of English Language Pedagogy, Department of English Linguistics and Department of English Studies) were included in the survey. Therefore, the questionnaires were sent to all the instructors' e-mail addresses made available by the Institute's homepage.

### **3.2.1.2. Stage II: Discourse analysis of OAPs**

For the research questions focusing on the structural properties, discourse socialization-related aspects and the interactive features of OAPs at SEAS, ELTE, digitally recorded audio data were collected in six groups of first year students studying Academic Skills as part of their English major education. Academic Skills is a compulsory subject for all students wishing to earn a BA or an MA degree in English at SEAS, ELTE. The course is offered by the Department of English Applied Linguistics and the subject matter is divided into two semesters of instruction. Based on a departmental consensus, the syllabus is designed in a way that virtually all skill areas considered as basic prerequisites for academic success are covered in a cyclical fashion during the two semesters. These skill areas include reading comprehension and summarising, writing

coherent paragraphs and essays, argumentation, oral presentation, using sources and note taking. Classes take the form of seminar and are held in 90 minute sessions once a week. The ordinary registration quota for such seminars is 12, which is usually reached as groups are launched in proportion to the number of first year students. One of the reasons that motivated the researcher to choose members of Academic Skills groups as the participants for the main part of the proposed research project was the fact that this is the only mandatory course at SEAS, ELTE where the course syllabus expressly states that the OAP as an academic genre is explicitly taught and practiced. At the same time, for a better comparability of results, relative uniformity in terms of instructional goals and procedures, as well as the homogeneity of group composition seemed to justify the selection of students in the same year of their studies and attending the same type of course. The Department of English Applied Linguistics provides 12-15 Academic Skills groups on average per term. The five groups in which data were collected were taught by three different instructors.

### **3.2.1.3. Stage III: The interview study**

In connection with research question 7, ten students were asked to participate in interviews and express their ideas concerning difficulties arising around the interpretation of norms and expectations related to the OAPs in the socioculturally multivariate environment in which they studied. The ten participating students were picked on the basis of availability and willingness to contribute from the groups in which recordings were made.

In relation to research question 8, the three instructors who taught the classes where audio data were collected were interviewed. All three participating teachers were MA-

holders in English, working for the Department of English Applied Linguistics. One of them was a non-native novice teacher, having taught mostly first-year students at the Department for the past two years. The second teacher was a non-native senior staff member teaching a variety of courses including introductory as well as advanced academic skills, and specialisation courses in applied linguistics. The third instructor was a senior native speaker teacher offering academic skills development classes at different levels and teaching various ESP courses.

### **3.3. Research instruments and data collection**

From a research methodological point of view, the research dominantly relied on instruments of data collection that presuppose a predominantly qualitative and heuristic research design. In this sense, the data collection tool used with reference to research questions 1 and 2 was an exception as questionnaire data were processed statistically to gain preliminary insights into the relevant aspects of the research environment.

#### **3.3.1. Questionnaire**

Information on the types, frequency and perceived importance of academic speech events occurring at the courses run by SEAS, ELTE was gained by means of a questionnaire, which was processed statistically. The questionnaire had been adapted from Ferris and Tagg (1996). With regard to content-related modifications, the survey employed in the preliminary phase of the study had a different introductory part requesting biographic information, more relevant from the point of the aims of the current research (see Appendix 1). Two different biographic data sections were

compiled to suit the academic circumstances that of teachers and students, respectively. Another noticeable content-related modification concerned the omission of the sections entitled 'ESL Students' Difficulties in Oral Skills' and 'Oral Skills ESL Students Need Work On' in Ferris and Tagg's (1996, 56-57) questionnaire, as the main objective and scope of the two researchers' study were different from those of the current dissertation.

A further change to the adapted questionnaire was made with respect to its structure. The pilot study, in which three students and three instructors from three different departments had participated, revealed that using two different scales for the two dimensions (i.e. Likert-scale for the frequency dimension and ranking for the importance dimension) would prove to be somewhat confusing. Thus, items belonging to the second dimension were converted into a Likert-scale format, similar to the one appearing in the section on frequencies (see Appendix A and B). In addition to all these adjustments, it was decided that, with an eye to the comparability of results, both the tutor questionnaire and the student questionnaire would be in English, despite the fact that the first language of the members of the latter sample was invariably Hungarian. However, this did not in any way distort survey data collected from students as the English proficiency of students at SEAS, ELTE normally is expected to be near-native.

As the survey had already been validated and used by the researcher in a research project, with a similar profile but on smaller scale, implemented at the Faculty of Law of Pázmány Péter Catholic University in 2004, the instrument was expected to function in a reliable and valid manner (Veljanovszki, 2007).

### **3.3.2. Recordings of OAPs**

In an attempt to acquire data on the aspects dealt with in research questions 3, 4 and 5, recordings were made in the five Academic Skills groups described in Section 3.2.1 over a one semester period. Each student attending an Academic Skills course is required to give an approximately 10-15 minute long oral presentation summarising the main points of an applied linguistics research article set by the course tutor and adding critical comments and raising thought-provoking questions. Students were approached on a voluntary basis and were asked for their consent so that their OAPs might be recorded and the recording could be used for research purposes. Students were assured that anonymity would be respected and the use of the recordings of their oral presentations would in no way affect their assessment for the course. Recordings were made with a help of digital recording devices and were subsequently transcribed. With attention to eventual refusal to supply data and attrition factors, a minimum of 30-35 recordings as a data size allowing for meaningful analysis, comparison and defensible conclusions was envisaged.

### **3.3.3. Documents**

In order to find out what type of explicit instruction and guidelines participating students receive on giving oral presentations in the framework of the Academic Skills course (research question 6), teacher participants were asked to submit the course syllabus they used and the handouts they distributed in their groups on the occasions devoted to presentation techniques. The materials were photocopied to make subsequent analysis possible.

### **3.3.4. Interviews with students**

In order to explore the ambiguities that presumably surround conflicting expectations and norms governing OAPs at SEAS, ELTE, ten students were interviewed (see Section 3.2.1.3). The duration of a single interview was approximately 15 minutes on average. As employing a rigid interview structure would certainly have forestalled the free formulation of relevant ideas and invaluable insights, a semi-structured interview protocol was applied. Informed by the largely theoretical points raised by research on identity in written discourse, the semi-structured interview was governed by three foci:

1. students' prior/parallel experience in delivering OAPs in a Hungarian educational setting (including secondary school)
2. comments on the criteria students are supposed to fulfil in the Academic Skills course
3. unveiling possible conflicts between prior experience with preparing for and delivering OAPs and the current requirements.

Interviews were audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed for analysis.

### **3.3.5. Interviews with teachers**

The two sub-questions within research question 8 (see Section 3.1) centred around the participating teachers' philosophies of and perceived difficulties with teaching and practising OAP techniques with groups also seemed to be most easily manageable through semi-structured interviews. The participating course tutors were requested to disclose their perspectives organised around two major headings:

1. the use of teaching and producing OAPs from the point of view of students' future academic/professional career
2. areas of difficulty teachers teaching OAP techniques must be aware of and some tips to combat those problems

Similarly to the student interviews, the interviews conducted with teachers were audio-recorded and transcribed.

### **3.4. Analytical frameworks**

The study involved a combination of quantitative and qualitative analytical methods depending on the type of instrument with the help of which data were gathered.

#### **3.4.1. Statistical analysis of questionnaire data**

Responses in the questionnaire (except for the biographic data section) were analysed statistically with the use of the software Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Respondents were numerically coded, and for each respondent the responses given for both the frequency and the importance dimension were tabulated. The answers were converted into non-parametric numeric values along the following lines. For frequency data: 'always' = 4, 'often' = 3, 'sometimes' = 2, 'never' = 1. For the dimension of importance: 'extremely important' = 5, 'very important' = 4, 'fairly important' = 3, 'not really important' = 2, 'completely unimportant' = 1. Although one might argue against the comparability of the two scales saying that whereas the former is a five-point scale (for items 15-25), the latter utilises only four digits (for items 4-14), the reason for

choosing to employ two slightly different scales is to be sought in conventions, as well as in the considerations dictated by common sense: while the concept of frequency is ordinarily captured in terms of ‘always’, ‘often’, ‘sometimes’, and ‘never’, a Likert-scale, which is based on non-parametric members, is most easily manageable in a Hungarian context via analogy to the five-grade academic assessment system. Admittedly, however, it has to be kept in mind that upon correlating values for the two dimensions, minor distortions may arise as a consequence of this discrepancy between the coding of the two sets of data. Altogether 22 variables were entered into the software programme along with the numeric values pertaining to them. In order to set up a rank order of the most frequently occurring academic speech events, the mean was calculated for both dimensions separately. To obtain a comparative description of the frequency and the importance dimension, the two-tailed Spearman correlation test was applied.

### **3.4.2. Procedures for analysing OAPs**

As one of the fundamental approaches underscoring the theoretical premises of the proposed study is discourse socialisation, it seems apposite that the analytical frameworks meant to describe the structural properties and socialisation-related peculiarities of the OAPs under examination should come from a school of thought that champions this perspective. In view of this background, it has been decided that Morita’s (2000) model of the structural and qualitative key features of OAPs would be appropriate to identify the major structural elements of the OAPs recorded for the proposed project. This model consists of the following structural components:



- Summary
- Critique
- Implications (i.e. pedagogical and research implications)
- Relevance (i.e. personal links, relating the topic to the audience members' experiences)
- Epistemic stance (i.e. showing credibility)
- Emotional engagement
- Novelty
- Immediacy (i.e. urgency of the issue)
- Conflict/tension (i.e. stimulating the audience intellectually)
- Support items (e.g. the use of handouts, visual aids and illustrations)
- Audience involvement
- Delivery (e.g. eye contact, gestures, characteristics of one's speech)
- Time management (i.e. consciousness of and flexibility with time)

Although the model does contain some features related to the socio-communicative aspects of OAPs, as the subsequent step of the analysis, three signals representing the process of discourse socialisation were more closely scrutinised in line with Morita (2000):

1. Epistemic stance (i.e. the presenter's ability to give his or her own analysis and critique; two possible roles the speaker may take: that of the relative expert and that of the relative novice (Morita, 2000, 289-290).
2. Strategies to engage the audience (i.e. the presenter's efforts to involve the audience by establishing personal connections to the subject of the presentation, by suggesting a

sense of novelty or by openly enunciating his or her standpoint on a controversial issue (Morita, 2000, 291-292).

3. Social collaboration (i.e. "dynamic interaction and collaboration among participants representing multiple roles, voices, and levels of expertise" (Morita, 2000, 292).

As opposed to the structural and qualitative discourse analytical procedures described above, the interactive features of the recorded OAPs were identified by means of the linguistic analysis of personal deictics, markers and imprecise quantifiers based on Webber (2005). For a list of the linguistic exponents of the three categories see *Table 4 (Interactive features and their linguistics exponents in OAPs based on Webber (2005))* below:

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>Linguistic exponents</b>
Personal deictics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Second person pronouns</li> <li>• First person pronouns (environments in which they typically occur: down-toning adverbs (e.g. <i>just, perhaps, a little, a few, briefly</i>), past progressive for the reporting verb, <i>namely</i>, inclusive imperative (i.e. <i>let's</i>))</li> </ul>
Markers	<p style="text-align: center;"><i>now, well, so, thing,</i> Consecutive adjuncts</p>
Imprecise quantifiers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Approximators (e.g. <i>about, approximately, rather, a little</i>)</li> <li>• Other, less frequent types (e.g. <i>a bunch of, somewhat, some + numeral, nothing much, pretty much</i>)</li> </ul>

*Table 4: Interactive features and their linguistics exponents in OAPs based on Webber (2005)*

So as to produce an inventory of the interactive features adopted from Webber (2005), the occurrences of their linguistic exponents were counted in the transcribed OAPs and the results were interpreted with reference to Webber's findings.

### **3.4.3. Document analysis**

The course syllabi for the Academic Skills courses where the recordings were made and the handouts covering oral presentation techniques were read through extensively searching for any explicitly stated structural, rhetorical, linguistic or technical principles or recommendations aimed to provide students with assistance in thinking about, preparing for and delivering their OAPs. The documents were reviewed qualitatively, and a comprehensive summary of the relevant points were put together on the basis of the notes taken during the process.

### **3.4.4. Analysing interviews**

The semi-structured interviews conducted with the participating students and teachers were analysed qualitatively using the major headings discussed in sections 3.3.4 and 3.3.5 above as nodes which would be further specified into subcategories with the use of the constant comparative method.

### 3.5. Summary of the research design

This section gives a brief overview of the research foci and the related procedures that the present study is predicated on.

Research questions	Data source	Method of analysis
1. What kind of academic speech events are students of English at ELTE expected to perform during their studies?	Piloted questionnaire: Likert-scale items; (based on Ferris and Tagg's (1996) categories of speech events)	statistical
2. How is the OAP rated in terms of frequency and perceived importance according to teachers of SEAS, ELTE, on the one hand, and students, on the other hand?	Piloted questionnaire	statistical
3. Relying on Morita's (2000) model, what are the key structural units and qualitative features of OAPs as practiced in Academic Skills classes?	30-35 tape-recorded and subsequently transcribed presentations	discourse analysis: identification of structural units and qualitative features
4. What features of discourse socialization as identified by Morita (2000) are expressed in the OAPs produced in the Academic Skills classes under analysis?	30-35 tape-recorded and subsequently transcribed presentations	discourse analysis based on Morita (2000): identification of features of discourse socialisation
5. What interactive features are represented in the OAPs produced in Academic Skills classes?	30-35 tape-recorded and subsequently transcribed presentations	linguistic analysis based on Webber (2005)
6. What type of formal instruction do students performing the OAPs under analysis receive?	Course syllabi; class handouts	document analysis
7. What challenges do students in Academic Skills groups face in terms of disambiguating norms and expectations regarding OAPs in English in a Hungarian educational setting?	Semi-structured interviews with students	qualitative analysis of interviews using the constant comparative method
8a. What are the instructors' pedagogical goals in and views on teaching presentation skills? 8b. What are the difficulties they encounter during the process of instruction and production?	Semi-structured interviews with instructors	qualitative analysis of interviews using the constant comparative method (cf. Lincoln and Guba (1985))

*Table 5: Summary of the research design.*

## 4. Results and Discussion

As has been pointed out in the previous chapter, the research design of the present undertaking sought answers to eight major empirical questions, deemed, by the author, to be central to the understanding of a versatile and, in view of the proportions and relative weight ascribed to the OAP in an EFL setting as described in Chapter 2, a comparatively little explored genre both nationally and internationally. Thanks to a thoughtful coordination of research questions and analytical tools, the material submitted to analysis has been processed in ways most appropriate for the data type and the empirical queries formulated in the research questions. In this vein, the statistical analysis of questionnaire data, the discourse analysis and linguistic examination of recorded OAPs, followed by the close inspection of course materials and the qualitative analysis of follow-up interviews were meant to attain a coherent a framework enabling a series of analytical activities allowing for a comprehensive treatment of the phenomena under investigation. This chapter is intended to provide a detailed account of the execution of the analytical processes, highlighting the results emerging from them and interpreting the findings by means of establishing links to the related research questions posed at the outset of the study.

Corresponding to the logic expressed in the research design, the present chapter discusses and evaluates results around four main nodes. Section 4.1 aims to explore the different types of academic speech events students of English at ELTE SEAS are required to perform, as well as the relative perceived importance of those speech events as declared by instructors and students. In 4.2, an attempt is made at establishing the main structural building blocks of the OAPs submitted to analysis, along with considerations of features of discourse socialisation. At the same time, Section 4.2 also accommodates observations similarly based on the close scrutiny of recorded OAPs

with the focus shifted from discursive and pragmatic properties to linguistic characteristics. The reason for conflating three, originally separate analytical aspects (cf. Research Questions 3, 4 and 5 in Chapter 2) into a single subdivision within the presentation of results and findings was a very practical one. On the one hand, even Morita's (2000) model of OAP rhetorical structure and the key elements indicative of discourse socialisation identified by her contain a number of overlaps. The feature 'Epistemic stance' occurs both in her rhetorical model, as well as one of the three signals of the process of discourse socialisation, and the formulation 'Strategies to engage the audience' is evocative of the criterion of 'Audience involvement' (pp. 289-292; 301). On the other hand, through conducting three independent analyses, i.e. a discourse analytical procedure, a pragmatic one centred on discourse socialisation and an examination of interactional features, it gradually became clear that the occurrence of particular properties pertaining to one of the three approaches is very often conditioned on the presence of a phenomenon associated with one or both of the other two sets. As the underlying goal of the present research project was not to segment empirical information in an overly compartmentalised manner but to strive for as much coherence and holism as possible in the description of OAPs in the chosen context, this seemed a well-justified decision to take. Regarding the size of Section 4.2 and the amount of data and discussion presented in it, it is obviously the longest and most extensive of all. This circumstance, however, should come as no surprise as the main inquiry motivating the this study has been defined as an investigation into the pragmatic and linguistic attributes of the OAP, whereas all the remaining research instruments have been envisaged to buttress this empirical orientation, as well as to bolster, complement or, occasionally modify the findings directly related to it. Therefore, just as the survey data displayed and interpreted in 4.1 serve to shed some light on the research setting itself

from the point of view of the oral activities (or, in case of note-taking, a supporting activity) taking place in the environment where the research was conducted and to help the research situate the OAP within that setting, the document analysis of course syllabi and handouts (4.3) and the analysis of interview data (4.4) are, conversely, called upon to refine and expand, or even, restrict the scope of the applicability of the findings obtained through the analysis of the recorded OAPs.

#### **4.1. Survey data on speech events**

As described in Chapter 3, survey data were collected with the intention of finding answers to two major questions. On the one hand, the survey was meant to explore the variety of speech events students of English at ELTE are expected to perform for their seminar courses in the BA/MA programme. On the other hand, the survey was designed to gain insights into the frequency and the perceived importance of one particular oral genre, the OAP, as judged by tutors and students, respectively. As pointed out in Chapter 3, to ensure comparability, surveys dispatched to tutors and administered to students were composed of the same items, with minor adjustments in the introductory section (questions 1-3) to better suit the demographic properties of the two populations.

##### **4.1.1. Analysis of tutor respondents' biographic data**

In accordance with what has been said about the considerations about the initial items of the survey, the biographic data sought in the introductory section of the tutor questionnaire comprised three aspects:

1. the department the respondent works for
2. the duration of teaching activities at ELTE SEAS
3. regularly taught course types.

The analysis of the biographic data has revealed that out of the 33 tutor respondents who had returned their responses four worked for the Department of American Studies, seven for the Department of English Applied Linguistics, eight for the Department of English Language Pedagogy, seven for the Department of English Linguistics and seven for the Department of English Studies. The fact that all five departments of the School of English and American Studies were represented in the survey roughly proportionately to their actual numerical share in the teaching activities on the English BA and MA courses seemed to enable the researcher to obtain data on speech events occurring across the whole spectrum of courses offered by SEAS.

As responses given to question 2 have indicated, the sample consisted of a multifarious selection of teachers: The length of time tutor respondents had spent at ELTE SEAS as instructors ranged from 1 to 42 years, with over 50% of them having taught for 5-16 years. As the return rate was not controlled in any ways, this circumstance helped not only to ensure natural versatility in the sample but also to strengthen the validity and applicability of data concerning established practices at ELTE SEAS as the vast majority of the tutors surveyed had considerable teaching experience on the English MA/BA course.

The third leg of the biographic section, inquiring about the types of courses respondents routinely taught, has shown that 17 of the tutor respondents were familiar with both seminar and lecture teaching settings, 16 of them only with the seminar setting, whereas none of them reported their teaching experience to be confined to the



lecture setting only. This condition, in turn, guaranteed the relevance of the ensuing questions for the tutor respondents involved in the project.

#### **4.1.2. Analysis of student respondents' biographic data**

In an attempt to learn more about the sample, made up of students of English at ELTE, participating in the present research, information was solicited in relation to three aspects of their academic background:

1. The number of years they had been studying at ELTE SEAS
2. Whether they pursued an MA degree in English
3. Areas of interest or activities they envisaged to utilise their knowledge and skills acquired at ELTE SEAS.

As it has been explained already in Chapter 3, first year students were excluded from the sample as it was assumed their familiarity with the occurrence of various speech events at seminar courses may be relatively limited, thus diminishing chances of reliable judgements regarding the MA/BA programme in English as a whole. Correspondingly, out of the 54 students who completed the questionnaire, none was first year student, 21 were second year students, 15 were third year students, 18 were fourth year students, and there were no students contributing to the survey study who were in the fifth or sixth year of their studies. The condition that student respondents, with relatively even distribution within the sample, represented the second, third and fourth years, respectively, presumably contributed to the relevance of their judgements on speech events, as it is specifically in the six semesters concerned that most seminar courses, both compulsory and elective ones, are advertised.

It was also interesting to discover that 51 students reported they would want to continue with their studies by applying for a master's course, as opposed to only three respondents who declared that they would be content with a BA a degree. This remarkably high proportion of student respondents with a clear determination about their imminent academic pursuits further justifies the relevance of the research orientation adopted for the current investigation, as well as supplies an additional perspective on the interpretation of survey results on academic speech events.

With regard to the third item in the biographic data section in the questionnaire designed for students, presumably owing to the fact that several options could be circled by a single respondent, has produced a rather varied picture of the participating students' post-graduation ambitions. The rank-order of occupations and professional activities was as follows:

1. Translation (marked by 33 respondents)
2. Teaching English at a language school (marked by 27 respondents)
3. In the business sector (marked by 24 respondents)
4. Teaching English at a state school (marked by 21 respondents)
5. Teaching specialised courses in English (e.g. business English, English for tourism, etc.) (marked by 9 respondents)
6. Academic research (marked by 3 respondents).

Based on an investigation conducted with a statistically representative sample representing undergraduate students of English and graduates of six Hungarian universities, Kormos, Hegybiró Kontra and Csölle (2002) draw a conclusion that appears to be reflected in the above ranking. In fact, Kormos et al. suggest that graduates apart from expressing their opinions, reading electronic texts, conversing with other non-native speakers, composing e-mail messages and providing explanations and

instructions, primarily utilise their English skills for oral and written translation (p. 531).

#### **4.2.3. Statistical analysis of survey data on speech events**

As described in Chapter 3, the bulk of both the tutor questionnaire and the student questionnaire, preceded by the three introductory questions seeking biographic data, was devoted to academic speech events, broken down into ten categories and organised around two dimensions: frequency and perceived importance. For the frequency dimension, respondents were asked to their evaluations on a four-member scale ('always', 'often', 'sometimes', 'never'), subsequently converted into numeric values (4, 3, 2, 1) respectively. As Table 6 (*Ranking of speech events according to the mean values for frequency measures based on the tutor responses (TF) and student responses (SF), respectively*) demonstrates, the top-ranking speech event category from the point of view of frequency of occurrence as declared by tutors and students was associated with the statement *The course description says that class participation will affect assessment*, with a mean value of 2.89 and 2.28, respectively. This relatively high rating for the category 'class participation' may be accounted for by the comments attached to many of the electronically returned questionnaires by tutors, stressing the importance of oral involvement and contribution in the seminar courses. Another possible explanation in this regard may be sought in the relatively broad scope of oral activities the wording of the statement allows for, a circumstance likely to have affected the even more salient mean values for the perceived importance of this category in both samples (see Table 6).

It is also worth noting that the speech event category with the second highest mean in both samples was the oral presentation. It may be easily discerned from Figures 5 (*Mean values for frequency measures based on tutor responses*) and 6 (*Mean values for frequency measures based on student responses*) that, whereas in the tutor sample the prominence of the oral presentation is virtually eclipsed by three other categories, i.e. small group work in class, note taking during class and students' questions before/during/after class, the second place of the oral presentation seems to be unchallenged in the student sample.

Another noteworthy pattern seems to emerge from the comparison of frequency measures assigned by tutors and students: Although the distribution of debate, initiating/leading discussions in class and private conversation with the instructor is apparently varied on the basis of the responses supplied by the samples, both tutor and student respondents appear to be almost unanimous about the scarcity of team work outside class followed by an in-class report and interviews or professional consultations.

TF		SF	
class participation	2.89	class participation	2.28
presentation	2.28	presentation	2.11
small group work in class	2.20	note taking during class	1.73
note taking during class	2.13	small group work in class	1.72
students' questions before/during/after class	2.12	debate	1.67
debate	1.86	students' questions before/during/after class	1.61
initiating/leading discussion in class	1.74	private conversation with instructor	1.60
private conversation with instructor	1.44	initiating/leading discussion in class	1.59
team work outside class followed by a report in class	1.38	team work outside class followed by a report in class	1.07
interview/professional consultation	1.08	interview/professional consultation	1.00

*Table 6: Ranking of speech events according to the mean values for frequency measures based on the tutor responses (TF) and student responses (SF), respectively.*

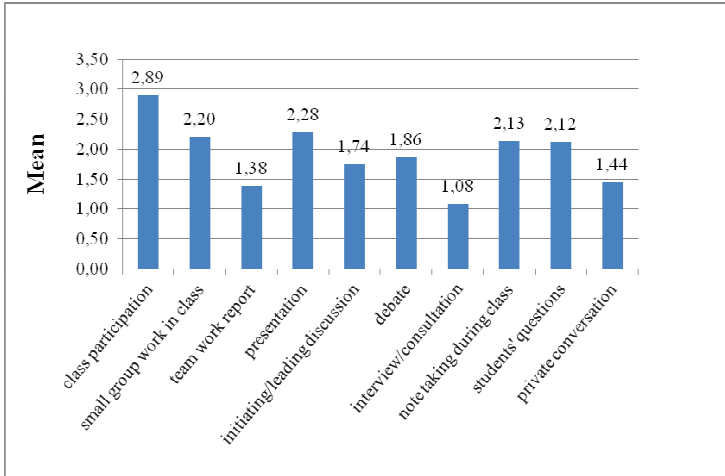


Figure 5: Mean values for frequency measures based on tutor responses.

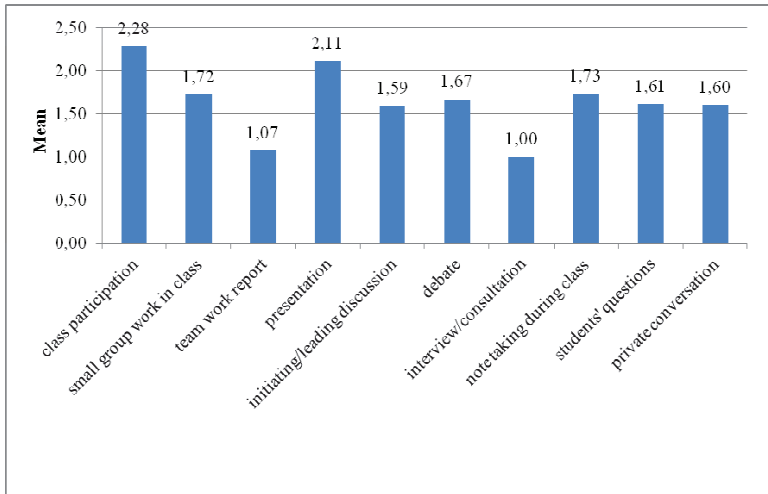


Figure 6: Mean values for frequency measures based on student responses.

By juxtaposing the ranking displayed in Table 6 with the one presented in Table 7 (*Ranking of speech events according to the mean values for the importance dimension based on the tutor responses (TI) and student responses (SI), respectively*), it becomes obvious that class participation is not only the most common feature but is also felt to be the most important oral element of a seminar course by teachers and students alike. A major surprise, made visually palpable in the bar diagrams of Figure 8 (*Mean values for the importance dimension based on student responses*), is presented by the considerable advance of the category ‘debate’ in the student sample, rendering it equally important with class participation, whereas its relatively mediocre position is retained in the tutor sample.

TI		SI	
class participation	4.21	class participation	3.78
note taking during class	3.82	debate	3.78
students' questions before/during/after class	3.64	initiating/leading discussion in class	3.61
initiating/leading discussion in class	3.61	presentation	3.56
presentation	3.58	note taking during class	3.50
debate	3.30	students' questions before/during/after class	2.89
small group work in class	3.25	small group work in class	2.83
private conversation with instructor	2.91	private conversation with instructor	2.56
team work outside class followed by a report in class	2.56	team work outside class followed by a report in class	2.39
interview/professional consultation	2.45	interview/professional consultation	2.28

*Table 7: Ranking of speech events according to the mean values for the importance dimension based on the tutor responses (TI) and student responses (SI), respectively.*

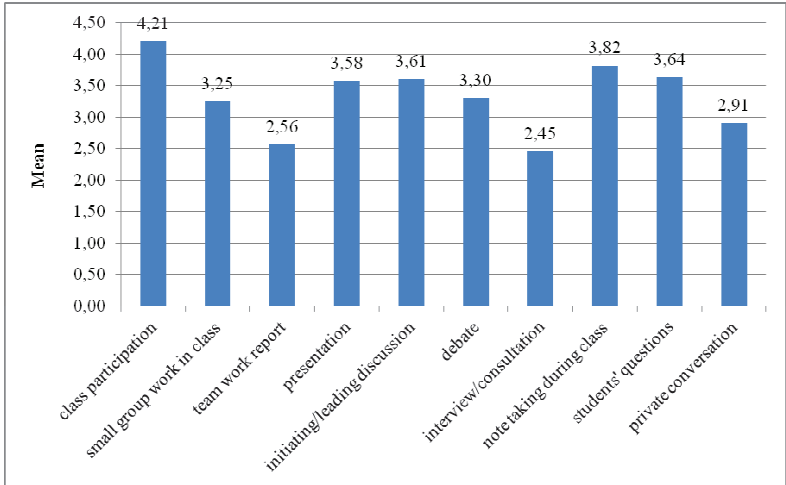


Figure 7: Mean values for the importance dimension based on tutor responses.

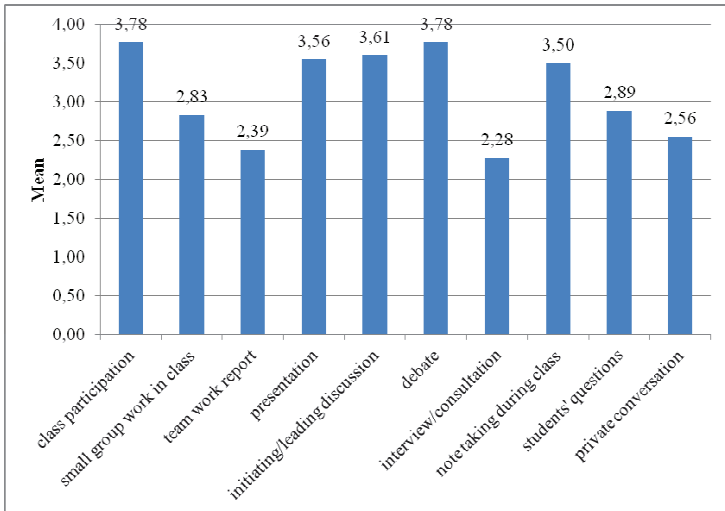


Figure 8: Mean values for the importance dimension based on student responses.

As has been pointed out previously, for measuring the two dimensions of the survey two different Likert-scales were employed. Hence, whereas in the section inquiring about frequencies responses could be marked on a four-point scale, in the section meant to collect data on the importance dimension five options were offered: 'extremely important', 'very important', 'fairly important', 'not really important' and 'completely unimportant'. To enable further comparisons between data collected about the same items but evaluated according to two semantically and numerically distinct scales, following the conversion of questionnaire responses into ordinal values (i.e. 'always' = 4, 'often' = 3, 'sometimes' = 2, never = 1; 'extremely important' = 5, 'very important' = 4, 'fairly important' = 3, 'not really important' = 2, 'completely unimportant' = 1), partial two-tailed correlations were employed to establish correlation relations between the two dimensions within in each sample. In the tutor sample a strong positive correlation was discovered between frequency and importance values, with the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) determined at 0.682, significant at a  $p < 0.01$  level of significance ( $df = 267$ ). Values derived from the two data sets in the student sample, on the other hand, yielded a significant but relatively milder correlation value, the correlation value ( $r$ ) being 0.365, significant at a  $p < 0.01$  level of significance ( $df = 465$ ).

In order to find out about correlation relations between the two data sets for individual speech event categories in the tutor sample and the student sample respectively, the Two-tailed Bivariate Spearman Test was carried for each speech event category. Table 8 (*Correlation values for individual speech event categories based on the tutor sample and student sample, respectively*) demonstrates that the correlation between frequency and importance values in the two samples was positive for all but



one category, namely ‘interview or professional consultation with an expert outside class’ in the student sample. Statistically significant correlations were detected in case of ‘small group work in class’, ‘initiating and leading discussions in class’ and ‘note taking during class’ at the 0.01 level in both samples, as well as ‘private consultation with the instructor’ at the 0.01 level in the tutor sample and at the 0.05 level in the student sample. For the categories ‘Presentation’ and ‘Debate’ statistically significant values were produced only the tutor sample.

speech event categories	r/p	correlation values for the tutor sample	correlation values for the student sample
class participation	r	.218	.054
	p	.265	.699
small group work in class	r	.876**	.379**
	p	.000	.005
team work outside class followed by a report in class	r	.245	.283
	p	.284	.070
presentation	r	.871**	.120
	p	.000	.389
initiating/leading discussion in class	r	.680**	.508**
	p	.000	.000
debate	r	.666**	.139
	p	.000	.317
interview/professional consultation	r	.124	-
	p	.687	-
note taking during class	r	.552**	.777**
	p	.002	.000
students' questions before/during/after class	r	.543**	.087
	p	.001	.531
private conversation with instructor	r	.493**	.358*
	p	.004	.016
* p<0.05			
** p<0.01			

r = correlation value; p = ‘p’ value

*Table 8: Correlation values for individual speech event categories based on the tutor sample and student sample, respectively.*

In addition, it is also worth noting that the second highest correlation value was found in relation to the OAP in the tutor sample, with a correlation coefficient of 0.876, significant at the 0.01 level. This discovery might suggest that instructors' declared practice in terms of the OAP and the perceived importance of this genre seem to be in harmony. At the same, it also patently obvious that there is a considerable discrepancy between practice regarding the OAP as reported by participating students and the degree of importance they attributed to the OAP, with a rather low correlation coefficient of 0.120. With respect to interviews and professional consultations, a fundamental assumption was validated because the pertinent data showed zero variance.

#### **4.2. The rhetorical, pragmatic and linguistic analysis of the recorded OAPs**

As it has been explained earlier, it seemed more expedient for the purposes of the current research project to link the rhetorical, pragmatic and linguistic analyses of the recorded OAPs. In accordance with this procedural decision, in this Section each OAP will be analysed for structural/rhetorical properties, signals of academic discourse socialisation and interactive features. Special attention will be paid to pointing out instances where features belonging to these three sets appear to be interdependent. At the same time, with an eye to the differences between Morita's (2000) research context and the setting where the present investigation was carried out, discourse elements where Morita's categories seem to be only partially applicable or completely irrelevant will also be highlighted. Furthermore, wherever the peculiarities of the Hungarian academic setting necessitate it, slightly modified or newly created labels will be suggested on purely empirical grounds not only in relation to Morita's framework but

with respect to the linguistic exponents proposed by Webber (2005) as telltale signs of particular interactive features in monologues.

Although, as has been stated earlier, it is nearly impossible to handle rhetorical, pragmatic and interactional analytical perspectives distinctly without detracting from the demonstration of the interdependencies these three angles very often represent, for the sake of compactness and for gaining a reader-friendly overview of structural and linguistic properties, a summary of the rhetorical and the interactional features is appended to each of the analysed OAPs in two separate tabulated formats. The tables contain the identification of a particular feature, indicated the presence or the absence thereof with a '+' or '-' symbol. As the categories 'Delivery' and 'Time management' are rather problematic to measure and quantify, these two features have not been included in the tables. In the 'Rhetorical features' table, the second column provides information on the number of utterances the given feature occurs in, to indicate the relative proportion the realisation of the particular function extends over within the discourse. In the table on interactive features, it seemed more apposite to display the number of occurrences instead, as in a single utterance several short linguistic realisations, such as pronouns and approximators, may be encountered. This information is followed by the specification of a subtype and, occasionally, by some illustrations in case of interactive features, whereas for rhetorical features the second column is complemented only by a single column supplying examples of the linguistic exponent(s) concerned.

#### 4.2.1. OAP 01

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	-		
Critique	+	2	<i>(...) this project wasn't as relevant and effective as it could have been (...)</i>
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	2	<i>Can you think about yourselves (...)</i>
Epistemic stance			
Emotional engagement	+	1	<i>(...) He is the most irritating type (...)</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	+	2	<i>In my opinion, working in pairs is really important (...)</i>
Conflict/tension	+	1	<i>However, the results were quite surprising (...)</i>
Support items	+	1	<i>Theses four types you can see on the handouts as well.</i>
Audience involvement	+	2	<i>Why does he become an outsider?</i>

Table 9: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 01

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	5	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun inclusive imperative	
Markers	+	2	single-word marker	<i>now</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	+	1	approximator	<i>slightly</i>

Table 10: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 01

OAP 01, in large measure, consists of a detailed summary of the study reported on in a single article. The presenter gives an extensive overview of the empirical focus and setting (pairwork with students on the outskirts), as well as the research design. The use of linking devices (*however, besides, nevertheless, moreover, in addition, all in all*), at first sight, appears to fulfil only the function of textual cohesion and coherence. However, contextual clues and prosodic features point to the fact that the linking devices *moreover* and *in addition* are employed not only for reinforcing and indicating coherence relations between sentences and thought patterns: the speaker apparently

endeavours to achieve emotional engagement by using these two intensifiers. In one instance, the linking word *however* and, especially, the ensuing utterance is given such a prosodic prominence that inevitably brings about a sense of conflict or tension: *However, the results were quite surprising* with the primary sentence stress assigned to the word *quite*.

In search of some further structural units as identified by Morita (2000), besides a thoroughgoing summary of the project, it becomes evident that the presenters also makes a modest attempt to enunciate her opinion on the relevance of the issue in focus. By the same token, she also communicates a sense of immediacy by saying: *In my opinion, working in pairs is really important because it has a tremendous effect on the progress of the learner*. The content of this assertion does not seem to suggest that the speaker acts as anything more than a novice when it comes to passing judgement on her epistemic stance. However, the continuation of this evaluative remark contains a brief critique pointing to deficiencies of the research projects concerning the generalisability of the research findings: *And I think this project wasn't as relevant and effective as it could have been because it is only valid for a fairly limited number of students*. The use of the comparative structure and the presence of the imprecise quantifier might imply a certain degree of diffidence on the speaker's part, but, at the same time, they could as well be indicative of the presenter's awareness to put forward critical assertions in a mitigated manner. The expression of this latter attitude and the mere presence of critical tone, however subdued it might be, inevitably suggests an epistemic stance which definitely surpasses the novice category and puts the speaker on a continuum of roles with the relative novice and the relative expert at the two extremes. This swaying movement on this imaginary scale ensures that the presenter can go far beyond the mundane and minion-like regurgitation of the contents of the research article, which

well noticeable, among other things, in her delivery, which is, at times, characterised by elements of irony. When talking about the possible roles learners participating in group work might take on, she does not conceal her disparagement of one particular type by inserting subjective epithets and a sense of caricature, palpable not only lexically but also prosodically: *The fifth type is the teacher type. He is the most irritating type, the real eager beaver.* The impact of this emotionally charged statement is most easily measured by the audience's amusement induced by the remark. At the same time, efforts to achieve emotional engagement might also be seen as part of a larger pattern of attempts to secure general audience involvement. A clear example illustrating this tendency is the use of, presumably, poetic direct questions (*The second type is the silent student. The silent student is slightly different from the anxious students. Why does he become an outsider?*) and consistent reliance on personal deictics and markers. The employment of these two kinds of interactive features also contributes to the realisation of rhetorical function not included in Morita's model, signalling the structure of the presentation: *Now I reach the point of analysis. (...) Now we arrive at the discussion of the results. (...) Now let's see the different types of students on the outskirts.* In one instance the presenter uses a personal deictic device, namely a second person pronoun, to direct attention to a support item: *Theses four types you can see on the handouts as well.* Furthermore, the use of the second person pronoun in an utterance towards the end of the talk appears to be perform a function that is apparently meant to elevate audience involvement to a higher level and to foster social collaboration allowing for a dynamic alternation of roles and voices, and at the same time re-emphasising the relevance of the subject matter by linking the research topic to the participants' own experience: *Can you think about yourselves, what type you could be?* It is probably only a matter of time constraints that real social collaboration could not take place in this instance. This

seeming shortcoming, however, is offset by the speaker's consciousness to keep to the time limits.

#### 4.2.2. OAP 02

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	3	
Critique	-		
Implications	+	2	<i>The final conclusion suggests that (...)</i>
Relevance	-		
Epistemic stance	+	3	<i>(...) I consider it important how you collect information on teaching of listening.</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	+		<i>(...) the teaching of listening was neglected (...)</i>
Immediacy	+	1	<i>The teaching of listening has an influence on syllabus design, (...)</i>
Conflict/tension			
Support items	+	1	<i>It can be seen in the table too that differences were not statistically significant.</i>
Audience involvement	+	4	<i>First of all, I'd like to ask you a question.</i>

Table 11: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 02

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	10	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun inclusive imperative	
Markers	+	1	Single-phrase marker	<i>All right</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 12: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 02

As opposed to OAP 01, where the bulk of the talk was shown to be taken up by a detailed summary of the research processes, OAP 02 opens with a brief summary of the empirical focus (listening comprehension at a university level), but then gives way to strategies to engage the audience. As a case in point for what Morita (2000) advocates

as the ‘presenter’s efforts to involve the audience by establishing personal connections to the subject of the presentation’ (p. 291), the speaker draws on elicitation techniques to accomplish her goal: *First of all, I’d like to ask you a question. What do you think why it is important (sic!) to learn listening and the listening lessons in school ... so why is it important to have listening exercises in the syllabus, in the lesson?* After listening to a few responses and showing some appreciation, the presenter continues to invite further contribution from the audience: *Yes. Exactly. Are there any other ideas?*

The presenter also makes sure that urgency of the issue is duly accentuated (cf. Morita’s, 2000, category of ‘immediacy’, p. 301): *The teaching of listening has an influence on syllabus design, which is important in second language pedagogy.* Reminiscent of Swales’s (1990) conceptualisation of ‘occupying the niche’ (pp. 133-134), she develops the point of scholarly and pragmatic immediacy and expands this part of her discourse by including allusions to the gap the research she is reporting on has filled. Thus, she realises another important function of an effective and professionally well-planned and delivered presentation as proposed by Morita, i.e. communicating a sense of novelty: *(...) the teaching of listening was neglected. Therefore, Bojana Petrić made a research project.* As an integral continuation of this train of thought, the presenter extends her rendering of the immediacy and novelty represented by the choice of research focus to incorporate her own epistemic stance on the wider context of the project, with special reference to the research design: *First of all, I consider it important how you collect information on the teaching of listening. The teaching of listening is important from the beginner to the advanced level.* These assertions are followed by a lengthy summary of literary findings from previous research. She gives an exhaustive account of the main conclusions of related studies and provides multiple classifications of listening task types. Perhaps, owing to the highly



technical nature of this section of the presentation, the speaker makes frequent references to support items, in this case to the charts on the distributed handouts. Although seemingly felt to be a slight digression from the firm formulation of the speaker's epistemic stance exuding an air of professionalism, this predominantly technical part does not represent an interruption in this respect. In fact, while providing a step-by-step description of various research processes, the presenter applies the procedural vocabulary of research methodology (e.g. pre-test, post-test, experimental and control group) with such a convincing level of confidence that one cannot but assess this insert as continued affirmation of her epistemic stance, more akin to a relative expert than a relative novice. Her solid understanding of research process is also evidenced by the astuteness she structures information supply and frames her messages: *Before we have a look at the results, I have to mention what was the hypothesis of the research. I didn't mention the participants but they were 30 university students. And finally, we look at the results of the research. It can be seen in the table too that differences were not statistically significant.* This presumably deliberately selective and up-to-the-point recapitulation of the outcome of the research appears to naturally pave the way for formulating implications, another key element in Morita's (2000) framework: *The final conclusion suggests that listening instruction should be an integral part of university education.*

The tone the presenter uses to transmit her stance on some crucial points touched upon by the research could be described as convivial and encouraging audience involvement. This is especially patently inferred from the extensive use of certain interactive features, such as singular and plural first person pronouns. The overwhelming presence of this type of personal deictics, however, seems to serve two purposes: to underscore the presenter's individual points and readings, on the one hand

and, on the other hand, to create the impression that the audience is part of a joint venture led and coordinated by the speaker. Exponents of this latter function are also encountered in utterances where the presenter is giving indications of the presentation structure, sometimes combined with a preceding marker: *All right. Let's see the introduction! (...) And finally, we look at the results of the research.*

All in all, with regard to delivery, established as a separate aspect by Morita (2000) in OAPs, despite the vivid and collaborative nature of OAP 02, it must be remarked that presenter's diction is marked by a series of discontinued or undeveloped thoughts and a number structural detours. These circumstances, however, do not affect time management in a negative way.

#### 4.2.3. OAP 03

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	8	
Critique	+	2	<i>The focused observation was a lot more effective.</i>
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	2	<i>There are practical problems. So what are the practical problems?</i>
Epistemic stance	+	3	<i>The author spent a lot of time at CETT, so, probably, this was the source of inspiration for the author.</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	+	1	<i>And the most important thing was that (...)</i>
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	-		
Audience involvement	+	2	<i>And I have some questions for you.</i>

*Table 13: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 03*

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	5	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	1	single-phrase marker	<i>well</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 14: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 03

Like OAP 02, OAP 03 also opens with brief statement of the research focus (challenges in foreign language teacher education). Approximately during the first half of the talk, the presenter gives a self-confidently delivered account of the research design, characterised by inferences about the unreported circumstances of the research setting and background, expressed by phrases of probability, and a sense of immediacy, linguistically conveyed by means of adjectives in the superlative.

At large, the main part of the talk contains elements suggesting the presence of all three elements of academic discourse socialisation as captured by Morita (2000, pp. 289-292). Although the presenter does not take up a clearly definable position vis-a-vis any major points treated by the research project he is reporting on, traces of an epistemic stance are recoverable in two instances. The first one is found at the beginning of his overview, when he almost stealthily inserts a critical comment on one of the author's research methodological decisions: *In my opinion this was a big problem, and she mentions that she would elaborate on this problem*. The second critical utterance occurs around the end of the presentation with the speaker arguing in favour of one particular research instrument over some others: *The focused observation was a lot more effective*. Unfortunately, these two brief critical assertions in neither case are developed into a full-blown critique, which, according to Morita, could be interpreted as unequivocal communication of an epistemic stance.

Strategies to engage the audience are exemplified by the presenter's questions he is asking the audience with the express aim of stimulating his listeners: *And I have some*

*questions for you. What do you think was the function of the first interview? Why didn't she want them to concentrate on time?* The queries he is raising are, on the surface, intended to boost audience involvement. However, as it turns out from the presenter's feedback to the apparently shy and terse responses given by members of the audience, his ultimate objective is not to encourage participation and group thinking but to grant himself the opportunity to answer these questions in his own way: *Yeah. And another reason? No?* Then he provides the proper reply and proceeds with a series of other questions in a strikingly similar scenario: *Could you think of any problems with the observation tasks? There are practical problems. So what are the practical problems? Yes. As I have mentioned ...* [interrupted by a brief remark from the audience] *... Well, not really ...* As these utterances demonstrate, the presenter's superficial efforts to render his listeners active interactants of his discourse continue to fail and, as result, any assessable modes of social collaboration are precluded.

Examining the highlighted instances from the point of interactive features as categorised by Webber (2005), the directly posed questions naturally contain second person pronouns and one intermittent reaction even a marker. A more holistic look at OAP 3, however, reveals that the vast majority of the rhetorical elements postulated by Morita (2000) are missing, and the presenter terminates his talk without any visible or audible signs of a closure.

#### 4.2.4. OAP 04

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	5	
Critique	-		
Implications	-		
Relevance	-		
Epistemic stance	+	6	<i>So it is about how students how they're going to benefit from the language. Actually, I think that nowadays it's much more different. I think nowadays it happens very often that students are not motivated to continue (...)</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	+		<i>It is also import to mention (...)</i>
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	-		
Audience involvement	+	5	<i>Anyone of you knows what it means? Hm? Anyone have any idea as to why? I don't know if anyone has an idea as to why (...)?</i>

Table 15: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 04

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	15	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 16: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 04

OAP 04, after a concisely announcing the speaker's main aim by pinpointing the subject matter to be covered in the talk (motivation to learn foreign languages at secondary schools), commences with a rhetorical feature not included in Morita's (2000) model: indicating presentation structure, a component already encountered in OAP 02. The structure outlined in the introduction of the presentation appears to closely correspond to that of the research article the talk is based on: *First I'm going to give a brief*

*overview of the components of motivation. Then I'm going to describe the method. After that I'm going to describe the results and the implications of the survey.*

When explicating the most essential concepts constituting the theoretical foundations of the study reported on in the chosen article, the presenter tries to utilise any possible prior the knowledge the audience might possess about the subject: *The first is instrumental motivation. Anyone of you knows what it means? Hm?* This move may also be regarded as a conscious attempt to engage the audience and, by sharing roles and voices, to enable members of the audience to function as co-repositories of knowledge. After a few moments of silence, however, this effort does not seem to produce the desired result in this respect. Therefore, the presenter resorts to supplying the answer herself, and, in doing so she displays a level of familiarity that secures her a position closer to the relative expert than the relative novice on the epistemic stance continuum: *So it is about how students ... how they're going to benefit from the language, how they are motivated to learn the language.*

It is also noteworthy how persistent the speaker appears to be in creating conditions that promote social collaboration: *As I've already said, the second type may be defined as (...). I can tell you more if anyone wants to know more about these types.* It is only the course tutor who briefly intervenes and, citing concerns related to the shortage of time, pre-empts the development of any closer cooperation between presenter and audience in constructing knowledge jointly. Nevertheless, the presenter's constant cognisance of the audience needs, limited background knowledge or wish to receive additional elucidation is observable in her check-back-like questions later on as well, along with summarising assertions and references to support items: *The aim of the study was to measure students' motivation, which you can see in the 1<sup>st</sup> table. And should I mention how they proceeded? Right.* Then after a few seconds of apparent hesitation,

she again succumbs to the tutor's admonition that she is not supposed to enter into details to such an extent. This high degree of attention to the audience's ability to process the information transmitted and to think in unison with presenter is evidenced not only when she discusses the research process but when she gives an account of the results and discussion: *First year students were much more self-confident about their language skills. Anyone have any idea as to why?* Her reaction to the response given by a member of the audience sounds very supportive and undoubtedly strengthens an atmosphere of collaboration: *Yes. I think the same. Actually, I think that nowadays it's much more different.* What is more, as the latter part of the utterance shows, the presenter exploits the situational potential of the interaction to add a standpoint of her own on the issue, thereby enhancing credibility and, ultimately, consolidating her stature as a relative expert.

At the same time, interestingly enough, the presenter, in one instance, invites contribution from the audience for a completely different reason. Instead of gathering views from the audience as a lead-up to articulating her own take on the matter, she is genuinely seeking insightful comments from the audience in the hope of receiving some clues to a riddle she cannot resolve herself, either. This approach unquestionably furthers the speaker's endeavour to construct discourse in a way that allows for 'multiple roles, voices and levels of expertise' (Morita, 2000, p. 292): *The next point is attitude to English speakers. Grammar school students have a positive attitude as opposed to pupils at the other school types. I don't know if anyone has an idea as to why ... I don't know.* Although the interactive nature of the presentation is maintained throughout the talk, towards the end the presenter formulates implications and subjective comments that straightforwardly serve the purpose of reinstating herself as a strongly opinionated quasi-expert: *Teachers shouldn't give up motivating their students.*

*I think nowadays it happens very often that students are not motivated to continue foreign language learning.* She also attaches a critical sentence: *The author doesn't explain how these students should be motivated.*

With regard to some other rhetorical features OAP 4 contains, it is well worth noting that it is not only at the beginning of the presentation that the speaker gives indications of the structure of her talk, but she periodically makes allusions to the main structural units as she reaches them. Besides signposting each major unit, the presenter also pays attention to maintaining and strengthening coherence by the consistent use of cataphoric references (e.g. *As I've already said, second type is ...; As I've mentioned grammar school students are very interested in English speaking cultures*). Although Morita (2000) does not mention discourse coherence as an indicator of expert-like conduct during an oral presentation, one cannot help linking such a high level of control over maintaining coherence to a convincing degree of awareness of the logical and sequential relations that obtain between the main content points of the topic the presentation is based on, thus further fortifying the presenter's image as a dependable quasi-expert. In line with this self-expressing tone and planned control over discourse construction, it seems quite natural that the prevalent interactive feature exponent is the first person singular pronoun, mostly co-occurring with down-toning adverbs.



#### 4.2.5. OAP 05

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	2	
Critique	+	4	<i>(...), but one is not mentioned in the article, so I don't know where the fourth one has gone. I don't think that these results are relevant for any pedagogical implications.</i>
Implications	+	1	<i>So I think it is important dealing with these kinds of analysis but with a larger background and large filed of media.</i>
Relevance	+	5	<i>It is very important because we have to be aware of differences between our culture and other cultures, between English and Hungarian, if we are learning English language. Do we write much? Do we like to construct long sentences?</i>
Epistemic stance	+	8	<i>(...) so contrastive is like contrastive between some cultures and kind of emphasise culture (...) This is very culture specific, I think. I've checked this. (...), which I think is a very specific topic in this field of study (...)</i>
Emotional engagement	(+)	3	<i>(...) to analyse media discourse, you have to be very insightful and you have to know the policy of editing (...)</i>
Novelty	+	2	<i>Very interesting that Kiszely Zoltán doesn't mention (...) I think it is very interesting that in Hungarian we make future predictions.</i>
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	+	1	<i>I don't know if this paper can see the background if we can really get the main point (...)</i>
Support items	+	3	<i>According to the author – I know you can read – so contrastive is like (...) I would like to show you two articles now.</i>
Audience involvement	+	4	<i>Do you have any idea what it may be: contrastive rhetoric? What do you think Hungarian writers differ from English writers?</i>

Table 17: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 05

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	21	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	1	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 18: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 05

In a fashion similar to that of many of the previously analysed presentations, the speaker in OAP 05 also starts by delineating the research field the article she is going to give her rendering of represents a contribution to (media discourse). Then she continues by narrowing down this relatively broad field of empirical inquiry into a sub-domain that constitutes the theoretical underpinnings of the study. The way she achieves this level of specification testifies to her individual processing of the subject: *I actually underlined 'contrastive perspective' in the title. Because the main issue of the paper is very much about contrastive rhetoric, and media is only in the background.* This overture and, especially, the subsequent question (i.e. an attempt to involve the audience in the discourse) followed by an explanation which is more reminiscent of student-like strategies to process new information project a image of the presenter that combines elements of a novice and a co-operator in constructing knowledge.

Thus, instead of assuming a role which would appear to be precocious for a first year student when it comes to tackling issues of a field she presumably possesses no considerable prior knowledge of compared to her fellow students, the presenter not only succeeds in laying the foundations of an atmosphere of collaboration but shows a high degree of credibility by not camouflaging her ingenuousness: *Do you have any idea what it may be, contrastive rhetoric? According to the author, I know you can read it* (the presenter is alluding to the information on the handout; some laughter is heard in the background), *so contrastive is like contrastive between some cultures and kind of*

*emphasises culture.* However, she does not let herself slump into the seemingly comfortable role of an outsider, but ‘takes the helm’ and, without changing her status as a relative novice, she tries to her best to spell out the relevance of the research topic: *It is very important because we have to be aware of the differences between our culture and other cultures, between English and Hungarian, if we are learning English language. I think this is the main point in this paper.*

At the same time, there are some easily noticeable signals in this presentation that the speaker does not consider her position as a relative novice to be static. She furnishes the audience with additional data and information she has chanced upon in different sources: *I also found some very interesting studies on this topic (...). As you can see from this example, Spanish language uses more elaborate structures than English.* The inclusion of such external sources enables the presenter to draw conclusions that are not necessarily stated in the research article explicitly: *The question of when a simple and when a more elaborate structure is used is very culture specific, I think ... And I’ve even checked this.*

Conversely, enunciating a clearly established standpoint does not only have a bearing on the formulation of an epistemic stance. As Morita (2000), formulating claims, especially with regard to controversial issues, may turn out to be conducive to stimulating the audience (pp. 291-292). Such a move may be identified in OAP 5 when, following a brief summary of the research questions (all worded as a direct queries containing the first person plural pronoun as a personal deictic), the presenter highlights controversies inherent in the research focus with a strong emotional force: *The aim of this paper is not to analyse academic writing of students but to analyse media discourse, which I think is a very specific topic in this field of study, and I think it’s a very hard topic. Because to analyse media discourse, you have to be very insightful and*

*you have to know the policy of editing and your have to see in the background of editing.* From this string of expressive utterances it is also patently visible that the speaker makes a conspicuous switch from first person to second person pronouns, addressing all of her blatant comments to the audience in a very direct and pointed way. This tendency is further intensified by the expression of the presenter's scepticism (*I don't know if this paper can see the background*), which quite naturally triggers a sense of conflict and leads to a critique as well. This tense situation is only alleviated by the presenter bringing a number of research findings that represent novelties to the audience's attention.

Hence, from an almost self-effacing demeanour displayed at the beginning, through persevering efforts to engage the audience by underscoring controversies and exposing conflicts, the presenter arrives at a stage where she apparently feels at ease to alternate between novelties and deficiencies and culminates her talk with a series of implications further corroborating the relevance of her choice of a research topic.

#### 4.2.6. OAP 06

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	5	
Critique	+	1	
Implications	+	1	<i>But I personally think that it is not always true.</i>
Relevance	+	1	<i>Our question is does an increase in the number of classes per week (...) result in more knowledge?</i>
Epistemic stance	-		
Emotional engagement	+	3	<i>And now we'll see the more or less interesting and surprising results. (...), so boys are not cleverer than girls.</i>
Novelty	+	1	<i>But now let's see the most surprising result. Which is interesting is that (...)</i>
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	6	<i>As you can see (...) Here you can see the results.</i>
Audience involvement	+	4	<i>Has anybody an idea what method (...)? What do you think about this? Have you any personal ideas?</i>

Table 19: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 06

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	16	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 person pronoun inclusive <i>let's</i>	
Markers	+	3	single-phrase marker	<i>now, so</i>
Imprecise quantifiers				

Table 20: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 06

As opposed to most of the previously discussed presentations, OAP 06 does not announce the topic of the talk at the beginning. The only orientation she provides is citing the author's name (Charles Alderson). Then she hastily moves on to realise two functions recommended in the Morita (2000) model: stressing the relevance of the study and providing indications of the way she wishes to structure her presentation. This

introductory part is followed by the summary of the research design: clear fulfilment of yet another rhetorical feature proposed by Morita.

In a sense, bearing resemblance to OAP 05, the presenter of OAP 06 experiments with a variety of techniques aimed at engaging the audience. She dexterously employs instruments of emotional involvement, including humour (*Unfortunately, there are no statistically significant differences between males and females, so boys are not cleverer than girls*), occasionally by means of slightly self-deprecating exaggeration (*And now we'll see the more or less interesting and surprising results* (accompanied by the presenter's giggle)). However, she seems to invest considerable efforts into sustaining an air of seriousness and professionalism, presumably driven by the motivation to foreground research findings and insights by casting them as novelties. This dual tendency becomes particularly interesting when one realises that, in a number of cases, the same expressive adjectives earlier used to convey irony are later on applied for a completely different effect: to introduce crucial findings in a sober tone against a well-established context of lively collaboration: *And now let's see the most interesting and surprising result. Which is particularly intriguing is that in year 12 the highest scores were achieved by students learning in three hours a week.*

The use of personal deictics, both second person pronouns and first person pronouns, including the inclusive imperative *let's* (cf. Webber, 2005), along with markers (*now, well*) dominate in the presenter's utterance not only in instances targeting emotional involvement and audience engagement but also in the linear description of the manner findings were attained. It is evident, too, that exaphoric references alluding to support items (slides of a PowerPoint Presentation) are utilised to maximise audience involvement: *So let's come to the differences between types of school. Here you can see the results. And the next slide: Here you can see the years of studying in the table.*

#### 4.2.7. OAP 07

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	5	
Critique	-		
Implications	+	2	<i>You can see seven points (...)</i>
Relevance	+	4	<i>(...) why I mentioned this is that I have some Spanish Spanish samples The reason I've chosen this article is that I'm a media minor student (...).</i>
Epistemic stance	+	2	<i>Contrastive rhetoric means (...)</i>
Emotional engagement	+	1	<i>(...) he concentrated on two articles and analysed them in a interesting way.</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	4	<i>And here I've collected some points, (...). I have brought a quote which says (...). I'd like to show you the article structure (...).</i>
Audience involvement	-		

Table 21: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 07

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	13	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 22: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 07

OAP 07, unlike any of the presentations hitherto examined, opens with the presenter's self-introduction. Subsequently, when defining the research focus, the presenter seems to make a conscious effort to not only state the area of inquiry but to briefly explain it and add an emotional element by voicing her subjective attitude to the investigation itself: *I'm going to talk about Kiszely Zoltán's article. He used a contrastive rhetorical*

*perspective, which means he concentrated on two articles and analysed them in a very interesting way.* This starting note is followed by stating her intention as to how she intends to structure information during the talk.

When discussing the theoretical foundations of the study, the speaker apparently wants to go beyond the textbook-like definitions of contrastive rhetoric and frames the most pivotal aspects of this empirical tradition by asking her audience thought provoking questions while relying on some realias: *And here I've collected some points for you to think about. For example, the main question is why linguistics is interested in studying the language of the media?* This approach may be interpreted as a measure taken to foster audience involvement, but, at the same time, it also reveals the extent to which the presenter is capable of renouncing her role as a relative novice and approximating the status of the relative expert, who has the capacity of transmitting new information by permitting the audience to rely on self-discovery techniques, instead of simply reading out or reciting ready-made conclusions. As this joint venture proceeds, the presenter keeps making cataphoric references to previous points raised in the discussion, not missing the chance to link each to some practical aspects the audience might easily identify with.

Besides stressing the relevance of particular points by relating them to the audience's own world, she appears to be intent on disclosing her personal motivation in singling out particular components of the analytical framework: *The thing I was doing or why I mentioned this is that I have some Spanish samples with me, which I'd like to share with you.* The inclusion of such additional angles, in a sense a departure from a mechanic paraphrase of the chosen research article further consolidates the speaker's status as a relative expert. However, she does not seem to fall into the trap of overemphasising her newly assumed role to the detriment of credibility. When she has to tackle the challenge



of reporting on findings the operation terminology of which she is obviously unfamiliar with, she displays signs of hesitation and lack of self-confidence: *I'd like to show you the article structure as I've mentioned. This one is the English, and this one is the Hungarian article ... and advanced organisers the author underlined, I don't know ..., ... yes he underlined them ... The English article had more ... yeah, the articles and ... so something for the last part of my presentation ...* This series of choppy and incomplete sentence well illustrates how the presenter's loss of command over content points, clearly outside her scope of knowledge, impinges on delivery, causing an otherwise smooth flow of ideas to turn into a badly discontinuous sequence.

Despite this temporary breakdown, the speaker quickly seems to restore coherence in her discourse and confidently carries on by highlighting implications in a systemic way, culminating in a final conclusion where she reveals her own personal rationale for selecting this research area: *The reason I've chosen this article is that I'm a media minor student at ELTE and I found very interesting the linguistic differences between English and Hungarian articles, and I enjoyed doing this presentation very much.*

As for the use of interactive features, OAP 07 abounds in personal deictics, namely first and second person pronouns. This fact may be accounted for by the genuinely personal involvement of presenter and the systematic pattern of cataphoric references meant to ensure discourse coherence.

#### 4.2.8. OAP 08

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	8	
Critique	-		
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	2	<i>The statement of the general attitude were the most important. By analysing the recorded interactions, we can find interesting findings.</i>
Epistemic stance	-		
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	+	1	<i>And this research revealed this problem (...).</i>
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	2	<i>The main purpose of this research is to raise problems of the statements which you fin in Table 1. You can see more details about the participating teachers on the handout.</i>
Audience involvement	-		

Table 23: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 08

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	7	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 24: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 08

Presenter of OAP 08 appears to exude an air of self-confidence in the introduction of her talk by articulately announcing the topic (native vs. non-native teachers of English) and continuing by foreshadowing the main structural units in a self-assured manner: *First I'd like to talk about the differences based on Péter Medgyes's book called 'Native and Non-native Teacher', Then I'd like to mention the participants, the procedure of the research and, after it, the analysis of the data, the results and, finally, the conclusion.*

This statement of intention in terms of segmenting her presentation imparts particularly lucid understanding of research methodological principles and considerations. Hence, even before touching upon any concrete professional issues on which the presenter take up a stand thereby intimating her epistemic stance, the speaker apparently succeeds in communicating a sense of professionalism and credibility by displaying a high a degree of consciousness in providing a replication of otherwise rather complex research processes.

This introductory note is ensued by an extensive summary of the research design and procedures. It is already at this very stage that the speaker showcases some novelties when she points out that the research design itself was devised with the resolution a common contradiction in mind: *Stated behaviour and actual behaviour can be very different. And this research revealed this problem.* Then, in a coherent flow, she proceeds to identifying the underlying the purposes of the project, making references to some support materials she is using to clarify the empirical setup. It is also obvious that the presenter employs handouts not only for illustrational purposes but intends to supply the audience with background data the detailed explication of which would definitely cause her run into trouble with time management: *You can see further details about the participating teachers on the handout.*

With regard to data collection and analysis, the presenter makes some highlights suggesting which elements could be assessed as particularly relevant. The relevance aspect is especially stressed when she introduces as the discussion of findings: *By analysing the recorded interactions we can find interesting findings.* This announcement is followed by a detailed report on the results and the main findings, directed towards a climax where the presenter reaffirms the research aims and demonstrates their fulfilment. The establishment of such a link between initial empirical

objectives and the final outcome of the project greatly contributes to the consolidation of the presenter's image as a relative expert.

From an interactional point of view, it may be concluded that OAP 08 shows relatively moderate use of only a single category of interactive features listed by Webber (2005): a balanced distribution of first person and second person pronouns.

#### 4.2.9. OAP 09

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	4	
Critique	+	3	<i>The two questions posed at the beginning of the article, we only partly answer. We've seen that the research doesn't answer all questions (...).</i>
Implications	+	3	<i>We learn how we should read and read between the lines (...).</i>
Relevance	+	3	<i>And finally some implications as for why the reading and analysis of texts is useful.</i>
Epistemic stance	+	7	<i>(...) one third of the article is about the theoretical background, and that's why I will spend so much time on this. The first concept is critical discourse analysis (...). What is examined is the intertextuality of these two manifestos.</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	1	<i>On the 2<sup>nd</sup> page you can recognise the two politicians, (...).</i>
Audience involvement	+	7	<i>Can you recognise who is in the picture? As you probably know (...), and so on and so on. You probably recognise that specific texts are synonymous (...).</i>

Table 25: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 09

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	18	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	1	single-phrase marker	<i>now</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 26: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 09

The speaker delivering OAP 09 seems to rely on some type of visual support (presumably, previously handouts) in announcing the theme of his talk. This is obvious from the exphoric reference he is using to direct his audience's attention to the topic: *As you can see the topic of my presentation is critical discourse analysis*. In what follows the references become even more straightforward, coupled with efforts to involve the audience by directly addressing them and apologising and strategies to engage them in the discourse by means of offering them a chance to let the voice be heard early on: *On the second page, you can recognise the two politicians and the two manifestos. Sorry about the photocopier. Can you recognise who is in the picture?* Although Morita (2000) does not explicitly mention raising questions as an instrument of audience engagement, the label 'establishing personal connections to the subject of the presentation' may appear to permit a broader interpretation which includes endeavours of this kind to be seen as contributing to the realisation of audience engagement (cf. pp. 291-292).

Following this introductory part, the presenter embarks on a brief outline of this historical background of the political stories apparently serving as a backdrop to the research project he is reporting on. It is well worth observing that, in relation to a subject area (i.e. British political history) which, judged by the participating students' main academic profile, seems to be extraneous to their field the expertise, the speaker adopts an attitude which treats members of the audience as equal relative novices,

thereby fostering an ambient of social collaboration. This is especially evident in instances where he supplies the audience with information essential from the point of view of understanding the entire research setting. In such utterances he inserts expressions which suggest that, even though the domain of politics might be too remote an area for both the presenter and the audience to have a solid knowledge of, some degree of general familiarity is presupposed by the speaker (*as you probably know ...; ... etc. etc.*).

Having elucidated the political-historical background of the study, the presenter moves on to provide a compact summary of the research design. It is interesting to realise, that unlike in many of the OAPs analysed so far, the speaker does not give a step-by-step indication as to how he wishes to proceed with the presentation of the major structural elements of his talk, but pays due attention to segmentation and to the signalling thereof by signposting each major stage as he reaches it: *And a few words on the details of the research conducted.* Such instances of signposting may also be encountered in the presentation, later on as well: *Now as for the results and the findings; And, finally, some implications as for why the reading and analysis of texts is useful.*

The articulation of an epistemic stance is also traceable in this summary section, albeit in a form that does not closely match with any of the scenarios envisaged by Morita (2000, pp. 289-290). At this juncture, in fact, the presenter does not supply his own critique or analysis at length, but informs the audience about a rhetorical decision he deems to be justified from a methodological point of view, thus creating the impression of a relative expert: *My apologies but one-third of the article is about the theoretical background, and that's why I will spend so much time on this.*

Subsequently, the speaker appears to slightly retreat from this relative expert position when clarifying the most pivotal theoretical concept underlying the research focus, i.e. critical discourse analysis. Instead of providing an easily understandable explanation of the term, he resorts to reading out a long-winded, textbook-like definition without attaching any explanatory comments of his own to it. This relative minor digression to the novice role, however, is soon offset by a very persuasive and insightful rendering of the notion of intertextuality, where the presenter seems to regain his relative-expert-like handle on the discourse. This kind of alternation could serve as yet another illustration of the point raised in the discussion of OAP 05, where it was proposed that, instead of approaching the categories of the relative novice and relative expert with two completely distinct and static sets of behaviour patterns in mind, it is more realistic to view them as two temporary conditions that dynamically interact and even intermingle with one another.

In presenting the main analytical procedures and findings of the research project, the speaker seems to invite the audience to a joint venture to explore the empirical outcome of the study together. This attempt at achieving continued audience involvement is best exemplified by the dominance of second person pronouns, as a basic interactional tool to build connections between presenter and audience: *On the cover page you find ...; You can see a summary of the analysis; Under the first point you can find findings from the first manifesto*. It is also remarkable to notice, that, as a continuation of the tendency to encourage collaboration in the processing of information, the presenter keeps treating his listeners as more or less equal from the point of view of expertise. This perception becomes particularly manifest in the speaker's repeated use of the phrase '*and of course*' (suggesting the presupposition of shared knowledge), as well as of the phrase '*and so on and so on*' (indicating the presenter's intention to sideline certain aspects of

the subject matter in favour of some others he apparently considers to be more relevant). A further feature that corroborates a conscious epistemic stance on the presenter's part may be discovered in the well-harmonised conjunctions the speaker establishes between particular findings and the related research questions.

The coherently organised description of the results and findings virtually seamlessly transitions into the discussion of critiques and implications, which is, like any other previous major units hitherto, preceded by a signpost: *And this, I guess, is the time to voice some criticism*. It is at this point that the fulfilment of more than one rhetorical function may be discerned in a single instance. Although in the following two utterances, the primary function is, ostensibly, formulating a critique and an implication, respectively, it is easy to detect traces that testify to the implementation of a different function, i.e. reinforcing a sense of relevance: *The two questions posed at the beginning of the article we only partly answer; We learn how we should read and read between the lines and we can get to know that one shouldn't take texts at their face value*.

In the closing part of the presentation, the speaker employs techniques to stimulate joint thinking with members of the audience, strikingly reminiscent to those used in the initial part, the only difference being that the chief motivation in this case is to draft conclusions: *You probably recognise that specific texts are synonymous reflections. Thus, we can learn how to comprehend them*. The final sentences demonstrate that the speaker feels he is in control of the discourse in terms of having accomplished his most significant goals, and this attitude is, in particular, patently shown by the self-assured style characterising delivery: *I think that's all I wanted to tell about the research article*. Even though this last assertion sounds like an appropriate note for signing off, the presenter chooses to add some further critical comments alluding to the partial



mismatch between the findings and the research questions, thereby enhancing his image as a sharp-sighted and critically minded relative expert.

Considering the circumstance that the presenter's delivery is consistently marked by a conscious tendency to create a sensation of joint exploration, the preponderance of first person plural pronouns as the most prominent personal deictic device, besides first person singular pronouns, should not be seen as a mere accident. At the same time, in conjunction with signposts, there is another category of interactive features that emerges: markers (e.g. *now*).

#### 4.2.10. OAP 10

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	8	
Critique	+	2	<i>About this topic not much research has been done yet. Because this table was based only on questionnaires (...), what they were saying could be a little different from (...).</i>
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	2	<i>(...) we had a presentation on vocabulary, but now I'm going to talk about (...).</i>
Epistemic stance	+	7	<i>According to experts, (...). (...), so they tried to replace this term 'non-native' and 'non-native speaker' with the more or less accomplished appellation 'users of English' and 'expert speakers of English' (...). First I'd like to speak about the interviews because it's easier to say whether (...).</i>
Emotional engagement	+	1	<i>The first one is about NEST. It's got nothing to do with birds or anything like that.</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	1	<i>You can see the table (...).</i>
Audience involvement	+	4	<i>(...) will we have to make a contrast between them or not? So now we're trying to revise this table from (...).</i>

Table 27: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 10

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	8	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	1		<i>so</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	+	2	approximator, other less frequent types	<i>a little</i> <i>somehow</i>

Table 28: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 10

The speaker delivering OAP 10 opts for a somewhat unique opening. Instead of treating his presentation in isolation, he attempts to relate it to presentations previously given by other members of the group: *Research projects in the field of second language often focus on various aspects of the learning process. Recently, we have heard a presentation on vocabulary, but now I'm going to speak about teachers and teaching processes. So my presentation will be about the area of native versus non-native English teachers.* This approach does not only ensure that the broader implications of the research project in question will not be neglected, but also reveals the presenter's awareness of the audience members' prior experience and the importance of coherence in an intertextual and intersituational sense. This conscious effort may easily be shown to contribute to the realisation of a function seen as of paramount importance in Morita's (2000) model: relevance (i.e. 'relating the topic to the audience members' experiences', p. 301).

Another rhetorical feature, audience involvement, emerges in the subsequent sentence, in the form of three direct questions, with last one sounding like a poetic query: *So what is the pros and cons in native teachers and non-native teachers, and what is the benefit of having them or not having them, or will we have to make a contrast between them or not?* A rejoinder, however, is immediately provided by the presenter himself expressing an epistemic stance associated with the relative novice: *According to experts, there are more and more non-native teachers than native ones.*

This statement is directly followed by an additional question (*Why do we have to distinguish native and non-native teachers of English?*), leading to a brief summary on historical development. From this string of questions it becomes obvious that the presenter is not seeking any concrete answers from his audience. Nevertheless, even utterances of this kind may be classified as efforts to attain audience involvement or to engage the audience by singling out controversial issue, the underlying aim being exhorting the audience to think together with presenter and to identify with the main concerns that exert considerable influence on the approach adopted by the presenter in structuring and sharing information.

In a brief summary depicting the most outstanding historical developments resulting in the current status quo, the speaker succeeds in projecting an epistemic stance in a rather idiosyncratic way: *First, in the 70s and 80s some people attacked this view, so they tried to replace this term 'non-native' and 'native speaker of English' with the more or less accomplished appellation 'users of English' and 'expert speakers of English'.* Although Morita (2000) defines the concept of epistemic stance in a comparatively narrower sense (cf. pp. 289-290), if one gives the criterion on the presenter 'openly enunciating his or her standpoint on a controversial issue' multiple renderings by juxtaposing it with the entry on 'enunciate' in the Oxford Dictionary of English (i.e. 'express [...] in clear or definite terms', p. 581), it is not difficult to conclude that usage of labels, such as 'more or less accomplished appellation' does indeed convey a value judgement.

Delineating an epistemic stance continues in the ensuing section of the presentation. Sometimes it seems uncertain whether the speaker raises a question to aid audience involvement or utilises the interrogative form to grant himself an opportunity to asseverate his position on a blatantly controversial issue: *But these terms, 'non-native*

*teachers' and 'native teachers', are still widely used by teachers and researchers as well. But why? Because they don't really have a meaning, so you can decide in yourself if you want to be a native or not.* This critically minded assertion naturally gives way to a more extensive critique of literary sources, apparently not mentioned in the research article that constitutes the basis of OAP 10 but picked by the presenter himself. The inclusion of external sources, conversely, enhances the presenter's credibility, hence further validating the epistemic stance secured previously by the speaker. This critique, however, lacks any caustic or berating remarks, but makes use of humoristic elements in a way that seems to have a positive effect on the emotional engagements of the audience: *This article has four kinds of theses. The first one is about NEST. It's got nothing to do with birds or anything like that.* At the same time, apart from humour, the presenter uses another device to assuage the acuteness of the criticism he is putting forward. By drawing on an interactive feature which does not seem to be particularly widely applied in the sample, the presenter of OAP 10 uses imprecise quantifiers to assume control of the severity of his critiques: *But this native and non-native thing is a good starting point to talk about these issues somehow; Because this table was based only on questionnaires, and the teachers were asked about themselves and maybe what they are saying could be a little different from how they're behaving in the lessons.*

Similarly to OAP 09, OAP 10 also contains phrases of structural signalling as well as comments intended to justify the presenter's decision regarding the segmentation of information: *So the results. First, I'd like to speak about the interviews because it's easier to say what they think about themselves than talk about this topic.*

#### 4.2.11. OAP 11

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	14	
Critique	+	2	<i>(...) this kind of analysis claims to be much more simple. And I think she is right.</i>
Implications	-		
Relevance	-		
Epistemic stance	(+)	1	<i>A t-unit can be any independent clause (...).</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	+	3	<i>It is very interesting that style shifts occur (...). Further, there is only one category of conjunctions where (...). It is also interesting that the most frequent conjunctions (...)</i>
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	-		
Audience involvement	-		

Table 29: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 11

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	4	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 30: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 11

The presenter of OAP 11, after declaring the research topic (multi-logical connections in presentation), immediately proceeds to give a particularly detailed account of the circumstances and parameters of the research project she is presenting on. This blow-by-blow summary, however, does not seem to transcend the limitations of a school-like oral report. The presenter is obviously reading out her notes without signalling moot points or potential difficulties. She appears to adhere to the structure of the article in a

highly conformist way and employs the signposting system for structural units used in the article.

The only instance when the formulation of an epistemic stance may be detected is in the description of the analytical procedure, where the presenter attaches a definition of one of the key concepts of the research field, apparently using her words: *The researcher transcribed and divided presentations into t-units. A t-unit can be any independent clause (...)*. This formulation, however, is again followed by a monotonous and rhetorically neutral account of the remaining steps of the analysis. It is only from the beginning of the unit devoted to the outlining of results and findings that further rhetorical features start surfacing, albeit the utterances concerned are restricted to only one type: novelty (*It is very interesting that style shifts occur in every second or third sentence. (...) On the whole, the English presentations contained fewer conjunctions than the Hungarian ones. Further, there is only one category of conjunctions where the two samples showed similarity. It is also interesting that the most frequent conjunctions in both languages were (...)*). Although from these examples it is clearly visible that the presenter does not distance herself from the text of the article, the use of intensifying conjunctions do, in fact, signify the degree of importance and novelty the speaker attributes to the findings concerned. Towards the end of her talk, she even expresses mild criticism concerning problems around the generalisability of findings, albeit in concurrence with the author's own self-criticism: *The author mentions that the number of analysed presentations is too small to produce generalisable results because this kind of analysis claims to be much more simple. And I think she is right*. The absence of any further manifestations of the presenter's own voice seems to have a detrimental impact on time management as well. Coming short of the expect 10-15-minute time range, the speaker talks only for eight minutes.

The presenter's excessive reliance is equally well reflected by the scarce use of interactive features. The only type of interactive tools she employs is personal deictics, represented by only one subtype: the first person singular pronoun (in three instances) and the first person plural pronoun (in one instance).

#### 4.2.12. OAP 12

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	11	
Critique	+	12	<i>What I didn't find really good was that in this research (...)</i>
Implications	+	1	<i>(...) and motivation should get more emphasis in the training as well.</i>
Relevance	+	3	<i>(...) I have some personal experience about this (...) (...) it is a very relevant topic because, I think, based on my experience (...).</i>
Epistemic stance	+	7	<i>(...), it's important to know that Fehér Endre is (...). (...) that's why we can talk about an action research in this case. And I think that the components of situation-specific motivation is quite obvious. Motivation level was around 4 on a 1 to 6 scale, so it was pretty high.</i>
Emotional engagement	+	1	<i>I could hardly understand the teacher (...)</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	+	4	<i>(...) but I'd be very interested in a research project which covered a larger area of the country, (...) because I think that's a very important thing.</i>
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	2	<i>(...) subcategories, which you can read on your handout. And I have some sample questions (...) of the questionnaire.</i>
Audience involvement	+	4	<i>I don't know if you can see it properly. But at the end, of you have some questions about it, I'll answer them.</i>

Table 31: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 12

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	25	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	+	1	other less frequent types	<i>pretty</i>

Table 32: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 12

Following the announcement of the research topic (motivation to learn at three secondary schools in Hungary), the speaker launches a well-planned summary of the background of the research both in terms of orientation and the setting. Instead of simply giving a long list of circumstances and empirical considerations, the presenter opts for an approach whereby her own presence and active involvement in the construction of discourse are accentuated. This endeavour becomes palpable in three different ways. One of them is the communication of an epistemic stance by marking particular conditions as ‘important’ from the point of view comprehending the peculiarities of the research design: *Actually, it’s important to know that Fehér Endre is an English teacher at a secondary school in Újpest, so he’s kind of involved in the project and that’s why we can talk about an action research in this case.* Interestingly enough, this single utterance contains another attribute which also contributes to the affirmation of the presenter’s epistemic stance through a different vehicle: the exert-like identification of research methodological categorisations, exemplified by the appellation ‘action research’. A third way of assuming the role of the relative expert is evidenced by a marked tendency to issue professionally sound and rhetorically self-confident commentaries on certain research processes: *Fehér Endre’s research has shown that motivation is made up of various factors, but the research also came up with the hypothesis that pupils studying at different types of secondary schools might be motivated in different ways. That’s why he decided to make a research about these kinds of students. What he wanted to highlight in this research was the differences in*



*motivation at different schools. He divided the major categories into several subcategories, which you can read on you handout.* The speaker's highly judgmental take on research the author's research methodological decision, with reference to elements of the research design depicted on the handouts distributed to members of the audience, is further intensified by the ensuing comment: *And I think that the components of situation specific motivation is quite obvious.*

Systematic reliance on visual items, employed with the express aim of foregrounding certain details of the empirical framework, is observed in other instances, too: *And I have sine sample questions or sample statements of the questionnaire ... I don't know if you can see it properly* (here the presenter is pointing to the screen). This latter utterance, at the same time, well illustrates the speaker's persistent efforts to establish links between her and her audience. This conscious tendency of the presenter to involve her listeners in the discourse process is not, however, confined to simple check-backs on the participants' ability to receive and internalise new information. Whenever she expounds on a pivotal theoretical point, she invites the audience to draw parallels taken from their own reality, thus not only promoting social collaboration by, contemporaneously, directing attention to the relevance of the issue in question. The conclusive fulfilment of this double function is best seen in situations when, encouraged by the speaker, members of the audience pose questions, relating a lately elucidated content point to their own background: *So instrumental motivation is like when you want to have a language exam?*

Moreover, the utilisation of aspects of relevance for even more genuine audience engagement is manifested in a proportionally substantial stretch of discourse, in which the presenter relates her own personal experience in order to give weight to the practical utility of a particular content point, incorporating elements of emotional engagement: *I*

*have to mention that I have some personal experience about this because when I got to high school, I could hardly speak English. And we got a native speaker teacher, and I had to get accustomed to his manner of speaking. At the beginning it was very difficult to enjoy the class because I could hardly understand the teacher (giggle is heard in the background). The presenter, however, does not stop at this very personal level but continues her discourse by the interpretation of the research findings, ultimately further improving social collaboration, but showing signs of thoughtful time management as well: (...) fourth graders had a significantly lower value. And I'd like to tell that Fehér Endre gave an explanation for this, but I don't have the time to explain it. But at the end, if you have some questions about it, I'll answer them.*

Regarding its structural composition, OAP 12 displays remarkably well-thought-out segmentation, ensuring that the audience can clearly follow thematic progressions of the talk. Evocative, inter alia, of OAP 04 and OAP 09 in this respect, this oral presentation contains straightforward transitional devices: *And basically that is about the analysis. And now I'd like to share with you my opinion about the project.* The indication of this final section of the talk, in turn, foreshadows a thoroughly organised and particularly perspicacious critical discussion of a number of issues touched upon in the article, deemed to controversial by the presenter. The first critique is characterised by negative criticism. It is remarkable to notice that even when performing rhetorical function of presenting a critique, the speaker inserts elements which convey a sense of immediacy and, in one instance, makes an additional attempt at audience involvement: *What I didn't find really good was that in this research he focused only on one small area of the country, and I noticed this indicated in the title of the research, but I'd be very interested in a research project which covered a larger area of the country, for example on students' motivation in countryside schools because I think that's a very important*

*thing. And the other thing I noticed was that there was actually no data about the students' knowledge of English because it's OK that their motivation is high, but it'd be interesting to see how it appeared in their actual knowledge. And another thing was that I didn't mention that there was a vocational school with foreign trade in the focus, which I don't think was a very good choice because, with foreign trade, you'd concentrate more on a foreign language than in a normal school.*

To ensure balance in her critical evaluation of the objectives, scope, apparatus and outcome of the research project, the presenter proceeds with a countervailing critique giving prominence to features she appreciates in the project. In relation to this subsection, it is worth noting that presenter, similarly to her multifarious treatment in the previous negative critique, fulfils more than one rhetorical functions. This time besides immediacy, she shows cognisance of the importance of pointing out relevance: *But I think that the positive feature of the article was that Fehér Endre, being an English teacher himself, was an expert on the topic, and that's why his analysis and suggestions were really good, and I think it is obvious that he had personal experience about teaching English, and that's why his conclusions were really proper and appropriate. And another thing that I found very good was that it is a very relevant topic because I think, based on my experience, that motivation plays a crucial role in the learning of a foreign language.* Finally, this positively worded critique naturally leads up to the formulation of an implication, which also sounds like a suggestion for professional practice: *And motivation should get more emphasis in the training as well.*

With respect to the interactive features present in OAP 12, given the highly individualistic and strongly opinionated nature of this presentation, it should be seen as a corollary that it abounds in personal deictics, with the first person singular pronoun outnumbering all other subtypes by far. Apart from personal deictics, another category

of interactive features is represented in one occurrence: the imprecise quantifier ‘pretty much’, albeit used as the modifier of an adjective, but, no doubt, realising a hedging function.

#### 4.2.13. OAP 13

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
Summary	+	12	
Critique	+	9	<i>In my opinion that's not very good because he includes lots of trivial information (...). And also a big mistake is I think about (...). (...) he's kind of biased in this respect. I don't think he should have disregarded lower year students (...)</i>
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	1	<i>You wouldn't want your child to study less.</i>
Epistemic stance	+	5	<i>It is a quantitative research project because (...). I consider the questionnaire to be important because (...). He describes the syllabus – he is very precise. (...) that's something he explicitly wrote, but you don't have to know about that.</i>
Emotional engagement	+	2	<i>(...) which doesn't have anything to do with the entire thing and which, frankly, I don't understand very well, either (...). (...), which is, I think, weird.</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	+	3	<i>So what you can see is totally the opposite of (...). (...) we could argue that (...), but what he did was that (...).</i>
Support items	+	1	<i>And, on the handout, I wrote the conclusions up (...).</i>
Audience involvement	-		

Table 33: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 13

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	20	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	2	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	+	1	other less frequent types	<i>pretty</i>

Table 34: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 13

In line with most of the presentations investigated thus far, the presenter of OAP 13 does not omit to unequivocally define the main focal of her talk: do students need three or more hours of English per week. Although the speaker applies signposting signals, as opposed to the OAPs where this feature has been identified previously, these indications only amount to a single word or a phrase, sounding like subheadings read out loud from a paper (e.g. *About the project*). The first major content point the presenter raises and elaborates on concerns the research design. The identification of the research method followed by a succinct overview of the main steps of the empirical procedure, worded by the presenter in an easy-to-understand fashion, suggests that she has a profound understanding of the processes involved and projects a relative-expert-like image: *It is a quantitative research project because Alderson used statistical data in the write-up of the research project, and the design that he uses was a survey. He included a questionnaire for them, then he included a case study for a mixture of both of them. The case study is to compare the findings they had.*

This unassuming but, nonetheless, lucid account is followed by clearly articulated position, felt to conducive to the affirmation of the presenter's epistemic stance: *I consider the questionnaire to be important because it contains questions about students; whether they had private lessons or how long they've been learning English or a combination of both.* The speaker's epistemic stance is further buttressed by what has previously been identified as labelling (cf. OAP 10), whereby the presenter attaches a

value judgment of particular empirical acts, very often through the use of a single adjective. This kind of judgmental attitude is attested with reference to the author's document analysis (*He describes the syllabus – he is very precise*) and the displaying of statistical data (*He included tables, which have statistics in them to help you virtually understand what's going on; and he is extremely meticulous*).

However, besides the single-words positive appraisals, the presenter embarks on a relatively protracted critique of some of the author's solutions with regard to issues of research methodology and data presentation. In her ever intensifying series of critical remarks, the speaker does not appear to show any intention to employ imprecise quantifiers or any other hedging devices to cushion the force of her often denigrating claims but adopts a predominantly brow-beating attitude. This unmitigated series of negative remarks is especially prominent in the presenter's commentary on statistical procedures. This flippant treatment of methodological issues which would definitely deserve more attention does not seem to aid audience engagement but even conveys a slightly condescending attitude towards the audience: *In my opinion, that's not very good because he includes lots of trivial information; for example, if you look at 'Mean FD', and he barely explains what that means. And, for example, he includes things, like how boys and girls performed on this proficiency test, and that's something he explicitly wrote, but you don't have to know about that.*

In what follows, however, the presenter, presumably inadvertently, temporarily relinquishes her position as a knowledgeable source of information by not concealing her ignorance of certain statistical operations employed by the researcher. However, a clumsy step this might be labelled, and even though it clearly undermines her relative-expert-like epistemic stance, this seeming blunder does, in fact, do the speaker good service in terms of repairing relations with the audience by relying on the tool of

emotional engagement: *And, yeah, he uses abstract figures and the Cronbach Alpha, which again he explains very briefly, and which doesn't have anything to do with the entire thing, and which, frankly (presenter is giggling), I don't understand very well, either. So I won't tell you about it.*

This relatively short detour from the main critical track that the presenter has been pursuing, however, does not prevent her from resuming her unyieldingly caustic critique: *And also a big mistake is I think about sociability speaking factor, which is, at large, a lot of data he presents. A large part of this data is insignificant or not significant because he doesn't take them into account during his analysis.* The continued use of negative epithets is observed in the remainder of the critique, too: (...) *he is kind of biased; contrary to what he said (...).* At the same time, it is important to realise that her critical statements are not without a purpose elevating the scope of the discourse from a mere diatribe to a discussion that promotes joint thinking and assessment by highlighting controversies and reinforcing a sense of tension (cf. Morita's (2000) definition of 'strategies to engage the audience' (pp. 291-292)): *So what you can see is totally the opposite of what he was thinking. He might have expected that three hours per week will result in lower test scores, but if you look at it, three hours had the highest scores, which is I think weird (presenter is giggling).* As this example also shows, OAP 13 displays susceptibility to applying emotionally marked adjectives (e.g. *weird*, or in *absurd*, found in a different utterance) to convey a sense of conflict, which is to be resolved by the shared efforts of the presenter and the audience. The speaker's conscious tendency to exhort the audience to take part in the joint resolution of contentious points is also made obvious by the textual environment the critically phrased controversies occur in. On the hand, such instances are characterised by signposting expressions (e.g. *And finally*), meant to ensure that members of the

audience are registering the manner the presenter draws on to segment information. On the other hand, the utterances concerned are marked by the extensive presence of an interactive feature, i.e. personal deictics (mostly first and second person pronouns), in their immediate vicinity.

#### 4.2.14. OAP 14

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	4	
Critique	-		
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	1	<i>I'm sure you are all familiar with course books (...)</i>
Epistemic stance	+	1	<i>Well, I think it's quite similar to the Hungarian expressions (...).</i>
Emotional engagement	+	3	<i>(...) and don't be afraid because it isn't a difficult topic, and there'll be some nice, even funny samples, and I hope you'll enjoy it! You don't have to be Professor Higgins to decide (...).</i>
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	+	5	<i>(...) some of them are not answered, and some of them raise other questions (...). (...) but the question is how should they approach it.</i>
Support items	+	5	<i>Then you can find five clues on the handout. And you can see a picture of him on the handout.</i>
Audience involvement	+	14	<i>(...) I hope you all heard about culture shock (...). (...) I'd like to begin with a puzzle. I'd like to ask you not to read them (...). So what do you think a proper solution could be? And well you can yourselves decide whether you'll agree or disagree with all that I'm gonna say (...).</i>

Table 35: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 14



Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	26	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	4	single-phrase marker	<i>so, well</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 36: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 14

The presenter of this OAP 14 begins her talk by introducing the topic (the pragmatics of culture teaching). However, she does not seem to be content with the plain announcement of the research focus but chooses to use it as an opportunity to start fostering audience involvement by attempting to relate the subject to audience members' previous experience in a down-to-earth and markedly encouraging way: *And I hope that you've all hear about culture shock, and don't be afraid because it isn't a difficult topic, and there'll be some nice, even funny samples, and I hope you'll enjoy it!* A closer look at this succession of amicable verbal gestures reveals that, in order for the chances of audience involvement to be maximised, the presenter is calling on techniques of emotional engagement as well.

Furthermore, as early as in the introductory part of the talk, the speaker seems to have developed more ambitious aims than mere audience involvement, coupled with emotional engagement. Before delving into any cognitively demanding theoretical discussions, she begins to experiment with multiple voices. Instead of an unrelenting insistence on her strictly defined oratorical comportment, the presenter shows readiness to initiate interaction with and within her audience by assuming the role of a fellow participant engaged in the constructing knowledge as part of a joint enterprise. This endeavour becomes most palpable from her technique of generating recognitions germane to understanding the theoretical underpinnings of the study in focus: *First of all, I'd like to begin with a puzzle. I'd like to ask you not to read them, just listen to the*

*puzzle.* (The presenter is reading the task out.) *And, well, this puzzle may have no sense at all, but (...). So what do you think a proper solution could be to this puzzle?* After listening to a few ideas, linked by the simple coordinating conjunction *and*, intended to invite further contributions, the speaker points to the controversial nature of the situation the audience has been exposed to with a brief remark, which sounds appreciative but, at the same time, conveys a sense of vagueness: *Yes, maybe.* Subsequently, she continues by further emphasising the pragmatic complexity inherent in the modelled situation and provides a few clues of her own: *I think there are hundreds of solutions. Maybe other solutions, as well.* (Presenter is waiting for any possible further ideas for a few moments.) *Then you can find five clues on the handout.* (Presenter is reading them out, attaching an explanation to each clue.) Afterwards, by inserting an insightful parallel meant to facilitate the understanding of the most pivotal theoretical considerations by the audience, she manages to satisfy two main functions of Morita's model of the effective presenter. On the one hand, through a single utterance she succeeds in linking a linguistically deeply embedded pragmatic problem, which would require virtually native level language competence in English to comprehend, to a parallel relation in the audience members' first language. On the other hand, by stepping out of the context of the modelled situation and the clues suggested by the author of the article and drawing on an example conceived of by the presenter herself, she establishes an epistemic stance that by far exceeds the competence of a relative novice: *Well, I think it's quite similar to the Hungarian expressions 'ide' and 'oda'; they can be confusing sometimes.*

This interactive introductory section of OAP 14 is followed by an extensive summary of the particulars of the research design. In elucidating the empirical orientation adopted by the researcher, presenter keeps relying on techniques to relate the

concepts emerging in the research setting and paradigm to the audience's own world and to maintain audience involvement simultaneously: *And culture is also present at lower levels of education. I'm sure you are familiar with course books at primary and secondary school.* She also tries to engage her listeners by creating a sense of conflict contained in the research context: *And here comes the third dilemma. Well, some of them are not answered, and some of them raise other questions, and we may not get proper answers to them.* To ease this sensation of tension, the presenter inserts an interruption in her train of thought, expecting common thinking and well-concerted efforts to handle some fundamental issues (cf. social collaboration (Morita; 2000; p. 292)), interacionally evident especially in the use of direct, second person plural addresses and the auxiliary *should*: *But before tackling them, you should know that there are important questions that you should face, namely culture shock and linguistic enculturation. I will tell a bit more about them.* In this pattern of promoting social collaboration, the usage of cataphoric references, interestingly enough, does not represent a departure from the realisation of the presenter's goal in terms of sharing responsibilities within the discourse, but appears to coherently fit into her discursive texture: *And, as I've mentioned, the difference between EFL and ESL is that (...). And, so back to your first dilemma, which questions what are the roles of culture in the cartoon (...). And, well, you can yourselves decide whether you'll agree or disagree with all that I'm gonna say because there are some paradoxes in it.* Simultaneously, creating the impression of an imminent turning point, the speaker keeps intensifying tension by communicating a sense of anticipation, followed by the presentation of a dilemma worded in an interactive manner, featuring incomplete interrogative syntactic structures and a question tag: *How about non-British cultural features like Canadian policemen, New York buses and New Zealand traffic signs? They don't receive any attention in*

*EFL textbooks, or do they?* (mild laughter ensues). It is also noteworthy to mention that the adjacent sentence contains a poetic question, the poetic nature of which is most evidently retrievable from its prosodic traits, with intonation patterned on the falling pitch characteristic of affirmative sentences: *So how can we rectify the situation?* As demonstrated by this sequence of queries, the illocutionary force of these utterances may, by no means, be stated as posing a question, but they are definitely indicative of the performative acts initiated by the presenter, i.e. fostering audience involvement in the thinking process, instead. This interactive approach to broaching questions and encouraging a didactically well-designed joint thinking process continues to be maintained hereafter as well, further increasing a sense of tension or even suspense and allowing for the insertion of new background information: *Most teachers have a sense that culture should be part of their teaching, but the question is how should they approach it. Before giving an answer to this question, let me tell you about another paradox of teaching culture, which is the teaching situation itself.*

Stemming from the interactive and convivial nature of OAP 14 illustrated above, the delivery of this presentation is best described as lively and promoting collaboration. In harmony with this prevalent streak, it is salient that the OAP contains elements of humour meant to attain emotional engagement, combined with the purposeful application of visual aids: *You don't have to be Prof. Higgins to decide which side of the Atlantic Ocean a particular expression comes from. And you can see a picture of him on the handout. Anyway, do you know who Prof. Higgins is?* (The audience emits slight laughter on seeing the image.)

The presenter's prominent attention to creating and sustaining an atmosphere conducive to social collaboration, however, does not mean that she loses sight of the importance of preserving coherence relations. Awareness in this respect is most

noticeable in the use of cataphoric references, which, in turn, represents significant contribution to the efficient realisation of the former feature: *Anyway, I would like to introduce to you the concept I've mentioned, enculturation, but you should know that there are two types of it.*

The rhetorical characteristics described so far are also well reflected by the interactive features the presenter of OAP 14 employs. By utilising the entire spectrum of personal deictics, including not only first and second person personal pronouns but also the inclusive imperative *let's*, in proportionately balanced way, the speaker draws on an interactional apparatus that is capable of underscoring the dynamically mutation of roles and voices adopted by the presenter and shared with the audience. Besides personal deictics, the repeated use of the marker *well* may be observed in places where the speaker is articulating an epistemic stance or where she is imparting knowledge to the audience in the rhetorical pattern of providing a rejoinder to a poetic question. In both functions the usage of *well* may be linked to the presenter's effort to show restraint, or even modesty, in situations when overweening confidence could easily threaten the desired level of audience engagement.

#### 4.2.15. OAP 15

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	28	
Critique	-		
Implications	-		
Relevance	-		
Epistemic stance	(+)	3	<i>After the treatment was finished, the participants were given the texts.</i>
Emotional engagement	-		
Novelty	-		
Immediacy	-		
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	1	<i>The contextual equivalents of the target items, which you can see on your table 2, were (...).</i>
Audience involvement	-		

Table 37: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 15

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	3	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	-			
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 38: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 15

The announcement of the research project constituting the basis of OAP 15 (effects of competition on vocabulary knowledge) is immediately followed by a thorough description of the study concerned. In providing her account, the presenter constructs her summary by employing linking devices expressing addition (e.g. *In addition to this, (...)*). The summary may clearly be divided into three major structural units. In the first one the speaker supplies a detailed discussion of the measures applied in the project. The second section is devoted to the description of the participants of the study. Finally,

the third part is centred on the analytical procedures employed. The three main sections are lucidly segmented, and transitions are duly indicated.

It is also to be noted that the third section, i.e. the one concerned with procedures, is supplemented by visual support, and the presenter makes frequent references to it: *The contextual equivalents of the target items, which you can see on your Table 2, were two-syllable- and five- or six-letter-long.* Apart from exaphoric references, speaker also uses cataphoric references to allude to previously discussed points of her talk: *As I've mentioned, each context was rated by the experimenter.*

Although offering a wealth of relevant information, apart from the 'Summary', OAP 15 does not appear to display any other rhetorical features listed by Morita (2000) from structural or discourse socialisation point of view. However, despite the fact that no explicit formulation of an epistemic stance is found in this presentation, the expert-like confidence in using research methodological terminology enables at least partial analysis of this OAP in the framework of the Morita-model (*After the treatment was finished, the subjects were given the texts*).

Similarly, interactive features seem to be rather underrepresented in this presentation: The only interactive device the presenter makes use of is first and second person pronouns in a total of three instances. As, except for a single case (see the reference to visual support above), the audience is not addressed by the speaker directly during the presentation, and personal deictics scarcely occur, in view of the analyses conducted and presented in this dissertation, it may be seen as a logical corollary to assume that audience involvement and social collaboration are associated with the extensive use of interactive features, in particular of personal deictics.

#### 4.2.16. OAP 16

Rhetorical features	+/-	no of utterances	selected linguistic exponents
Summary	+	6	
Critique	-		
Implications	-		
Relevance	+	3	<i>And I'd share with you a personal experience of mine (...). (... to know our own identity, we have to know the other cultures and the countries and other people as well.</i>
Epistemic stance	+	3	<i>(...) I'd like to tell you a few words about a source related to my choice. The structure of this paper is very simple.</i>
Emotional engagement	+	4	<i>(...) in Bangladesh you can't write personal names on shoes because they cover the dirty parts of your body. It is very sad only 40% (...). (... he even gave them vodka to drink.</i>
Novelty	+	2	<i>(...) I've found it very interesting.</i>
Immediacy	+	1	<i>And, of course, this solution has to be continued (...)</i>
Conflict/tension	-		
Support items	+	1	<i>You can also find the URL thing printed on the handout.</i>
Audience involvement	+	5	<i>And I'd also like to recommend you to read this article (...). OK?</i>

Table 39: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 16

Interactive features	+/-	no of occurrences	type of linguistic exponent	illustrations
Personal deictics	+	16	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
Markers	+	4	single-phrase marker	<i>so, thing</i>
Imprecise quantifiers	-			

Table 40: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 16

In a manner dissimilar to any of the previously analysed presentations, instead of simply delineating the research topic, OAP 16 commences with the expression of an epistemic stance. In fact, before focusing on the single main article her presentation is supposed to be based on, the speaker cites a different publication representing a source of background information, which have apparently assisted the presenter in better



comprehending the issues dealt with in her main article: *First of all, I'd like to tell you a few words about a related source. It was a great deal of help for me because it is related to my topic. So I'd like to introduce you to various things on code and culture and language learning. And I'd also like to recommend you to read this very article on the Internet because I've found it very interesting. You can also find the URL thing printed on the handout.* Although, strictly speaking, this introductory section does not necessarily satisfy the criteria set by Morita (2000, pp. 289-290) for an utterance to be labelled 'Epistemic Stance' as the presenter does not provide an analysis or critique, enactment of one of the two possible roles associated with this feature of discourse socialisation (i.e. that of the relative expert) is nonetheless detectable in it. In other words, it seems plausible to suggest, and the opening of OAP 16 could serve as a case in point, that, by adopting a broader perspective on epistemic stance, as was the case with OAP 10 above, where the use of labels (i.e. emotionally or judgementally marked adjectives) was interpreted as indicative of a value judgement, utterances revealing the presenter's insightfulness about the epistemic complexities involved could similarly be classified as communication of an epistemic stance. However, it must be remarked that considering contextual imbedding of the introductory portion of this presentation, the identification of the presenter's epistemic stance as characteristic of the relative expert should be treated with due caution as, despite the perspicacity and professional awareness the speaker manifests, she also admits to her relative lack of familiarity with the theoretical foundations of the field (cf. *a great deal of help for me*). This acknowledgement inevitably brings the presenter closer to the relative novice. The co-occurrence of these two epistemic roles, however, well illustrates the transitory and developmental nature of the process of academic discourse socialisation, aptly described

by Morita as a process of ‘disciplinary enculturation and apprenticeship into academic discourse and cultures’ (p. 280).

At the same time, a closer look at the opening part of OAP 16 shows that, besides the realisation of the rhetorical function ‘epistemic stance’, a series of other components of the Morita (2000) model are tangible. Invigorated by the utility and subject-related relevance of the secondary literary source she has discovered, the presenter wholeheartedly exhorts her audience to follow suit and read the article themselves as well, thereby advancing social collaboration. To inspire her listeners to act upon her advice, the speaker conveys a sense of novelty through the word *interesting*, and it is also evident that she is relying on some visual support to facilitate the attainment of her goal (cf. *You can also find URL thing printed on the handout*).

It is only after these preparatory measures that the actual topic of the main article the presentation is chiefly predicated on is disclosed (culture incorporated in second language learning). Prior to embarking on an extensive summary of the research design, the presenter comments on the paper itself by employing a label, a move demonstrated to be pertinent to the communication of an epistemic stance earlier in the present study: *The structure of this paper is very simple – it consists of six sections*. In addition, it is well worth noting that continued audience engagement is stimulated by a variety of rhetorical and interactive instruments. For instance, it is saliently visible that the summary is full of one type of personal deictics, namely the first person plural pronoun both in its nominative and accusative forms: *In Section 2, he gives use the problems inherent in this topic and, in the Discussion Part, he gives us some solutions. (...); He gives us an example on this, (...). But we have to know that in Bangladesh you can’t write personal names on shoes (...)*. Other techniques include emotional engagement (*It is very sad that only 40% of Japanese teachers are native*), suggesting a sense of

novelty (*And one of the most interesting solutions is that there should be free reading classes where children and, well, teachers could read comics, paperbacks and magazines in the target language*) and pointing out immediacy (*And, of course, this solution has to be continued and there have to be free language learning hours in which children can read books and everything*).

In addition, it gradually becomes obvious that the presenter endeavours not only to achieve and sustain audience involvement but to intensify it as she proceeds with her talk. This effort is especially discernable in her approach whereby she combines emphasis on relevance with emotional engagement to secure this aim. To expand an illustration to one of the solutions proposed by the author, which she cites from the article, she adds her own example with all the rhetorical benefits that personalisation could bring: *One example is about a Russian teacher who, to create a Russian atmosphere in the class, gave Russian names to students and he even gave them vodka to drink* (laughter is heard in the background). *And I would share with you a personal experience of mine, too, that my mom told that when she used to go to English class at grammar school, they also had English names, too. And they could choose names for themselves. And it made them feel happy that they felt they were English and enjoyed being English and participating in English classes.* Although the presenter does not seem to produce a conclusion reflecting her own assessment of the practical merits of the research, she further pursues this relevance stressing approach even in the final part of her talk, not departing from her systematic usage of first person plural pronouns as a means of accentuating an audience-centred, inclusive attitude in her diction: *And finally, in the concluding section, he tells us once more that it's really important to teach culture and the language as well, and that, to know the world or to know our own identity, we have to know the other cultures and the countries and other people as well.*

Apart from the first person plural pronoun, exemplified in the immediately preceding utterances cited above and earlier, to provide illustrations of the linguistic exponents of the presenter's persistent efforts to, at least rhetorically, involve the audience in the construction of her discourse, other interactive features are also encountered in various places during the OAP. The second most frequently occurring categories of interactive elements are two other subtypes of personal deictics, namely first person singular and second person plural pronouns. In addition to personal deictics, the occasional use of markers is also evident in OAP 16 represented by several occurrences of *so*, employed in a transition signalling function, and a single occurrence of the word *thing*, suggesting a deficiency lexical performance or preparation, or as a stylistic device indicative of a level of informality vis-à-vis the audience.

#### 4.2.17. OAP 17

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	8	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	+	1	<i>So this proves one very strong effect of instruction.</i>
<i>Relevance</i>	+	4	<i>(...) I'd like to ask you a question about the language classes you've attended (...).</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	5	<i>Some people say that explicit learning, so the conscious way of learning is much more useful (...). Noticing means that when you are faced with a form (...). I'd like to clarify what is instruction and exposure.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	+	2	<i>(...) the author suggests that a third form is also very important. It is interesting that these questions (...).</i>
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	(1)	<i>About this there has been a great amount of debate in a few years.</i>
<i>Support items</i>	+	4	<i>I've included a table. Here you can see part of the test (...).</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	8	<i>(...) when you encounter a particular context or face a situation in your talking? So the first or the second one?</i>

Table 41: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 17

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	12	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	11	single-phrase marker	<i>so, well, thing</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 42: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 17

OAP 17 starts with the presenter briefly stating the research topic (grammar and vocabulary instruction in the language lesson). As early as in the second sentence of her talk, the presenter makes an attempt at highlighting the relevance of the subject by directly relating it to audience members' past experience. This establishment of this link

is effected by the presenter addressing her audience in a particularly didactic and genuinely inquisitive manner: *Firstly, I would like to ask you a question about the language classes you've attended, perhaps from high-school. And the question is which way of teaching do you prefer? When the teacher explains the grammar rules and the vocabulary, and you have to learn them, or when you encounter a particular context or face a situation in your talking? So the first or the second one?* Although this move could most naturally be seen as a technique to foster audience involvement or even encourage social collaboration, the dynamic and interactive nature of which becomes patent in the audience's humming and buzzing that ensues after the multiply worded question, the attempt does not result in the desired outcome. It remains unclear if the silence, which sets in after a few scores of seconds, arises owing to the presenter's lack of perseverance in more straightforwardly insisting on any definite replies from participants, or on account of the audience initial reticence. Therefore, in the absence of any distinctly audible answers from the audience, the presenter herself supplies a rejoinder, laying stress on the segment that points to a novelty: *I think most people prefer the second one, but the author suggests that a third form is also very important.*

Subsequently, the speaker provides a well-principled rationale for her question raising and moves on to draw attention to a relatively mild conflict underlying the dichotomy she is discussing: *This question I asked is really about the explicit or the implicit knowledge. About this there has been a great amount of debate in a few years. Some people say that explicit learning, so the conscious way of learning is much more useful than implicit learning.* Although in the latter statement she does not put forward any critical or analytical assessment of a concrete theoretical issue, the mere act of simply capturing the essence of an otherwise intricate scholarly dispute could lead one

to recognise the presence of a relative-expert-like epistemic stance in these two utterances.

This explanatory approach is further carried on in the ensuing summary of the two main perspectives on learning outlined in the article, whereby the presenter further consolidates the epistemic stance she has previously adopted. This down-to-earth and pragmatically minded nature of the speaker's rendering of the various theoretical strands is especially well observed in the plain wording she uses to paraphrase certain definitions: *Noticing means that when you are faced with a form or structure, you can remember it if you've already encountered or seen it before.*

In the upcoming summaries summing up the chief empirical orientation and the research setting of the project, the presenter retains the mainly explanatory and audience-tailored profile described above. At the same time, the speaker's intention to lucidly segment these various summaries is also unambiguously indicated by means of transitional signals: *And now comes the main question of this study; And now about the real research project.* In explicating the research design, the presenter makes direct allusions to visual support tools. Contemporaneously with the precise and step-by-step account of the empirical measure undertaken by the researcher, the presenter makes sure to go beyond the level of simply replicating the stages of the project verbally and, apparently, regards the context as a good opportunity to furnish her audience with additional explanatory utterances, elucidating concepts she must deem to be crucial from the point of view of gaining a comprehensive understanding of the theoretical underpinnings of individual empirical decisions. This consistent interpretive attitude of the speaker contributes to strengthening her previously formulated epistemic stances, mostly projecting the image of the relative expert and occasionally showing signs of sliding back to the role of the relative novice: *And I'd like to clarify what is instruction*

*and exposure. Instruction is when the teacher explains the most important grammatical structures. And exposure is, at least I think, when the students see the text but don't get any help.*

In the continuation of the description of the procedures employed by the researcher, the presenter draws attention to a novelty element in the design and develops her point in a direction that culminates in the formulation of an implication: *It is interesting that these questions, all of the questions, items were referred to in the instruction, but not all of them were in the text that they had previously read. But some students indicated that they had seen the item. So this proves one very strong effect of instruction.* Recognising noteworthy points in the design and generating conclusions by juxtaposing them with the results, however, is not regarded by the presenter as prerogative reserved for her only. Instead, she appears to invest conscious efforts into constructing an environment of social collaboration, by partly relinquishing her role as the dispenser of information and inviting participants to join her in the thinking process, as well as by extensive reliance on visual support: *And in the two tables you can see the real results of the study. Well, not many things could be read, but maybe you can see that the items that were instructed were rated in a higher amount.*

As for the interactive features occurring in OAP 17, on the whole, it may be noted that personal deictics are found throughout the talk without any noticeable pattern in their distribution. As opposed to first person singular and second person plural pronouns, the most prominent representatives of personal deictics in this presentation, it is fairly conspicuous that exponents of another type of interactive features, namely markers, tend to be concentrated in the discussion and conclusion sections of the talk. Their interactive functions might be diverse. *So* is largely used for two purposes: to indicate movement to a logical corollary (*So this means that noticing vocabulary is*



easier even without instruction) and to generate a conclusion (So the effect of instruction is less higher after a time); well and thing convey a sense of uncertainty, underscoring the gradual and cumulative nature of the self-discovery process the audience has been invited to. Nevertheless, it appears feasible to suggest that, based on the location and the functions of these markers as discussed above, the use of single word markers could be tied to the presenter’s endeavour to achieve social collaboration.

#### 4.2.18. OAP 18

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	22	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	4	<i>And I chose this because (...).</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	(+)	2	<i>(...) and the participants were two different treatment groups. There were three post-tests.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	1	<i>(...) I don't think I completely agree with this because (...).</i>
<i>Support items</i>	+	2	<i>Now the results you can see on the back of your handouts.</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	-		

Table 43: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 18

<i>Interactive features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	14	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	12	single-phrase marker	<i>so, well</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	+	1	other less frequent types	<i>pretty much</i>

Table 44: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 18

The topic of OAP 18 is identical with that of the previous presentation, i.e. the role of instruction in the noticing of vocabulary. This similarity with regard to the source material and content should allow for meaningful comparisons within the analytical framework of the present study. As in OAP 17, the subject of the talk is declared at the beginning. However, unlike in the previous presentation, instead of brining the subject matter into the audience's own reality by point out aspects of relevance and, thus, fostering audience involvement from the initial stages of the talk, the presenter of OAP 18 immediately proceeds to providing listeners with definitions. In fact, this difference is not only a matter of structuring, but the approach to imparting new information to the audience is remarkably divergent in these two presentations. Whereas in OAP 17 the presenter opted for the scenario of first addressing the audience through attempts at personalising content and then supplying them with a simplified paraphrase of a definition, the speaker delivering OAP 18 gives complex, apparently only slightly altered definitions and subsequently adds an example or two to make sure that the presented facts and the participants' background knowledge do have an interface: *Now, noticing means the conscious registration of the impact of forms and meanings in English. And noticing happens when sufficient processing occurs towards making a person conscious of a structure, which actually means that if you, for example, you are checked in a comprehension exercise, then you would notice certain grammar that is used in it. So it's a record of the event before entering the long-term memory.*

Another point of difference between OAP 17 and OAP 18 is that the presenter of the latter refrains from expressing an epistemic stance for most part of her talk. It is only in a handful instances in the lengthy summary of the research process that the confidence with which she handles research methodological terminology that a relative-expert-like epistemic stance may be inferred: *The method of the research project was that it was*

*conducted in a Hungarian-English bilingual state school in Hungary, and the participants were two different treatment groups; Now, exposure occurred when participants were exposed to uninstructed items. There were also three post tests.* The absence of any explicit explanation of these research methodological terms should imply that the speaker assumes her audience is equally familiar with the related procedural vocabulary.

Although the presenter pursues an apparently well-planned and logical framework for presenting her discussion of the results and findings, painstakingly attentive to stressing cause-and-effect relationships and systematically facilitating the speedy processing of key research data through the use of visual supplements, she demonstrates aspects of relevance only towards the end when she establishes connections between the research topic and her own area of interest: *And I chose this because I am very much interested in how to teach students actually, in whether it is easier to get an input first, for example, if you go abroad and you want to learn a language, and a lot of people say it is easier to go there and live a while there, and by comprehending you'd be able to use instruction to some extent, but I don't think that I completely agree with this because if you have a good learning method to memorise and practice grammar and then meet people who use the language on a native level, then you would be able to recognise it easily and you'd be able to learn it even more deeper and easier.* From this rather protracted train of thought, however, it is gradually revealed that in a sentence originally meant to provide a personal rationale for her topic choice, the presenter chooses to use the second person pronoun not merely as a grammatical technique to word generalisations but to emphasise the relevance of the research focus in reference to the audience members' own world. Furthermore, from this extended statement of

practical relevance, although disclosed only in a fragmentary clause, the presenter's critical epistemic stance is also retrievable.

As has been suggested before, based on empirical evidence adduced for the purposes of the present project, the use of different types of interactive features is very often indicative of the presenter's attitude to the audience in terms of audience engagement and social collaboration. With the exception of the final part analysed above in detail for rhetorical characteristics, the use personal deictics, mostly second person pronouns, is only sporadic in a large proportion of OAP 18. Moreover, it should be mentioned that, in a sense akin to OAP 17, the single-word markers *so* and *now* are extensively employed to signpost transitions and accentuate logical connections in the discourse. This latter trait, coupled with a single occurrence of the imprecise quantifier *pretty much*, serves to illustrate the presenter's highly didactic presentation style and her unflinching enthusiasm about the subject.

#### 4.2.19. OAP 19

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	8	
<i>Critique</i>	+	2	<i>(...), it was up to the authors to decide, which is quite bizarre. So that's what I missed from this research.</i>
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	2	<i>And maybe, if you have a course book with you, you can implement this (...). So that's why they have chosen this topic.</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	2	<i>We have to make a distinction between EFL and ESL course books. OK. Some useful definitions for the project. The adjacency pair (...).</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	2	<i>But we shall see that normally this is not like that. But, as we shall see, it's not necessarily like that.</i>
<i>Support items</i>	+	1	<i>(...) well yeah, I wanted to do a PowerPoint Presentation (...).</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	-		

Table 45: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 19

<i>Interactive features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	11	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	7	single-phrase marker	<i>so, well</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 46: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 19

In a way representing a different style regarding presentation openings, the speaker OAP 19 starts with a rather informal greeting of the audience. Subsequently, he goes on by identifying the research area (openings and closings of conversations). The pragmatic relevance of such a research orientation is also pointed out by the presenter

early enough in a manner in which he repeatedly addresses his audience in a naturally direct and situationally appropriate tone: *And, maybe, if you have a course book with you, you can implement this in the classroom.* In addition, the speaker does not content himself only with a brief assertion about relevance from the audience's perspective but he attempts to demonstrate how the research questions raised by the authors of the project relate to the broader chalk-face reality of everyday foreign language teaching: *There were several problems listed by the authors, namely about miscommunication or communication breakdowns, usual problems with opening or closing a conversation. So that's why they have chosen this topic.*

This demonstration of the practical utility and of the feasibility of the research focus is followed by a detailed summary of the research setting and the theoretical points informing the study. In outlining the broader scholarly context of the project, the presenter stumbles into a pronunciation problem which appears to signify more than a mere language proficiency shortcoming. In trying to utter the word *sociocultural*, the speaker is apparently counting on the tutor's assistance to help him get this expression pronounced correctly, which inevitably gives away his novice-like insecurity about the subject. However, this sign of uncertainty concerning a key term should not necessarily prompt one to 'hive off' the presenter as a novice as, in the upcoming sections of his talk he displays characteristics that seem to assign him a rather protean status on the novice-expert continuum.

One element that temporarily moves the speaker closer to the relative expert is found in his firm didactic position regarding the separation of entities that are frequently confused or used interchangeably in non-professional or semi-professional contexts: *We have to make a distinction between EFL and ESL course books.* Another feature that also seems to be conducive to this relative-expert-like epistemic stance is discovered in

providing a meaningful synthesis of related background information and integrating it into his own discourse in manner that naturally leads on to the signalling of a sense of tension: *And there is a hypothesis made by the authors saying that ESL course books put more emphasis on the pragmatics part of the conversation, basically due to the scarcity of input in everyday life. But we shall see that normally this is not like that.*

The consolidation of the expert-like image is further enhanced by his resolute announcement about clarifying concepts essential for understanding the theoretical basis of the inquiry: *OK. Some useful definitions for the project.* Although he proceeds with a particularly lucid set of examples meant to shed light on the notion of adjacency pairs, the consistently wrong pronunciation betrays the recentness of his acquaintance with the concept. Furthermore, in describing the various structural components of conversations, delivery becomes intermittent compared to other sections of the presentation. There are only two places when his diction appears to gather some momentum: when commenting on a decision taken by the authors and pointing to a slight contradiction contemporaneously, and in a subsequent utterance where the speaker overtly criticises the authors for a certain measure: *(...), but what is important to know is that critical theory takes into account international conventions, and that's why the authors said that presumably more emphasis would be put on the pragmatics part in conversations in the critical theory. But as we shall see, it's not necessarily like that ... Now, ahm, something about this conversation. Conversations were recognised by the authors if they were labelled 'conversations' by the authors of the book. Of course, sometimes they were not, so it was up to the authors to decide, which is quite a bizarre thing – I think, yeah.* Towards the end of his presentation, the presenter's critical tone becomes more moderate, allowing for a more balanced overall evaluation of the benefits of the research project: *And this research is also like encouragement for others to share their*

*ideas about this topic as well. So that's why this is a good article I think, but it should concern not only the course books but also the attitude of teachers. So that's what I missed from this research.*

Although no noticeable features of social collaboration as understood by Morita (2000) may be observed in OAP 19, it is visible that the instances cited above containing a conflicting point or a straightforward critique do suggest the presence of an audience engaging strategy. This intention becomes especially manifest through the use of the first person plural pronoun, except for one utterance where the first person singular pronoun is used. Looking at this OAP from a wider perspective on personal deictics, it may be concluded that, apart from the utterances meant to convey a sense of tension or to share some critical points, the personal deictics are mostly used only in the introductory part where the presenter is trying to create a bridge between the audience member's context and the research context. Moreover, an even broader angle in terms of interactive features of other types will reveal that although numerically this presentation employs single-word markers relatively extensively (*so, now, well*), from a functional point of view they appear to accomplish hardly anything more than patching gaps in fluency or, at best, indicating transitions in lieu of any more complex linking devices.



#### 4.2.20. OAP 20

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	6	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	+	3	<i>And teachers should pay more attention to (...).</i>
<i>Relevance</i>	+	2	<i>(...), motivation plays a very important role in language teaching. So it is very important to be aware of the functions of motivation.</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	3	<i>There are several types of motivation. This is probably because there are so many subjects to study and they don't have so much time to learn about (...).</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	+	1	<i>Both grammar and vocational school students invest more effort into learning English, which is interesting, because (...).</i>
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	(+)	1	<i>Both grammar and vocational school students invest more effort into learning English, which is interesting, because (...).</i>
<i>Support items</i>	-		
<i>Audience involvement</i>	-		

Table 47: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 20

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	2	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	-			
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 48: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 20

The identification of the research topic (motivation of Hungarian learners of English in three different schools in Újpest) is provided in the first sentence of OAP 20. Although it is not made explicitly obvious by the presenter how this research interest might be linked to the audience members' everyday reality, the speaker prefixes her comment on the general relevance of this empirical focus with the transitional signal *First of all*,

apparently giving additional weight to the relevance aspect, rather than announcing a list of various points. By the same token, it might as well be speculated that it would, in fact, be superfluous on the presenter's part to further emphasise the ways in which the focus is related to the audience's experience, as the context of language learning and teaching may be regarded as a domain common to everyone in the classroom: *First of all, motivation plays a very important role in language teaching. Teachers can influence the direction of their development, so it is very important to be aware of the function of motivation.*

Even though, the presenter does not supply a proper critique or profound analysis of her own of any of the propositions made by the author, the quality of the argumentation that follows the summary of the research design is undoubtedly tantamount to the articulation of an expertly epistemic stance: *First, I'll talk about the differences in the achievements of the different types of students. The first difference was that grammar school students had a great wish to learn about culture. This is probably because at vocational and trade schools, there are so many subjects to study, and they don't have so much time to learn about the cultures of the different English speaking countries. Both grammar and vocational school students invest more effort into learning English, which is interesting, because vocational school students didn't have a high instrumental motivation and interest in English culture.* As this short passage from transcript of the recording of OAP 20 shows, the presenter is capable of not only sequencing information conforming to a pattern of logic, but of producing inferences and issuing hypotheses to give plausible renderings of causal relations, as well. In addition, she also manages to accentuate observations representing a novelty, as exemplified by the last utterance in the cited extract above.

Based on the presenter's account, the bottom line of the research, however, seems to be in contradiction with the previous argumentation. Whereas it would feel naturally to comment on a discrepancy of this gravity, the presenter apparently overlooks it and presents it without any commentary attached: *The conclusion of the research is that motivation plays an important role in studying, irrespective which type of school students study in.* Instead of dwelling on this unexpected outcome, she hastens to formulate a few implications, derived from the findings of the project, worded with the modal auxiliary in a prescriptive tone: *And teachers should pay more attention to, so shouldn't let give up students their motivation of English because they can still be better in it, and they can develop, and they should weigh the students' interests and practical benefits of learning English. Also, they should lower language use anxiety and raise students' linguistic self-confidence, and that's all.*

With regard to interactive features, there are only two occurrences of a single type, the first person singular pronoun, in this presentation. This small number of instances representing only a single subcategory of interactive tools may be attributed to a range of circumstances, including the lack of any assessable efforts on the presenter's part to attain audience involvement, the coherent flow of ideas noted in the argumentative section and the unusually short duration of the talk with 7.34 minutes, compared to the average 10.52 minutes.

#### 4.2.21. OAP 21

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	8	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	+	2	<i>And that special attention is needed in the case of fourth year students (...).</i>
<i>Relevance</i>	+	3	<i>It was conducted because there was there had been no research previously (...).</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	4	<i>(...) the pragmatic and utilitarian benefits of becoming proficient in a language when you use the language as a tool (...). (...), just to show you, standard deviation, it is quite punctual (...).</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	+	1	<i>(...) it really requires a great deal of significant effort and willpower to be proficiency (...), and motivation is the main factor that ensures this to be fulfilled (...).</i>
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	-		
<i>Support items</i>	+	3	<i>On the left you can see (...). (...) I would like to show you some tables.</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	5	<i>And then I've brought you some examples. (...) because when you go to school, in the first year you are very enthusiastic and you think (...). If you have any questions, you can put them now.</i>

Table 49: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 21

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>		17	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	-			
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 50: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 21

After addressing and formally greeting the audience, the presenter of OAP 21 starts her talk by identifying the research topic (motivation to learn English as a second language in three secondary schools in Hungary), properly acknowledging the source the

presentation is based on. The first major rhetorical function that is realised in this talk may most easily be grasped from the aspect of relevance. However, it is interesting to discover that as opposed to the patterns yielded by the data collected for the purposes of the present investigation, which largely coincide with Morita's (2000) definition of relevance, predicated upon the establishment of a link between the topic and the audience members' experience, or represent slightly different approach to personalising content by constructing connections with the presenter's own individual reality, OAP 21 features an orientation which emphasises a sense of relevance by attempting to reconstruct the author's initial rationale for the project: *It was conducted because there was ... there had been no researches previously that showed Hungarian students learning English and their motivation in connection with that. Only primary school students were researched.*

The mentioning of the rationale as antecedent or backdrop to the study also helps the speaker move on to making announcements about her intention in terms of structuring her talk, as reflected by the signposts she uses and the indications of an even more subtle segmentation of information: *First, I'd like to talk about motivation in general and, then secondly, about the research itself. Initially, I'd like to talk about the importance of learning of motivation in learning a foreign language because it really requires a great deal of significant effort and willpower to be proficient in a given foreign language, and motivation is the main factor that ensures this to be fulfilled, I mean these efforts.* In addition to the simple act of providing information on structuring, it is especially in the final part of this passage that the presence of yet another function, namely the communication of a sense of immediacy is undoubtedly detected. This example, therefore, seems to suggest that centralising the aspect of relevance and setting it against a broader context of related research projects along with contemporaneous

hints at gaps or inadequacies in previously conducted inquiries, fairly naturally results in allusions to the immediacy or urgency of the issue concerned.

Following the indication of a proposed structure, in unison with the directions outlined therein, the presenter embarks on a well-detailed summary of the theoretical background, i.e. the components of motivation. In this section the speaker supplies compelling evidence of her relative-expertly epistemic role by consistently employing a terminology associated with professional accounts (*Instrumental motivation offers the pragmatic and utilitarian benefits of becoming proficient in a language when you the language as a tool in your later life*). Moreover, it becomes obvious that the presenter's expert-like attitude to the subject matter does not in the least preclude further endeavours to relate even highly theoretical points to the audience's own world. Although in the previous utterance the use of the second person pronoun may as well be interpreted as a means of wording generally applicable assertions, the remainder of this summary section furnishes clues that unequivocally speak to the presenter's conscious efforts to adapt her theoretical discussion to the circumstances presumably familiar for her audience: *The other group is the situation specific motives. How you feel when you're in a group and you're expected to show some progress.*

This commentary characterised by a felicitous selection of vocabulary reinforcing the presenter's image as a relative expert on the epistemic stance scale is carried on with in the ensuing structural unit, as heralded in the introductory part of the talk, focusing the research design. However, this part represents an almost seamless continuation of the preceding summary of theoretical underpinnings not only with regard to the confident use of professional lexis but also in terms of blending it with an interactional feature, the second person pronoun, a streak encountered in the previous section as well. Notwithstanding the striking similarities in these two respects between these two

consecutive section, as opposed to the summary on the theoretical background, it remains dubious in the commentary on the research design whether the frequent appearance of the pronoun *you* is to be considered as dominant stylistic trait of the presenter's diction as no signs of the speaker's intention to relate any of the research methodological considerations described are observable.

Regarding the utility of personal deictics, the context of the presentation radically changes from the second half onwards. After the extensive discussion of both the theoretical and the methodological background, the presenter adopts versatile roles, all marked by one common feature: the presence of systematic measures geared towards audience involvement. This special attention to the members of the audience is evidenced in the manner the presenter uses visual support: *And then I've brought you some examples. On the left you can see the comparison of motivation and, based on definitions, some examples. (...) And in fact, I would like to show you some tables. With a projector it would have been better because it looks too small.* At the same time, it is interesting to note that even when commenting on information delivered to the audience by means of visual items, the presenter further enhances her expert-like epistemic stance, but not in a patronising or ostracising fashion but in a manner that implies that she assumes that audience members are equally well-versed with the content points in question and the concomitant procedural vocabulary: *On the right, just to show you, standard deviation, it is quite punctual, and in the middle you can see the mean result.* Scrutinising this utterance, conversely, affords another observation. By treating members of the audience as peers, the presenter accomplishes considerably more than a mere act of egalitarianism: she invites them for a joint venture aimed at interpreting data together, fulfilling the criteria of social collaboration postulated by Morita (2000, p. 292). Further development of social collaboration may be identified in the ensuing

discussion, where the speaker employs the technique of personalisation to create a relationship based on simultaneous vicarious impression and cognition: *So it's a significant decreasing. When you go to school, in the first year you are very enthusiastic and you think you quite know the basics, but in the second year you realise it's not really the same. And then you learn and get used to the whole atmosphere. And the number shows the value will increase.*

Despite the well-concerted efforts to foster an environment of joint thinking, the presenter seems to become too deeply embroiled in the countless cross-comparisons of statistical data and the related interpretations. However, in the midst of a variety of roles and voices she has been assuming so far during her talk, the speaker does not appear to be ready to abdicate her prevalent role of the relative expert. This tendency is reinforced by the conclusion she is making. Unlike most other presenters in the sample of the present research project, who plainly tend to cite the conclusion formulated by the author(s) of the article, the presenter of OAP 21 puts forward concluding remarks of her own and, subsequently, develops them into implications: *My own conclusion is that motivation indeed plays a very crucial role, and, of course, the related results should be very good. And that special attention is needed in the vase fourth year students because they lose their motivation because of the final examinations. So they should be motivated more. And awareness of learning the language for practical reasons should be raised.*

Regarding the analysis of OAP 21 from the point of view of the interactive features present in it, it has already been suggested several times above that the second person plural pronoun seems to be pervasive interactional characteristic of this talk, account for by, in large measure, the presenter's conscious efforts to achieve audience involvement.



#### 4.2.22. OAP 22

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	5	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	+	6	<i>So be motivated!</i> <i>I have some pedagogical advice for you.</i>
<i>Relevance</i>	+	9	<i>(...) as we're talking about second language acquisition, motivation is very important (...).</i> <i>(...) and we all go through this dual process, these two types of motivation become one.</i> <i>Let's say that you've learned German for several years and (...).</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	5	<i>So motivation is energy and direction.</i> <i>But this is again intrinsic motivation.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	+	4	<i>(...) when you are motivated, you are not like that because you can see this guy, he is totally out of energy (...).</i> <i>So my last message is be self confident, have a strong sense of (...)! </i>
<i>Novelty</i>	+	1	<i>(...) because it has a positive correlation with second language proficiency.</i>
<i>Immediacy</i>	+	3	<i>(...) the language factor, which is also very important as (...).</i> <i>(...) without motivation, maybe, you cannot achieve anything.</i>
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	-		
<i>Support items</i>	+	5	<i>(...) as you can see it on your handout (...)</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	5	<i>And you can see on your handout a quotation about motivation.</i>

Table 51: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 22

<i>Interactive features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	29	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	11	single-phrase marker	<i>so, thing, well</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 52: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 22

OAP 22 begins with a self-introduction and the announcement of the research topic (second language learner motivation). The function of the first major section of this

presentation may be defined as giving indications of the structure of the presentation. However, it would be an understatement to label this initial part as a simple list of informative items on what to expect during the talk, as the presenter does in fact succeed in performing several other discursive functions, or in some cases creates conditions conducive to the realisation of further functions in the subsequent structural unit. More specifically, the introduction, besides references to structuring, contains utterances suggesting a sense of immediacy, the purposive use of visual support and a degree of audience involvement: *So I'm going to speak about what motivation is because we have to know, and then I'm going to speak about the language factor, which is also very import, as you can see it on the handout, and then I'm going to speak about some pedagogical considerations.*

In the explication of the first major content point the presenter embeds information into context that carries attributes associated with aspects of relevance and a sense of novelty: *So, I have to say that as we're talking about second language acquisition, motivation is very important in second language acquisition because it has a positive correlation with second language proficiency.* The diction employed in this section, in particular, is prosodically marked by the presenter's personal enthusiasm about the subject matter, occasionally verging on stylistic solutions perceived to be rather extraneous to the register and discourse conventions traditionally associated with OAPs. As a consequence, the prevalence of second person pronouns in this section does not seem to be directly linked to an attempt at audience involvement but may be regarded as pertinent to the passionate tone used by the speaker: *And this is a very nice process: the more you are motivated, the higher goal you are able to achieve. Because if you lack motivation, no goal can be achieved. I think that's very important.*

Although the presenter's predominantly enthusiastic attitude to the subject matter continues to be felt in the section meant to elucidate the theoretical foundations informing the study she is reporting on, a number of features pointing to the emergence of the speaker's awareness of her audience as well as to several personal renderings of rather complex theoretical discussions, combined with the purposive employment of visual materials, are also present: *And now I'm going to define what motivation is. There are several types of motivation. I'm going to give you one definition. So motivation is energy and direction. And you can see on your handout a quotation about motivation.* The addition of her own individual and apparently audience-tailored interpretation is even more prominent in the continuation of her theoretical summary, delineating various classifications of motivation types, with special attention to two kinds, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation: *And I think, as you are human beings, and we all go through this dual process, these two types of motivation become one, because if any person wants to reach a goal, this is an extrinsic motivation, but he or she will come to like it because this is a psychological process in my opinion.* Moreover, this utterance testifies to the presenter's efforts to bridge the gap between the subject matter and her audience by underscoring the relevance of the issue concerned, a feature reinforced by interactive instruments, such as personal deictics, enabling the speaker to address her listeners in a direct way as well as to give her message an inclusive embedding. Furthermore, the evaluative nature of this utterance also provides indications of the presenter's epistemic stance.

In presenting another major theoretical strand, the speaker continues to rely on techniques of audience involvement, including not only the personalised use of visual aids but also emotional engagement. This tendency is patently manifested in the utilisation of a humorous tick figure for visual demonstrational purposes, whereby the

presenter manages to prepare a familiar and convivial context allowing audience members to identify with the particular content point in a very informal way and to move to a higher level of social collaboration where the initial separation of voices and roles associated with the presenter and the audience respectively becomes less rigid: *Yeah. And there's a very interesting thing* (the presenter holds up a visual that triggers laughter and amusement on the audience's part) *because when you are motivated, you are not like that because you can see this guy, he is totally out of energy, a totally negative example. And Bloomberg said that (...).*

In a further section of this detailed summary of theoretical underpinnings, the presenter furnishes an additional instance of the articulation of her epistemic stance. Whereas in her previous indication of an epistemic stance, a single and not particularly elaborate evaluative remark did not prove to be sufficient to pass judgement on the presenter's degree of epistemic cognisance, the following utterance is clearly capable of assigning her to a position approximating the relative expert on account of the allusions she makes to prior theoretical points to emphasise contextual connections: *And now I'm going to speak about the language learning motivating factors. Yeah, but this is again intrinsic motivation.* Subsequently, to enhance textual coherence within her discourse, she adds a cataphoric reference, which is combined with an implication further improving audience involvement: *As I've mentioned before, intrinsic motivation is the power in yourself, and this is the highest motivation of all. So be motivated! Yeah.* This markedly audience-centred tone is maintained in the remainder of the talk, facilitating the communication of a sense of immediacy specifically suited to the circumstances of audience members: *The second thing is the learner related level. I think this is the most important level because without motivation maybe you cannot achieve anything, And the most important thing when you are learner is that you have a strong sense of self-*

*efficacy, self-confidence and goal-orientation. And self-efficacy means that you are aware of your own ability. So it's very important in my opinion that (...). At the same time, stressing aspects of relevance by means of personalisation, very often even transcending the epistemic framework of the presentation, continues to be an outstanding characteristic of the final section of OAP 22, leading to a punch-line more typical of business presentations: And I think these motivational factors are not just related to second language learning but to all situations of your life. So my last message is be self-confident, have a strong sense of this self-efficacy and you can manage whatever you want to do.*

The presenter's genuine enthusiasm about the subject matter and the unusually personal tone in establishing links between content points and the audience's reality are also reflected in the types and quantity of interactive devices applied in OAP 22. Besides the ubiquity of personal deictics, mostly represented by first person singular and second person plural pronouns, this presentation displays extensive use of single-word marker, including *so*, *now*, and *thing*, underscoring the collaborative and occasionally casual stylistic attitude of the speaker.

#### 4.2.23. OAP 23

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	8	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	1	<i>(...) so it covers every area of life.</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	3	<i>So, in my opinion, they just realised that everything in life determines motivation to everything (...). I think they are self-explanatory (...).</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	+	1	<i>And I recommend that you all read it – it is very interesting.</i>
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	-		
<i>Support items</i>	+	1	<i>On my first slide, you can see (...).</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	4	<i>(...) and you will see that the relationship with a significant other and parents and school (...).</i>

Table 53: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 23

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	9	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	3	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 54: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 23

Following the greeting and self-introduction, the presenter of OAP 23 immediately discloses the type of main visual aid he will primarily draw on for transmitting his content points: *I'm going to give my PPT presentation about motivation to learn a second language based on the article (...)*. Despite this open announcement, during the talk the speaker makes only two direct single references to the visual device he is using: one on launching the slide show (*On my first slide you see the table of contents*) and the other around the termination of his talk. Concerning the transpiring parts, it may only be

surmised that the signposts he employs to prefix subsequent sections of the talk correspond to headings on his slides (*I'm going to talk about the history of research on motivation (...); Next I'm going to talk about the study itself; etc.*).

Apart from such briefly phrased signposts, the speaker supplies a detailed description of the structure of his presentation at the initial stage, suggesting a conscious plan for segmentation and thorough awareness of the main components of a research project as well as of a coherent report on it: *I'm going to talk about first what is motivation to learn a foreign language and the study conducted by the author of the article and then the findings of this study; finally the conclusion and the references that I used.*

From a structural point of view, the bulk of OAP 23 could be identified as summaries of the theoretical foundations of the study or of the research process and results. There are a few instances, however, where the presenter inserts other components contained in the Morita (2000) model. For example, in explicating the historical development of the empirical understanding of motivation and its identification as a dynamic process, the presenter resorts to the technique of simplification to recapitulate the essence of multiple theoretical strands: *So in my opinion, they just realised that actually everything in life determines motivation to everything and, especially, to second language learning.* However plain and everyday-like this statement might sound, it does, in fact, reveal the presenter's endeavour to transform and gives his own rendering to epistemologically complex issues, thereby showing credibility, a criterion of epistemic stance according to Morita (p. 301). The assessment of this utterance on the relative novice-relative expert continuum is not particularly easy as one could adduce arguments for shifting the presenter closer to either of the two extremes as simplification may be an indication both of incomplete understanding of complexities as well as of the ability to synthesise a large body of

information and reduce it to a digestible chunk. Perhaps a remark on the research design emerging somewhat later on in the talk could corroborate the former assumption: *The analysis was a rather complicated process (...)*. However, when describing the dimensions of the investigation the presentation is based on, the speaker adopts a tone that, due to the self-assurance and confidence it conveys, is more evocative of a relative expert than of a relative novice: *The main dimensions I've listed I think are self-explanatory. Maybe one of them needs some elucidation.*

Two other features included in Morita's (2000) model are found towards the end of the presentation. In attempt to provide a closure to his discussion, the presenter formulates the main conclusion inclusively, suggesting a certain degree of audience involvement in processing the major content points of the presentation covered so far: *So in conclusion, we can say that purpose of the study was (...)*. A sense of audience involvement is further intensified by the presenter's suggestion for the audience to follow up on the subject matter: *And in the References you may read the Internet title of the article I've been describing.* In the subsequent two sentences this hint is turned into a real invitation stressing a sense of novelty about the research project: *And I recommend that you all read it. It is very interesting.*

With respect to the usage of interactive features, OAP 23 displays a relative moderate distribution of personal deictics (mainly first and second person pronouns) and three instances where the single-word marker *So* is employed to formulate a conclusion or to express a sense of closure.



#### 4.2.24. OAP 24

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	4	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	3	<i>Pragmatic competence is really important in foreign language learning. This is the chief reason why I chose this topic.</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	(+)	1	
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	+	1	(Examples read out inducing laughter)
<i>Novelty</i>	+	1	<i>What is really important is what the analysis also showed (...).</i>
<i>Immediacy</i>	(+)	1	
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	-		
<i>Support items</i>	+	1	<i>I hope everyone has got a handout of my presentation.</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	5	<i>I'd like to share them with you. Would you like to read out the next conversation.</i>

Table 55: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 24

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	9	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	2	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 56: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 24

Even prior to announcing the presentation topic (opening and closing the conversation), the presenter delivering OAP 24 begins her talk by showing signs of awareness of the importance of audience engagement, a feature that prevails even later on in the presenter's attitude. At the same time, in the same utterance it is also made obvious that the speaker is relying on visual support to highlight the main points of her discussion and make them easily retrievable: *I hope everyone has got a handout of my presentation.*

Regarding the underlying goal and structural divisions of presentation, the presenter sounds very succinct: *I'm only going to give an overview of the study and of its results.* Although, at first sight, it might seem that the speaker has a rather simplistic aim as to what she wants to achieve, she does succeed in accomplishing considerably more than what she overtly declares, both in terms of rhetorical organisation as well as interaction with the audience.

Immediately following the opening statements of the talk, the presenter introduces the subject matter by hinting at the relevance of the research focus from both an epistemic and a personal point of view: *Pragmatic competence is really important in foreign language learning. This is the chief reason why I chose this topic.* Carrying on her perspective on the general utility of the topic embedded in the context of individual rationale, the speaker expands her discussion, even at this initial stage, to involve her audience in a manner that suggests attempts at social collaboration: *Here are two samples. I'd like to share them with you.* It is also noteworthy to observe that in the ensuing brief explanatory section meant to supply the audience with theoretical background information indispensable for interpreting the examples in question, the presenter uses the term 'adjacency pair' with ease and in the most natural way possible, suggesting the presence of a relative-expert-like epistemic stance in her diction.

Without abandoning her tone conveying conscious attention to audience engagement, the presenter moves on to provide a detailed summary of the research procedure, preceded by an apparently felicitously chosen signpost: *I'd like to tell you a few words about the course books under investigation.* In this overview, the presenter puts forward well-grounded justifications of the author's empirical decisions, thereby further consolidating her epistemic standing as a relative expert. However, it is only through comments on the research methodological considerations that the presenter

allows for glimpse into her rendition of the research design as well as of the results, but by means of laying emphasis on elements that she seems to ascribe significance, thus conveying both a sense of novelty and immediacy: What is really important is what the analysis also showed there are fewer conversations containing post-openings. To illustrate this highlight, she is reading out a few short conversations, giving prosodic indications, evident in the speaker's word stress and intonation, of textual components she apparently deems to be humours. Endowing certain syntactic units with acoustic prominence naturally induces laughter in the audience, enriching audience involvement with an additional element: emotional engagement. Audience engagement, however, is also foster in the section devoted to the discussion of research findings by encouraging joint identification of conclusions, creating additional conditions for the implementation of social collaboration (cf. Morita, 2000, p. 292): *So you can see that the majority of the openings are partial. Would somebody like to read out the next conversation? (...) I think you can see what a conversation with a complete opening and closing looks like.*

The rhetorical functions discussed above are consistently reflected by the types of interactive features employed by the presenter. The continued endeavour to engage the audience in a variety of ways is most patently noticeable from the presence of personal deictics (first and second person pronouns) in the corresponding utterances. Apart from personal deictics, it is also salient that the presenter makes use of another category of interactive devices, namely single-word markers, to aid the realisation of two rhetorical functions: *now* is utilised to facilitate the insertion of a signpost, whereas *so* is applied to emphasise the conclusiveness of joint discoveries.

#### 4.2.25. OAP 25

<b>Rhetorical features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of utterances</b>	<b>selected linguistic exponents</b>
<i>Summary</i>	+	4	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	-		
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	1	<i>So the conclusion is that it doesn't matter how many hours of language per week students have.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	2	<i>Despite the National Curriculum, teachers would go for an increase in the number of lessons per week.</i>
<i>Support items</i>	-		
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	3	<i>All that we can say is that there is no evidential reason to (...).</i>

Figure 57: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 25

<b>Interactive features</b>	<b>+/-</b>	<b>no of occurrences</b>	<b>type of linguistic exponent</b>	<b>illustrations</b>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	3	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	3	single-phrase marker	<i>so, now</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 58: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 25

As soon as the research topic (students on the outskirts) is announced by the presenter, she immediately embarks on a discussion which sheds light on diametrically opposed approaches, thereby creating a sense of tension, a strategy so far unprecedented in the sample as a way of securing the audience's attention: *So I'd like to talk about the debate that has existed for very long and it relates to one of the core challenges of teaching a foreign language at school. Despite the National Curriculum, teachers would go for an increase in the number of lessons per week. But as this research shows, there is very*

*little evidence for raising the number of lessons.* Although indicating tension or conflict within the context of the subject matter may indeed serve as a powerful rhetorical tool to stimulate cognitive processes and elicit responses geared towards a resolution, the presenter appears to leave this potential unexploited as she moves on.

Subsequently, the presenter looks at the results of a survey study, preceded by a brief description of the questionnaire employed for the investigation. Apart from a mere regurgitation of the circumstances of the project described in the article in due detail, the speaker fails to accomplish any of the pedagogical goals identified by Morita (2000, p. 287) regarding the ‘nature of discourse socialisation’. In other words, it may be suggested that the presenter of OAP 25 does not display the outcomes of the ‘analytical and critical reading and thinking skills’ which would enable her to adopt her own individual epistemic stance on issues selected on the basis of perceived importance or interest.

Interestingly enough, but perhaps not completely detached from the absence of a detectable epistemic stance, OAP 25 does not contain any assessable instances that would point to efforts targeting audience involvement. There is only a single utterance that, on account of the first person plural syntactic subject, may be associated with some degree of audience engagement: *All that we can say is there is no evidential reason to raise the number of lesson per week.*

Furthermore, the whole of OAP 25 is marked by a drawl-like and frequently interrupted delivery, projecting a sense of uncertainty and recurring hesitation. At the same time, it must be conceded that it would seem empirically unfounded to establish any definite causal relations between this feature and the observations on epistemic stance and audience involvement referred to above.

In view of the remarks made about the rhetorical properties of this presentation above, it should not be surprising that, except for the sporadic occurrences of single-word markers and personal pronouns, the talk does not contain a variety of interactive features.

#### 4.2.26. OAP 26

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	+/-	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	26	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	(+)	1	
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	2	<i>But before speaking about the investigation, I'd like to highlight some important features of the openings and closings of dialogues.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	1	<i>(...) and, on the other hand, course books do not place enough emphasis on pragmatic competence (...).</i>
<i>Support items</i>	-		
<i>Audience involvement</i>	-		

Table 57: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 26

<i>Interactive features</i>	+/-	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	6	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	6	single-phrase marker	<i>so, now</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 58: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 26

Having informed her audience on the presentation topic (how course book dialogues can be implemented in the classroom), the presenter of OAP 26 clearly defines the goals

she intends to realise in the current talk by providing a concise structural outline: *First I'll talk about the background to the investigation itself, then the results and, finally, I will mention some important materials recommended by the authors.*

In describing the conditions that motivated the study, the presenter alludes to a sense of tension or conflict, although aspects of relevance remain vague: *So the background to the investigation is that even advanced speakers of English are not aware of pragmatic functions, and, on the other hand, course books do not place enough emphasis on pragmatic competence, which is distinct from communicative competence.* As this utterance shows, the speaker is cognisant of the professional context inspiring the study, i.e. the discrepancy caused by the admittance of an existing deficiency and the lack of proper remedy put in place to rectify the situation, she does not go as far as to specify in what ways the audience might relate to the research focus.

Nevertheless, the presenter convincingly demonstrates a degree of insightfulness in terms of foregrounding key information which she regards as prerequisites to fully comprehending the main undertakings of the research project. The ability to identify the theoretical points constituting the backbone of an inquiry in such a manner undoubtedly testifies to an epistemic stance akin to that of the relative expert: *But before speaking about the investigation, I'd like to highlight some important features of the openings and closings of dialogues.* The only element that appears to detract from the persuasiveness of this epistemic stance is the presenter's awkwardness in pronouncing one of the terms central to the theoretical backdrop she is discussing, namely 'adjacency pairs'. However, the speaker does not let this shortcoming impinging on the flow of her discourse by readily accepting the correction offered by the tutor.

The detailed explanations attached to the theoretical concepts are followed by an extensive summary of the research procedure. In this section, the presenter's diction is

often marked by cataphoric references to previously mentioned information, contributing to the overall coherence of the section, as well as of the presentation at large. Similar tendencies and patterns may be observed in the section focused on the research findings.

Regarding the concluding section of OAP 26, it is well worth noticing the presenter's consciousness about providing a closure of her own talk, instead of simply copying the conclusion of the research article she has given a report on. The speaker's sense of ownership of her discourse is most evidently represented by the first person singular pronouns she uses in her conclusion: *So that's all. I tried to summarise Edwards and Csizér's article. I talked about the following points: (...)*. This approach to discourse ownership is also perceptible in the introduction, similarly characterised by the extensive use of the first person singular pronoun. Apart from this subtype of personal deictics, the presentation contains occasional occurrences of the single-word markers *so* and *now*, the majority of them gravitating in the summary sections, in conjunction with the function of segmentation and signposting.



#### 4.2.27. OAP 27

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	6	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	2	<i>Instruction has a lot of benefits even outside the classroom.</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	3	<i>And this is a very important sentence in this article, I think, that the goal of instruction is not (...). I tried to sum up the most important terms in it.</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	+	1	<i>(...) confirming that noticing has an important role in learning (...).</i>
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	+	2	<i>There are debates about the benefit of it (...).</i>
<i>Support items</i>	+	4	<i>And here you can see the procedure of the project (...). And here are some diagrams about (...).</i>
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	2	<i>(...) I haven't got a lot of time to tell you about the theoretical background to the study (...).</i>

Table 59: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 27

<i>Interactive features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	17	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	2	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 60: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 27

The talk commences with the articulation of the speaker's chief intention whereby she identifies her goal as providing a summary, followed by a brief allusion to the envisaged structure of the discussion: *I would like to sum up the article on noticing vocabulary and the role of grammar instruction, which has five main parts.* The presenter's consciousness about timing and structuring is evidenced by the communication of a procedural decision concerning the omission of certain aspects. At the same, she also

divulges the potential delivery-related difficulties she is facing as a result of her decision: *Unfortunately, I haven't got a lot of time to tell you about the theoretical background to the study contrary to my previous intentions, so maybe I'll have to change the slides faster than I used to, but I'll sum up the main points of it.*

In an attempt to grasp the main concern of the article (*The main problem of this article is the role of instruction in language learning in connection with vocabulary and grammar*), the presenter emphasises a controversy inherent in the tension between the commonly disputed validity of the research topic and the unambiguous epistemic and pragmatic utility ascribed to it by the study in focus: *There are debates about the benefit of it because some scientists claim that there isn't any useful goal of it. But from this research we can see that it has.* She continues by offering a resolution of this conflict through directing attention to the relevance of the subject matter: *Instruction has a lot of benefits even outside the classroom.* Justifying the scholarly significance of the research smoothly leads to the establishment of a firm epistemic stance, the relative-expert-like attribute of which does not consist in the formulation of a statement devised by the presenter herself, but in the choice the speaker makes in terms of highlighting information from the cited source and integrating it into her own discourse in a manner that reflects the value judgement she attaches to the claim concerned: *And this is a very important sentence in this article, I think, that the goal of instruction is not to effect a change in learners' behaviour at the time of instruction but to change the whole use of grammar and vocabulary as well.*

Similarly, a definitely expertly attitude is manifested with regard to the commentary the presenter provides on the conceptual and terminological considerations of the study. The presenter's refined perception of the contextually based relative importance of certain concepts furnishes further indications of her profound understanding of the

subject matter: *Here is some background information about the research article. I tried to sum up the most important terms in it. Noticing is one of these (...).* The detailed explanation of the first highlighted notion is followed by a handful of other terms and their elucidations.

In describing the research methodology, the speaker supplies extensive summaries of the processes involved. When she arrives at the discussion of the analytical procedures, owing to time constraints, a thorough-going description is replaced by references to data afforded by some visual support, a step that substantiates the presenter's consciousness about time management, her ability to utilise visual assistance in a timely and opportune fashion, as well as her skilfulness in transitioning to different aspect she intends to devote more time and attention to: *And her you can see the procedures of the project, but, unfortunately, I haven't got round to summing this up. So I want to tell you some words about the results, confirming that noticing has an important role in learning, as I've mentioned before.* Furthermore, these utterances reveal the result of the interaction of two additional elements: Allusion to the relevance of the importance of noticing in the learning process, coupled by the cataphoric reference in the subsequent clause contributes to the communication of a sense of immediacy.

In harmony with the highly individualistic character of this talk, stemming from the various forms of voicing an epistemic stance, OAP 27 contains a large number of personal deictics, represented, in the main, by first person pronouns. Apart from personal pronouns, the speaker occasionally employs the single-word marker (*so*) to introduce decisions regarding discourse organisation.

#### 4.2.28. OAP 28

<i>Rhetorical features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of utterances</i>	<i>selected linguistic exponents</i>
<i>Summary</i>	+	18	
<i>Critique</i>	-		
<i>Implications</i>	-		
<i>Relevance</i>	+	3	<i>Motivation is very important in foreign language learning (...).</i>
<i>Epistemic stance</i>	+	2	<i>It's, for example, as if we were asked how we like people in the US (...).</i>
<i>Emotional engagement</i>	-		
<i>Novelty</i>	-		
<i>Immediacy</i>	-		
<i>Conflict/tension</i>	-		
<i>Support items</i>	-		
<i>Audience involvement</i>	+	2	<i>It's, for example, as if we were asked (...). As you can see, students at grammar schools (...).</i>

Table 61: An overview of the rhetorical composition of OAP 28

<i>Interactive features</i>	<i>+/-</i>	<i>no of occurrences</i>	<i>type of linguistic exponent</i>	<i>illustrations</i>
<i>Personal deictics</i>	+	7	1 <sup>st</sup> person pronoun 2 <sup>nd</sup> person pronoun	
<i>Markers</i>	+	4	single-phrase marker	<i>so</i>
<i>Imprecise quantifiers</i>	-			

Table 62: An overview of the interactional composition of OAP 28

After welcoming her audience, the presenter of OAP 28 identifies the topic of her presentation (motivation in learning English at three secondary schools in Újpest, Hungary). As an integral part of a general introduction, the speaker not only says her name but immediately defines her main intention with the current presentation, suggesting a collaborative approach to discourse: *My name is (...), and my intention is to guide you through this article*. The announcement is immediately followed by a broad overview of the key concept of the study, climaxing in the emphatic indication of its

relevance both in a pragmatic as well as in a scholarly sense: *Motivation is very important in foreign language learning, lots of researchers have previously been made.* In point out the various aspects related to the relevance of the research project in focus, the presenter even goes as far as to situate the investigation in the wider context of prior scholarly inquiries, identify the niche and demonstrate how the given study is meant to occupy that niche (cf. Swales, 1996): *A famous Hungarian researcher, Zoltán Dörnyei, made a research on motivation and second language learning, but no-one ever made a survey on this topic in Hungary before this survey in 1999. So, Endre Fehér filled the gap with this survey he made.*

Having clarified the epistemic context the research project she is reporting on is intended to contribute to, the presenter addresses the issue of the empirical context of the study by providing a well-detailed summary of the research setting and the data collection procedure. When describing the particulars of one of the major research tools, namely the survey, the speaker relates certain instances of her discussion to elements of the preliminary theoretical overview by cataphoric references to previously mentioned information, thereby improving coherence relations in the discourse. At the same time, it is also of interest to observe the efforts the presenter displays, meant to foster audience involvement by the unambiguously inclusive use of the pronoun *we*. Moreover, by no means detached from the speaker's endeavour for increased audience engagement, evidence of simplifying complex relations is also found in these utterances, reflecting an epistemic attitude which transforms abstruse content points, presumably first by comprehending the challenges inherent in the processing of the information concerned without simplifications and then by adapting wording to the level of the audience. As the first step should testify to an epistemic stance characteristic of the relative expert and the second one of the relative novice, it is apparent that the

presenter is aware of the possible positions that may be taken on the epistemic stance scale, even without overtly enunciating her own status in this respect: *The component of the survey involved the dimensions of motivation that I've mentioned before in general terms. I'd like to talk about the questions that were asked in this survey. The first one is about integrative motivation. It's, for example, as if we were asked how we like people in the US and their culture.*

Intermediate conclusions drawn at the end of each main section of the presentation are phrased in a manner that seems to consolidate the presenter's image as a relative expert who is capable of harmonising complexity of expression with the level of her audience: *So the results show that students in every school and every age are motivated to learn a second language, and this proves that language use anxiety and attitude towards native speakers are not influenced either by the students' age nor by which school they attend.* In some instances the presenter's continued attempts at audience involvement are also discernable even in formulating conclusions: *So as you can see students at grammar schools are more motivated to speak English at a proficient level.* In addition, anaphoric references to impending conclusion further reinforce this collaborative attitude attested as early as in the introductory part of the OAP 28: *As you will later see, a younger student is more confident in English learning. So they had a lot of hopes and wishes that they'll learn the language successfully.* Thus, the final conclusion, meant to give the whole presentation a sense of closure may be felt as a slight digression from this systemic pattern of interpretive and participant-centred tendencies as, presumably on account of a timing-related concern, the presenter resorts to apparently reading out the general concluding remarks of the author without any visible transformation or adaptation, thereby regressing to a more novice-like epistemic conduct.

Nevertheless as, pointed out above, OAP 28 is marked by a series of attempts at social collaboration, the overwhelming majority of interactive features are the second person pronoun. Formulating conclusions is also well substantiated by the frequent occurrence of the single-word marker *so*.

#### **4.2.29. An overview of the findings of the rhetorical, pragmatic and linguistic analysis of the OAPs under investigation**

Following a detailed examination of each of the twenty-eight OAPs submitted to analysis as presented in sections 4.2.1-4.2.28 above, it seems apposite to highlight findings of the rhetorical, pragmatic and linguistic investigation that represent phenomena which (a) prevail throughout the sample, (b) are peculiar only to a few recordings or (c) seem to call for a revision of the existing frameworks for describing OAPs from a structural, functional and interactive point of view. In the following sections summarised observations about specific features pertinent to each of the three cases will be discussed individually or in clusters, depending on the amount of data and results yielded by the sample.

RhF	01	02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	M
Sum	0	3	8	5	2	5	5	8	4	8	14	11	12	4	28	6	8	22	8	6	8	5	8	4	4	26	6	18	8.8
Cri	2	0	2	0	4	1	0	0	3	2	2	12	9	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1.4
Imp	0	2	0	0	1	1	2	0	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	2	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.8
Rel	2	0	2	0	5	1	4	2	3	2	0	3	1	1	0	3	4	4	2	2	3	9	1	3	0	1	2	3	2.3
Epi	0	3	3	6	8	0	2	0	7	7	1	7	5	1	3	3	5	2	2	3	4	5	3	1	1	2	3	2	3.2
Emo	1	0	0	0	3	3	1	0	0	1	0	1	2	2	0	4	0	0	0	0	4	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0.8
Nov	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0.5
Imm	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0.5
Con	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	5	0	0	1	1	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	1	2	0	0.7
Sup	1	1	0	0	3	6	4	2	1	1	0	2	1	5	1	1	4	2	1	0	3	5	1	1	0	0	4	0	1.8
Aud	2	4	2	5	4	4	0	0	7	4	0	4	0	14	0	5	8	0	0	0	5	5	4	5	3	0	2	2	3.2

RhF: rhetorical features; Sum: Summary; Cri: Critique; Imp: Implications; Rel: Relevance; Epi: Epistemic stance; Emo: Emotional engagement; Nov: Novelty; Imm: Immediacy; Con: Conflict/Tension; Sup: Visual support; Aud: Audience involvement

Table 63: A summary of the rhetorical features represented in the OAPs submitted to analysis

a. Features prevalent across the sample

Epistemic stance

The category ‘epistemic stance’, regarding the mean of the number of utterances exemplifying this feature, is only outnumbered by the category ‘summary’, present in 27 out of the 28 OAPs. The mere fact, however, that all but three OAPs contain at least one utterance carrying the indication ‘epistemic stance’ (see Table 63: *A summary of the rhetorical features represented in the OAPs submitted to analysis*) does not necessarily mean that all of these presentations convey a well-formulated epistemic stance. In line with continuum-based understanding of the socio-communicative concept of ‘epistemic stance’ as defined by Morita (2000), even the most novice-like expression of an attempt to interpret the research methodological considerations, stages of the analytical processes, the decisions made by the researcher(s) and the findings, however clumsy and rudimentary (as in OAPs 10 and 16) were regarded as exponents



of an epistemic stance. For the same reason, labels, whether positive or negative, attached to any of the aforementioned aspects were also considered as performing a function contributing to the communication of the presenter's epistemic stance (cf. OAPs 12, 13 and 23).

At the same time, the wide array of possible tools used by individual speakers to suggest a position allowing for the assignment of at least an approximate place on the imaginary epistemic stance scale is also of considerable interest. In a sense, providing an empirically attested list of instruments presenters might choose to employ to secure an epistemic standpoint, the present research has identified a number of various techniques to realise a structural and pragmatic function previous authors only had theoretical conceptualisations of. Thus, among the various features resulting in the formulation of the speaker's epistemic stance, the following categories might be enumerated:

- predominantly expert-like use of technical or professional vocabulary (see OAPs 15, 18, 21)
- expanding the discussion of the aspect of relevance to present expert-like insights about the utility of the research project (see OAP 17)
- definitions composed of the speaker's own wording (see OAP 17)
- didactic explanations (see OAP 17)
- pointing out logical (i.e. causal or structurally established) connections (see OAP 17)
- using argumentation as a discursive instrument (see OAP 20)
- providing detailed commentaries of procedural or empirical issues (see OAP 21)

- resorting to simplifications when describing complex concepts or patterns (see OAPs 23 and 28)
- communication of organisational decisions to deviate from the discursive structures of the research article (see OAP 26)
- ascribing relative significance to particular issues or highlighting elements of marked importance (see OAP 27)
- retrospective remarks on one's own discourse (see OAP 27).

### Audience involvement

Similarly to epistemic stance, with regard to the number of occurrences in the sample, audience involvement is only second to the category 'summary'. As the structural category 'audience involvement' is often difficult to detach from the discourse socialisation term 'strategies to involve the audience', the latter, according to Morita (2000) including features that tend to be associated with the communication of an epistemic stance (cf. the presenter 'openly enunciating his or her standpoint on a controversial issue', p. 292), it should come as no surprise that 'audience involvement' shares some characteristics discussed for 'epistemic stance' above. Chief among these is pointing out aspects of relevance (see OAP 14). It is remarkable to notice that in one instance the combination of the speaker's conscious effort to ensure audience involvement with some emphasis on aspects of relevance, mainly centred on the presenter's own personal experience leads to emotional engagement as well (see OAP 16).

Other techniques meant to achieve or intensify audience involvement largely include rhetorical solutions represented by indirect questions, or direct poetic or rhetorical

questions, as well as the interactively marked use of the 1<sup>st</sup> person plural pronoun (see OAPs 10 and 14). In addition, phrases of appreciation of contribution from the audience might also be seen as conducive to audience involvement (see OAP 14). The majority of utterances, however, that contain indications of the speaker's attempts at accomplishing audience involvement coincide with the techniques associated with the socio-communicative feature 'social collaboration' as defined by Morita (2000, p. 292), (see OAPs 14, 17, 21, 22 and 25).

Evidence shows that, apart from rhetorical solutions, audience involvement is also aided by the use of visual, especially when emotional elements are involved in the contextualisation of the visual materials concerned (such as in OAP 22), or by verbal encouragement intended to elicit responses from audience members (see OAP 22).

### Relevance

As has been suggested previously, the articulation of an epistemic stance is in a number of cases linked to the accentuation of the aspects representing the relevance of the research project the presenter is reporting on. Besides the partial congruence of these two categories of structural and rhetorical features of Morita's (2000) model, the analysis of the sample collected for the purposes of the present research has demonstrated that aspects of relevance emerge in two major relations. One centralises the adaptability and usefulness of the concerns and interests motivating a particular research project from the point of view of personal professional or semi-professional (i.e., in most cases, language learning related) orientations of the presenter, thereby providing a personal rationale (see OAP 17). The second approach is about foregrounding issues of utility of the project as seen from the perspective of the

audience or an even broader discourse community, a member of which is the presenter him- or herself, and attempting to personalise the subject matter to suit the presumably shared experience of an existing or hypothetical community, often through putative examples (see OAP 22).

### Emotional engagement

Emotional engagement, as has been proposed in the section dealing with the various manifestations of the structural/rhetorical category ‘audience involvement’, as well as the socio-communicative concept of ‘audience engagement’, frequently appears to be inextricably connected to these two phenomena, either as a means contributing to the realisation or as a feature preconditioned on the occurrence thereof. However, empirical findings predicated on the structural and pragmatic analysis of the sample under investigation enable the researcher to put forward more nuanced observations regarding the discursive environments and forms of rhetorical behaviour associable with this category of Morita’s (2000) model. In this vein, emotional engagement may be seen as linked to one of the following contextual attributes or patterns of rhetorical conduct:

- humorous remarks (see OAPs 10, 12 and 16)
- self-criticism (see OAP 13)
- expressions of regret (see OAP 16)
- anecdote telling (see OAP 16)
- expression of compassion (see OAP 14)
- the use of harsh labels (see OAP 13)
- reliance on amusing visuals (see OAP 14).

## Implications

As Table 63 shows, presenters, on average, devoted only 0.8 utterances to share implications with their audiences. It is important to note, however, that, with the exception of a single presentation, namely OAP 12, implications discussed orally turned out to be mere repetitions of those derived by the author(s) to provide a closure of the respective research article. In other words, despite often well-defined epistemic stances adopted by individual presenters in their classroom performances, the vast majority of subjects participating in the study failed to exhibit a degree of cognisance of the importance of establishing a link between the personalised relevance (where-ever applicable) of the research scope and the concomitant empirical payoff as seen from the perspective of those for whom aspects of relevance had previously been pointed out (i.e. presenter, audience or the general public).

### b. Features peculiar only to specific OAPs

Even brief look at Table 63 might lead one to conclude that there are certain structural and pragmatic features which are peculiar to only a relatively small number of OAPs from the sample. It is also easy to notice that peculiarity in relation to the representation of particular features in individual presentations constituting the sample may be of two kinds. On the one hand, there are OAPs where, from a structural point of view, only a single feature dominates the entire talk. Conversely, there are also features, less straightforwardly discernable from Table 63, the realisations of which turn out to be unique in particular OAPs, compared to the rest of the sample.

To adduce illustrations of the former category, OAP 14 may be highlighted as a talk displaying a high degree of dynamism in terms of giving way to alternating roles and voices, persistently cementing ties between the presenter and the audience. The saliently high index for the occurrence of utterances conveying a sense of audience involvement (14), as opposed to the average figure for this category (3.2), coupled with the considerably lower figures for other structural components, no doubt renders this presentation a predominately collaborative talk.

On the contrary, with a similarly uneven distribution of utterances, but with high figures only for the summary component, OAP 15 may be seen as a pure summary without any detectable signs of efforts on the presenter's part to develop the talk into a more critically minded discussion. Although OAP 18 is also marked by a relatively large number of utterances performing the function of summarising data from the research article, the moderate presence of other features, such as the identification of aspects of relevance, the communication of an epistemic stance, the indication of a conflicting relation and the employment of visual support, along with an individualistically didactic explanatory manner of the speaker, give this presentation a discourse character remarkable different from the uninterrupted monotony of OAP 15 caused by its regurgitating method of information sharing.

As for peculiarities encountered only in specific OAPs, the following idiosyncrasies may be listed:

- in OAP 12 a sense of immediacy is created by providing a critique and developing it into a discussion of issues of urgency materialising as corollaries to the critical insights
- in OAP 14 a sense of conflict or tension is achieved through intensification and creating an air of suspense

- although implications in OAP 22 coincide with those in the research article, the presenter invests efforts into at least partially accommodating them to the context of the audience through the technique of personalisation
  - in OAP 22 emotional engagement is further enhanced by the insertion of a punch-line
  - in OAP 26, besides summarising the main content points of the research article, the speaker supplies a summary of her own talk
  - in a manner somewhat contrary to Webber's (2005) definition of imprecise quantifiers of less frequent types, OAP 18 displays a pattern where the quantifier is not followed by a numeral but an adjective
  - as in OAP 13 *yeah* seems to fulfil the same connective function as *now, well and so*, it may be argued that it should be considered as an exponent of the interactive category 'marker'.
- c. features calling for a revision of the existing frameworks for describing OAPs from a structural, functional and interactive

As it has been pointed out repeatedly in the presentation of the structural and rhetorical analyses of individual OAPs included in the sample, in an attempt to identify particular components of the Morita (2000) model, the researcher encountered a number of overlaps. This was especially true about the notion 'epistemic stance', the presence of which, in numerous instances seemed to be associated with realisations of other rhetorical functions, including the presentation of a critique, highlighting aspects of relevance and the formulation of implications (see OAP 09). Although the first of these features, i.e. the presentation of a critique, is part of the definition of 'epistemic stance'

proposed by Morita (p. 289), the frequent co-occurrence of the categories of relevance and implications along with the communication of an epistemic stance would appear to call for an expansion of the scope of concept 'epistemic stance'. Such an expanded definition should account for any considerable endeavours on the speaker's part to add an analytical angle to the presentation emphasising, on the one hand, the link between research focus and a setting members of the audience presumably have some prior experience with, and, on the other hand, the practice-motivated inferences based on the research outcomes pointing to contexts transcending confines of the research project. Discovering such external relations in terms of a temporal and spatial sense seems to presuppose a degree of insightfulness and perspicacity purported to be required for the expression of an epistemic stance even according to the original definition.

Besides the extension of the scope of the definition of epistemic stance from a theoretical point of view, systematic occurrences in the sample analysed for the purposes of the present research also furnishes the author with empirical evidence necessitating the creation of further rhetorical or structural categories, all representing additional delivery-related manifestations of the pragmatic understanding of 'epistemic stance'. The new features proposed are the following:

- indicating OAP structure at the beginning of the talk (see OAPs 02, 04, 06, 09, 21 and 22)
- signposting of structural units in transitional places (see OAPs 04, 09, 11, 13, 18, 21, 23, 24 and 26)
- justifying decisions about the segmentation of information (see OAPs 03, 09, 10 and 27)
- announcing rhetorical goals (see OAPs 26 and 28).



### 4.3 Document analysis of course syllabi and handouts

For the document analysis phase of the present research project, three types of materials routinely employed by course tutors offering Academic Skills courses where the OAPs submitted to analysis were recorded were examined. These included the course syllabus (see Appendix C), a grading scheme for the course (see Appendix D), a framework for evaluating students' OAPs (see Appendix E) and handouts distributed to students in preparation for their OAPs (see Appendix F).

Even a brief look at the syllabus of the Academic Skills course reveals that the main aims and objectives for the course may be divided into six major instructional areas: retrieving relevant information from academic texts; writing techniques (including considerations of cohesion and coherence relations, awareness of style and style and attention to mechanics); written argumentation; oral academic presentation skills development; task-based reading; note-taking (see Appendix C). Each course content area is broken down into well-defined specific goals to be attained by course participants by the end of the term. The goals related to the content area 'oral academic presentation skills development' are identified in the syllabus in the following way:

- give presentations (in Semester 2 on an academic topic)
- express their thoughts and ideas orally in an intelligible way and have confidence to do so in front of others
- present their thoughts clearly, logically and effectively orally
- prepare and use neat visual aids (e.g., handout, OHT, slides)

Concerning first bullet-pointed item it must be noted that the information in added by the course master in brackets is meant to be received with special attention by course tutors as, as opposed to the first term, when, with roughly the same instructional goals in mind, students could freely choose any topic they took a genuine interest in, in the second term (the time when the recordings for the purposes of the current project were made) participants were required to deliver an oral presentation on a subject pertaining to the realm of applied linguistics.

In the grading scheme for the course, a number of expectations for participants with respect to the successful completion of the OAP component of the course are spelled out in definite terms (see Appendix D). In an attempt to provide justification of the criterion that each student should read a research article from an applied linguistics journal, it is stressed that participants should become acquainted with the most essential characteristics of the research article as a genre. Furthermore, some particulars of the preparation phase, the delivery as well as of the general utility of the task are also described in some detail:

students give a (8-10-minute-long) **formal presentation** about one (whole) applied linguistics research article. This is meant to provide practice opportunity for public speaking on an academic topic for which the content is provided. The task requires close reading, selection of main points, preparation of a handout, preparation of a coherent presentation, focus on timing, delivery, etc.

It is well worth noting that the expression ‘formal presentation’ is printed in bold letters in the text of the original grading scheme. Formal language use, as corroborated by the interview data in Section 4.4, is an issue of great concern students and tutors alike. At the same time, it should be remarked that extensive reading skills are seen as intimately

connected to presentation skills in the quoted passage. Moreover, the importance of coherent discourse construction is also emphasised in the document, in correspondence to the significance attributed to signalling transitions in written assignments (see Appendix C). Apart from close reading, which might be seen as a prerequisite for a critical review, other elements of Morita's (2000) model, such as delivery, timing and visual support are represented in this brief but succinct section of the grading scheme. Furthermore, in line with the propositions which were made in Section 4.2.29 grounded on the empirical observations derived from the rhetorical analysis of the 28 OAPs under analysis, it might be suggested that the mention of the 'selection of main points' could be interpreted as a precursor to epistemic stance.

Consistent assessment of students' performance on the aspects delineated in the grading scheme is duly evidenced in the main categories for observation indicated on the evaluation form: content, organisation, visuals, accuracy, appropriacy, delivery (see Appendix E). As Figure 9 (*Aspects for evaluating OAPs in the Academic Skills course*) demonstrates, the evaluation of OAP content is largely based on the quality of a comprehensive overview of the research project the article is based on. To ensure that students were sufficiently familiarised with the most fundamental concepts in research methodology, apart from extensive class discussion, a handout summarising the chief orientations and the most rudimentary notions in empirical research designs was used with some groups (see Appendix F). The handout also included a separate section listing the typical structural units of a research article. Besides this brief overview of research methodological considerations, in other Academic Skills classes supplementary materials meant to supply students with useful general tips about presentation and public speaking were distributed (see Appendix G) as an example). Advice and recommendations appeared under headings such as preparation, content organisation,

## **CONTENT**

- Aim and rationale of presentation
  - Adequate summary of the main points of the article
  - Aim and research questions
  - Literature review
  - Method
  - Results and discussion
  - Conclusions/implications
  - Overall assessment of the article
- 

## **ORGANIZATION**

- Cohesion and coherence
  - Logical structuring of information
  - Presence and quality of necessary subsections
  - Adequate use and embedding of examples, tables, figures, etc.
- 

## **VISUALS**

- Appropriate handling of and reference to visual aid(s):
  - In-text citation and references on handout/OHT (APA/MLA/other):
  - Layout:
- 

## **ACCURACY**

- Grammar and structure:
- 

## **APPROPRIACY**

- Range of vocabulary
  - Style (formal, academic style)
- 

## **DELIVERY**

- Pronunciation, intonation, articulation, volume
  - Fluency
  - Body-language, eye-contact
  - Adequate pace and timing
- 

*Figure 9: Aspects for evaluating OAPs in the Academic Skills course*

delivery (including aspects like language, voice, body language, interaction), visuals and anxiety.

#### **4.4. Analysis of interview data**

##### **4.4.1. Analysis of interviews with students**

As described in Chapter 3, in order to ensure a certain degree of data triangulation, the pragmatic and linguistic analysis of the recorded OAPs was complemented by the qualitative analysis of interview data obtained from students, on the one hand, and, instructors, on the other hand. As has been indicated previously, student interviews were conducted with ten students selected from the participants delivering OAPs for the purposes of the present investigation on the basis of availability and readiness. In line with the considerations explicated in Chapter 3, instead of a rigid interview protocol, a flexible semi-structured scheme was employed in those interviews. As the framework of the interview was defined by three major content areas, data derived from these sessions, with their duration averaging around 10-15 minutes, will be discussed in relation to the three main content-headings of the interview protocol.

###### **4.4.1.1 Students' prior/parallel experience in delivering OAPs in a Hungarian educational setting (including secondary school)**

One of the most common first reactions when participating students were asked to talk about their pre-university experience with oral presentations was in reference to time-

honoured Hungarian secondary school oral genre, recitation (*felelés*). (Recitation at secondary schools in Hungary is described extensively by Duff (1995), who identifies three pivotal functions of this monologue-like speech event delivered by individual pupils at the beginnings of lessons: maintaining school discipline, providing a basis for check-back and assessment, as well as preparing students for similar oral tasks later on in their studies (pp. 517-519)). Although Duff's ethnographic observations about the changing but still prevalent status of recitation produced on the basis of her first-hand experience at an immersion school in Hungary were written up well over a decade ago, according to participating students' spoken testimonials they contributed to the current investigation, at most secondary schools in Hungary the dominance of '*felelés*' seems to be unchallenged, even despite substantial changes in curricular goals and examination systems. Although, in their interview accounts, most students complained about the strictly choreographed format and ritualistic delivery of recitals, many of them pointed out that they felt these regular assessment-centred activities had helped them become accustomed to a public oracy setting and, with hindsight, they tended to see those occasions as precious opportunities which would assist them in their further academic careers in coping with anxiety associated with public speaking. Interestingly enough, besides this straightforwardly positive payoff for other oral activities students might be required to perform during the continuation of their studies, one student-interviewee pointed out a considerable drawback of recitals that, as she opined, might have rather detrimental consequences for OAPs in a university setting in terms of style of delivery and a sense of audience:

I think a '*felelés*' is definitely a different situation. You are taken completely unawares and, although you are well used to the situation, you'll always get the

jitters. Despite the fact that you're made to stand up in front of the whole class, you know that only person who really matters is the teacher as he or she will evaluate on what you're going to say. Therefore, it's not very surprising that students direct everything they say exclusively at the teacher while naturally ignoring the class. This was problem at some other classes, like history, where we could do presentations back at secondary school, and I remember our teacher telling us 'You are not supposed to be talking to me but to the class', and so I started to pay attention to this. But even at the Academic Skills Course I keep noticing that many students still talk to the teacher and not to the whole group, which I think is clumsy.

Although, as the account presented above also reveals, and supported by information provided by other student-interviewees, oral presentations do emerge at secondary schools, their frequency and prestige are by no measure on a par with recitals. As some students noted, at the majority of classes at secondary schools oral presentations are optional assignments undertaken by pupils on a voluntary basis, usually in return for a reward that falls short of the value and weight of a proper grade received for a recital or a written test.

Talking about the occurrence of the OAP at other courses at university, student interviewees reported that, although practices vary to a great extent, apart from Academic Skills classes and Language Practice classes, oral presentations are relatively rare even at seminar courses offered by SEAS.

#### **4.4.1.2 Comments on the criteria students are supposed to fulfil in the Academic Skills course**

Regarding the expectations about the OAP are requested to perform during the Academic Skills course, a number of the student interviewees noted that they were mostly pleased about the OAP as a compulsory task for the successful completion of the course. Among their chief reasons, interviewees highlighted aspects such as the clarity of requirements, as opposed to other courses where tutors had supplied participants with no prior instructions or recommendations, aside from a few general guide lines all centred around content-related issues. The most prominent requirements of OAPs as perceived by participating students included:

- the use of academic vocabulary
- clarity of expression
- efficient use of visuals (mostly PowerPoint slide shows, as well as the content, structuring and layout of handouts)
- good time-management

#### **4.4.1.3 Unveiling possible conflicts between prior experience with preparing for and delivering OAPs and the current requirements**

When student interviewees were asked to make some comparative remarks about the criteria for OAPs at Academic Skills classes and their previous or temporally parallel practice in this respect, eight out of the ten participating subjects highlighted difficulties around master English academic vocabulary and academically appropriate language in general. Many of the interviewees confessed that although they felt they were fluent in



English in colloquial situations, they found it particularly challenging and demanding to talk about academic topics they do not necessarily possess a solid lexical background that would enable them to express relations they had discovered on the basis of the academic source(s) they had read in preparation for the presentation. One interviewee even emphasised a noteworthy link between academic writing instruction and oral production in academic settings:

It's one thing that I manage to understand what the main points are about in the research article, but is quite a different issue to transmit those ideas or explanations to the group using more or less the same expressions that were used in the article. And even if I succeed in that, I'm pretty sure that the audience will not have a clue as to what I'm talking about. Learning academic writing and academic vocabulary as part of this course is useful, I think, and can help a great deal even when it comes to presentations. But, whereas in writing I have the time to come up with the right phrase, this is not the case with an oral presentation. As a result, it often happens that I know I say something in formal English and then I try to explain it in my own words. So I wouldn't say that my presentation was particularly formal.

Albeit not articulated in such a direct manner as above, the same sentiment was expressed by a number of other student interviewees. As a remedy to the difficulties concerned, they stressed the role of extensive preparation and even rehearsals privately or in small groups outside class.

Regarding the time-management requirement some of them admitted that originally they had wanted to develop their OAPs into a small-scale in-class debate, but they realised that they did not have the time for that.

#### **4.4.2 Analysis of interviews with tutors**

The three participating teachers, all of them routinely teaching Academic Skills courses at ELTE SEAS, as described in Chapter 3, were asked to give their thoughts on two main themes: the use of teaching and producing OAPs from the point of view of students' future academic/professional career, on the one hand, and areas of difficulty teachers teaching OAP techniques must be aware of as well as possibly some tips to combat those problems, on the other hand.

In relation to the first theme, it became evident that tutors involved in teaching and developing oral presentation skills see a very close connection between the OAP and other skills, especially reading, active listening and note-taking. In their reflections they stressed the role of speed reading as well as intensive and extensive reading strategies, as an indispensable prerequisite for a good oral presentation. All three of them ascribed special importance to the ability to synthesise information acquired from a particular source(s), to recognise various patterns of logic, to distinguish between relevant and irrelevant details, as well as to condense information to size suitable for the OAP setting. They independently asserted that these skills are essential for any kind of academic or high-quality professional engagements, irrespective of the type of environment students might encounter during the rest of their studies or in their careers.

In addition to these cognitive skills, tutor interviewees also foregrounded the issue of public oracy, with special emphasis on the boosting of self-confidence, finding and

consistently adhering to the appropriate register. Concerning the latter, two of them mentioned the significance of systematic academic vocabulary building as a precondition.

Furthermore, one tutor-interviewee broached the question of critical thinking and proposed that, even despite all the limitations of a first year course, fostering students' insightfulness and resourcefulness when it comes to the critical evaluation of stances and positions taken up in a source is not only a realistic goal but more of an attitude that students should be encouraged to adopt as early as possible.

Regarding the second aspect, i.e. the difficulties faced in terms of teaching and practicing oral presentation skills in an English academic setting, it was interesting to notice that, whereas the native speaker tutor interviewee felt that vocabulary expansion and cognisance of stylistic shifts as well as differences in term of register might be the most serious challenges to tackle, the two non-native tutor interviewees set the focus on socio-cultural differences between Hungarian and Anglo-Saxon academic contexts. One of them grasped the underlying differences between the two traditions in the following way:

Whereas requirements are not so ready-made for oral presentations in Hungarian, the rules for a presentation set against an Anglo-Saxon background are a lot more clear-cut. A Hungarian presentation is usually expected to be informative. If it fulfils this function, combined with a relatively lively delivery style, it will pass. In an Anglo-Saxon talk, however, three goals should be accomplished simultaneously: it should be informative, entertaining and critical. The only question mark I have inside me is which of the two traditions we should get our students to adopt and follow.

## **5. Conclusion**

### **5.1. The main goals of the research project**

The research project described in the present dissertation was defined by three main areas of scholarly and pedagogical interest. Firstly, in order to find out about some properties of the most characteristic speech events students of English at ELTE SEAS may encounter during their academic careers, with special emphasis on the OAP, a survey study was conducted probing into the perceptions of the two chief stakeholders of the academic scene with English as a medium and object of instruction, students and teachers. Secondly, based on in-depth analyses of OAPs recorded in first year Academic Skills classes offered by ELTE SEAS, the project was intended to produce detailed qualitative descriptions of the structural-rhetorical, discourse socialisation-related and interactive features of the 28 texts. Thirdly, interview data collected from participating students and tutors, as well as printed course materials were examined with the aim of situating the OAP as a genre in a wider educational and developmental context, as well as with an eye to needs-analysis related aspects.

### **5.2. The main findings of the research project**

One of the chief discoveries made with the help of the survey study concerned the identification of the OAP as the second most frequently occurring speech event according to both student and tutor responses, surpassed only by general class participation. At the same time, by contrasting the frequency and perceived importance dimensions of the speech event categories highlighted in the survey partially adopted

from Ferris and Tagg (1996), although class participation was shown to retain its top position in both samples, in the student sample debate was felt to be equally important, whereas, on the basis of tutor responses, the category debate appeared only in the mid-ranges. Furthermore, partial two-tailed correlation tests demonstrated a particularly strong correlation between frequency and importance dimensions in the tutor sample and a significant but relatively milder correlation value for the student sample. Regarding the proximity of perceptions about the OAP in terms of frequency and importance, the Spearman bivariate correlation test revealed close correspondence between tutors' practice and sense of importance, whereas students' judgments along the two dimensions seemed to be considerably more divergent.

The second phase of the research, in the main focusing on aspects of discourse structure, rhetorical organisation and discourse socialisation, utilising models developed by Morita (2000), revealed that, from a quantitative point of view, providing a summary of research processes was the most prevalent feature in the sample consisting of 28 recorded OAPs performed by participating students. Furthermore, another numerically outstanding category of Morita's structural model, audience involvement, was shown to be interrelated to and often interdependent on features, such as the communication of an epistemic stance, pointing out aspects of relevance, emotional engagement or even allusions to visual aids, all representing separate categories in the original framework. The formulation of an epistemic stance, defined by Morita as a continuum of contiguous developmental stages in the discourse socialisation process marked by the two end-points, the relative novice and the relative expert (pp. 289-290), was seen to display a high degree of dynamism even within a single OAP, thus materialising in techniques such as expert-like use of professional vocabulary, insights about the utility of the research, re-worded definitions, didactic explanations, stressing logical connections and

the communication of organisational decisions, to name a few. Similarly, emotional engagement emerged as a rhetorical function manifesting in a wide array of techniques, including humorous remarks, self-criticism, expressions of regret, anecdote telling, exposing contrasts, harsh labelling and the use of amusing visuals. Moreover, audience engagement and social collaboration turned out to be closely associated with interactive features, mainly the use of personal deictics, in an effort to personalise the presentation topic and foster group cooperation.

The third phase of the project concentrating on the analysis of contexts and needs, implemented with the help of two major sets of research instruments, documents (syllabi, handouts and evaluation forms) related to the Academic Skills course, where the OAPs were recorded, revealed a close link between the explicit teaching of skills indispensable in the production and processing of written discourse, on the one hand, and of OAPs, on the other, an emphatic issue raised by participating tutors in the interview study as well. It was also interesting to note that features of a good OAP as identified by student interviewees largely overlapped with the main criteria for the OAP listed in the teaching materials: use of academic vocabulary, clarity of expression, efficient use of visuals and good time management. Moreover, on the basis of the interview data with tutors, it became evident that reinforcing generic properties of academic oracy, especially in terms of register and vocabulary, might be one of the keys to further academic success, a concern also voiced by students, albeit in a slightly different context. At the same time, in a contrastive discussion of Hungarian and English OAPs during interviews with tutors, the importance of critical insights as an essential component of Anglo-Saxon-style OAPs also emerged.

### 5.3. Novelties

The present study was meant to fill an important niche in genre-based investigations in a Hungarian academic EFL setting. Therefore, the main results of the research should be seen as contributing to three major fields of study: by providing a detailed description of the genre of the OAP it brings new results in genre analysis; by focusing on a lesser researched, specific educational context it adds to the study of EAP (embedded in the broader context of ESP); and, finally, by yielding data that enabled the refinement of existing discourse analytical tools it also contributes significantly to the larger field of discourse analysis.

Some of the discoveries made during the qualitative analysis of the recorded OAPs were shown to call for the modifications of the existing frameworks describing OAPs. Based on empirical evidence gathered in the discourse analytical phase of the present research project, it was suggested that the category epistemic stance as determined in Morita's (2000) model should be expanded to account for the speaker's efforts to add any analytical angles intended to bridge the gap between the context of the research project and a context members of the audience are assumed to be familiar with, as well as to point to practice-oriented implications that could be seen as valid even outside the scope of the research context. Apart from this adjustment in the theoretical definition of epistemic stance, further changes or additions were also necessitated from an empirical point of view, giving rise to new structural labels and categories. These could include the indication of OAP structure, signposting structural units, justifying decisions about information segmentation and the announcing of rhetorical goals.

## **5.4. The limitations of the research project and directions for further research**

Although the main goals and objectives motivating the dissertation research have been accomplished, i.e. an extensive and empirically grounded description of the OAP, a genre previously little researched in an EFL context in Hungarian higher education settings, has been attained, there are a number of circumstances that seem to impose limitations on the scope of application of the findings of the project.

Regarding research methodological considerations, two weaknesses must be mentioned. Despite the fact that the project was predicated on several empirical stages, defined by various instruments of data collection, triangulating data in some cases appeared to be rather difficult owing to the frequently differing nature of data obtained by means of different research instruments. Furthermore, it should also be admitted that, besides the benefits of intra-coding reliability, analytical reliability in general, could have been further enhanced by involving a co-rater in the qualitative description of the recorded OAPs.

With respect to the generalisability of the research findings, it has to be remarked that as the project was carried out in a single university setting in Hungary with English as a medium and object of instruction, factors peculiar to the institutions might be nearly impossible to filter out to produce particularly strong claims about other institutions of higher education in Hungary where OAPs in English form an important component of students' academic activities. Nevertheless, as the underlying aim was to acquire as detailed and nuanced descriptions of the OAP as possible from a single educational environment, it is trusted that the extensive presentation of a wide range of characteristics of OAPs and the related circumstances, including the perceptions of the



agents themselves, as observed in the complexities inherent in particularity will aid readers in transferring observations and findings to their own settings by identifying shared properties.

At the same time, as English language programmes in tertiary and higher education in Hungary are on the rise, the demand for a more comprehensive investigation of OAPs at a number of institutions across the country is felt to be ever stronger. Such a large-scale project might even assume the more ambitious goal of examining other oral academic activities with due attention to generic and disciplinary properties and requirements, embedded in the context of a thorough needs assessment of the academic and professional needs of students.

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## Appendix A – STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

EÖTVÖS LORÁND TUDOMÁNYEGYETEM  
Bölcsészettudományi Kar  
Angol-Amerikai Intézet



EÖTVÖS LORÁND UNIVERSITY  
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School of English and American Studies

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Dear Student,

The aim of this questionnaire is to make an inventory of the types and nature of academic speech events occurring at the courses of the BA/MA programme in English offered by the various departments of the School of English and American Studies, ELTE. The current research project aims to collect data in order to be able to incorporate the findings of the analyses in the syllabus design and teaching practice of the Department English Applied Linguistics. Your personal view and professional experience are essential from the point of view of the success of the project, so please answer the questions in this questionnaire. We assure you that the questionnaire is fully anonymous, and the information you have provided will not be used for purposes other than those of the present research project. Thank you for your cooperation. Best regards,

David Veljanovszki  
lecturer  
Department of English Applied Linguistics  
veljanovszki@yahoo.co.uk

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### QUESTIONNAIRE

1. How long have you been studying English at SEAS, ELTE? ..... years
2. Are you planning to obtain an MA degree in English? (please circle the appropriate answer)  

Yes	No
-----	----
3. What are you going to use your BA/MA degree in English for after graduation (please circle the appropriate answer(s))
  - a. Teaching English at a state school
  - b. Teaching English at a language school
  - c. Teaching specialized courses in English (e.g. business English, English for tourism, etc.)
  - d. Academic research
  - e. Translation
  - f. In the business sector
  - g. Other: (please specify) .....

4. After each statement below please indicate if the statement is always, often, sometimes or never true **for your seminar courses**. Put an X in the appropriate column.

## Appendix A continued

	always	often	sometimes	never
The course description says that class participation will affect assessment.				
Participants discuss questions and complete tasks in small groups.				
Participants work together on assignments outside class and give a report on them later in class.				
Participants give presentations in class.				
Participants initiate and lead discussions in class in accordance with the main topic of the class.				
Participants take part in debates in class.				
Participants do interviews outside class and/or conduct academic talk in English with individuals whose field/background is relevant to the course.				
Efficient note taking during class is essential for the successful completion of the course.				
Participants ask questions in English about the content of course before/during/after class.				
Participants talk to the instructor privately about the content and the requirements of the course in English.				

5. Below please indicate, based on your experience, to what extent you consider the listed phenomena important with regard to the successful completion of a seminar, as well as to the student's further professional development. Determine whether a particular phenomenon is extremely important, very important, fairly important, not really important, very important, fairly important, not really important or completely unimportant. Put an X in the appropriate column for each item.

	extremely important	very important	fairly important	not really important	completely unimportant
class participation					
small group work in class					
team work outside class followed by a report in class					
presentation					
initiating/leading discussion in class					
debate					
interview/professional consultation in English outside class					
note taking during class					
questions from students about the content of the course in English before/during/after class					
private conversation between the instructor and the student about the content/requirements of the course					

THANK YOU!

## Appendix B – TUTOR QUESTIONNAIRE

EÖTVÖS LORÁND TUDOMÁNYEGYETEM  
Bölcsészettudományi Kar  
Angol-Amerikai Intézet



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Dear Colleague,

The aim of this questionnaire is to make an inventory of the types and nature of academic speech events occurring at the courses of the BA/MA programme in English offered by the various departments of the School of English and American Studies, ELTE. The current research project aims to collect data in order to be able to incorporate the findings of the analyses in the syllabus design and teaching practice of the Department English Applied Linguistics. Your personal view and professional experience are essential from the point of view of the success of the project, so please answer the questions in this questionnaire. We assure you that the questionnaire is fully anonymous, and the information you have provided will not be used for purposes other than those of the present research project. Thank you for your cooperation. Best regards,

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Department of English Applied Linguistics  
[veljanovszki@yahoo.co.uk](mailto:veljanovszki@yahoo.co.uk)

### QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Which department do you work for? (please underline)

Department of American Studies  
Department of English Applied Linguistics  
Department of English Language Pedagogy  
Department of English Linguistics  
Department of English Studies

2. How long have you been teaching at the SEAS, ELTE? ..... years

3. What types of courses do you regularly teach? Please, underline the appropriate answer(s).

seminar  
lecture

4. After each statement below please indicate if the statement is always, often, sometimes or never true **for your seminar courses**. Put an *X* in the appropriate column.

## Appendix B continued

	always	often	sometimes	never
The course description says that class participation will affect assessment.				
Participants discuss questions and complete tasks in small groups.				
Participants work together on assignments outside class and give a report on them later in class.				
Participants give presentations in class.				
Participants initiate and lead discussions in class in accordance with the main topic of the class.				
Participants take part in debates in class.				
Participants do interviews outside class and/or conduct academic talk in English with individuals whose field/background is relevant to the course.				
Efficient note taking during class is essential for the successful completion of the course.				
Participants ask questions in English about the content of course before/during/after class.				
Participants talk to the instructor privately about the content and the requirements of the course in English.				

5. Below please indicate, based on your experience, to what extent you consider the listed phenomena important with regard to the successful completion of a seminar, as well as to the student's further professional development. Determine whether a particular phenomenon is extremely important, very important, fairly important, not really important, very unimportant, or completely unimportant. Put an X in the appropriate column for each item.

	extremely important	very important	fairly important	not really important	completely unimportant
class participation					
small group work in class					
team work outside class followed by a report in class					
presentation					
initiating/leading discussion in class					
debate					
interview/professional consultation in English outside class					
note taking during class					
questions from students about the content of the course in English before/during/after class					
private conversation between the instructor and the student about the content/requirements of the course					

THANK YOU!

## Appendix C – COURSE SYLLABUS

### The content of the BBN-ANG-108 course

*The course participants must be taught to:*

- identify the main points in an academic text, using various reading techniques (e.g., skimming and scanning)
  - summarise the main ideas of academic texts of various lengths
  - paraphrase effectively, that is without drawing closely on the language of the source
- 

- use different writing techniques, such as brainstorming, outlining, free writing, or planning
  - write structured and developed paragraphs and essays to achieve a variety of communicative functions
  - use various rhetorical patterns on paragraph level
  - use transitional words effectively to connect sentences and paragraphs
  - write multiple drafts when preparing written assignments
  - critically assess their own and their peer's writing (i.e., perform self and peer revision)
  - give meaningful feedback (e.g., on content and organisation) to peers
  - react constructively to peer/teacher feedback
  - revise drafts based on feedback received
  - use various registers
  - apply the basic rules of English punctuation adequately
- 

- argue in an academically acceptable way (e.g., use sources to support their own ideas, use APA)
  - develop and support an argument orally and in writing
  - write a short argumentative essay on complex topics
- 

- give presentations (in Semester 2 on an academic topic)
  - express their thoughts and ideas orally in an intelligible way and have confidence to do so in front of others
  - present their thoughts clearly, logically and effectively orally
  - prepare and use neat visual aids (e.g., handout, OHT, slides)
- 

- scan longer texts in order to locate desired information, and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task
  - understand a variety of academic texts of varying length written on a variety of topics (e.g., applied linguistics, linguistics, literature, history).
- 

- take effective (i.e., full and accurate) notes in lectures, seminars, and tutorials (with references) and use them later in their academic work.
  - take effective notes from printed sources
-

## Appendix D – COURSE GRADING SCHEME

### Grading

Students must receive a minimum of five grades for:

#### (a) presentation (graded in-class task)

For this

- students **read articles** from applied linguistics journals on accessible topics. This is meant to develop their reading skills and to familiarise them with the research article genre and the topics.
- students give a (8-10-minute-long) **formal presentation** about one (whole) applied linguistics research article. This is meant to provide practice opportunity for public speaking on an academic topic for which the content is provided. The task requires close reading, selection of main points, preparation of a handout, preparation of a coherent presentation, focus on timing, delivery, etc.
- The list of articles suggested earlier for use in the BBN-ANG-108 course can be used as a starting point for reading materials, but instructors can select additional articles. The suggested articles are listed in the Table below.

Novelty	Author(s)	Article
6/1	Czárl Bernadett	<i>Students on the outer in pairwork</i>
7/1	Fehér Endre	<i>Motivation to learn English at three secondary schools in Újpest</i>
7/1	J Charles Alderson	<i>Exploding myths: Does the number of hours per week matter?</i>
7/3	Bojana Petric	<i>The effect of listening instruction on the development of listening skills of university students of English</i>
8/2	Melinda Edwards and Kata Csizér	<i>Opening and closing the conversation: How coursebook dialogues can be implemented in the classroom</i>
8/3	Zoltán Kiszely	<i>Media discourse from a contrastive rhetoric perspective</i>
9/2	Don Peckham	<i>Noticing grammar and vocabulary as a goal of instruction</i>

#### (b) argumentative essay (graded home assignment)

The argumentative essay is to be a 450-500 words long text written on an academic topic. Students should use 3-5 sources to write the essay. These sources must be academically reputable and identifiable. 60% of the sources (i.e., 2-3 out of the 3-5 total) must be printed sources, and the remaining 1-2 may be electronic sources. The referencing system to be used in the essay is APA.

*Readings:*

#### Academic writing

Hyland, K. (2002). Options of identity in academic writing. *ELTJ*, 56, 351-358.

Webb, C. (1992). The use of the first person in academic writing: Objectivity, language and gatekeeping. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 17(6), 747-752.

## Appendix D continued

Williams, B.T. (2006). Pay attention to the man behind the curtain: The importance of identity in academic writing. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 49(8), 710-715.

Other possible topics:

Feedback

Plagiarism

Wikipedia

Web 2.0

Native vs non-native teacher

The language of advertising

Language aptitude

Group dynamics

Teaching young learners

Teaching adult learners

### (c) summary (graded in-class task)

This task again is to be based on an academic text taken from the fields covered by our BA students during their studies.

### (d) punctuation (graded in-class test)

We agreed that although punctuation is an integral part of any written text that students produce, its importance is probably better emphasised if we also administer a test on it. This gives students the opportunity to revise the rules presented in the BBN-ANG-181 lecture and the BBN-ANG-104 course.

### (e) additional one-paragraph essay task from the “évfolyam ZH”

See the file on the ZH for a sample task.

**Appendix E – EVALUATION GRID FOR OAPS**  
**EVALUATION SHEET - Formal presentation**

Name: .....

---

**CONTENT (1-5): .....**

- Aim and rationale of presentation:

Adequate summary of the main points of the article:

- Aim and research questions:
  - Literature review:
  - Method:
  - Results and discussion:
  - Conclusions/implications
- Overall assessment of the article:
- 

**ORGANIZATION (1-5): .....**

- Cohesion and coherence:
  - Logical structuring of information
  - Presence and quality of necessary subsections:
  - Adequate use and embedding of examples, tables, figures, etc.:
- 

**VISUALS (1-5): .....**

- Appropriate handling of and reference to visual aid(s):
  - In-text citation and references on handout/OHT (APA/MLA/other):
  - Layout:
- 

**ACCURACY (1-5): .....**

- Grammar and structure:
- 

**APPROPRIACY (1-5): .....**

- Range of vocabulary:
  - Style (formal, academic style):
- 

**DELIVERY (1-5): .....**

- Pronunciation, intonation, articulation, volume:
- Fluency:
- Body-language, eye-contact:
- Adequate pace and timing:



## Appendix E continued

---

GRADE: .....

Conversion table

Scores:	Grade:
0-14	= 1
15-18	= 2
19-22	= 3
23-26	= 4
27-30	= 5

## Appendix F – COURSE HANDOUT 1

BBN-ANG-108  
Academic Skills 2

### The Nuts and Bolts of Research in Applied Linguistics

#### Two major types of research

##### *Quantitative research*

- Collecting facts and studying the relationships of one set of facts to another
- Aiming at quantified and generalisable conclusions

##### *Qualitative research*

- Understanding individuals' perceptions of the world
- Seeking insight rather than statistical analysis
- Skeptical about the existence of social 'facts'

The approach adopted and the methods of data collection selected will depend on the nature of the inquiry and the type of information required.

#### Types of research design

##### *Action research*

- On-the-spot procedure designed to deal with a concrete problem located in an immediate situation
- Variety of mechanisms: questionnaires, diaries, interviews, case studies
- Lasting benefit to the ongoing process itself
- Participants continue to review, evaluate and improve practice
- Problem-solving nature
- 'teacher as a researcher' model

##### *Case study*

- Concentrating on a specific instance or situation and identifying the various interactive processes at work
- Often as a follow-up to a survey
- Providing a three-dimensional picture and illustrating relationships in a particular context
- Problems with generalisability

##### *Ethnographic design*

- Field work research developed by anthropologists
- Heavily dependent on observation and, in some cases, complete or partial integration into the society being studied
- Participant observation
- Problem of representativeness
- Problems with generalisability
- Benefit: recognising problems and solving similar problems

## Appendix F continued

### *Survey*

- Obtaining information which can be analysed and patterns extracted and comparisons made (e.g. census)
- Ensuring that the sample population is truly representative (what characteristics to be represented in the sample)
- Question wording and careful piloting are essential
- Possible tools: self-completion questionnaires, interview schedules and checklists
- Questions to be answered: What? Where? When? How?
- The question that remains unanswered: Why?
- Emphasis on fact-finding

### *Experimental design*

- Dealing with measurable phenomena
- Two identical groups: experimental and control
- Establishing a causal relationship

The approaches listed above may be combined.

### **Some key concepts in research methodology**

- **Variable**: an entity that may vary or differ; what can be observed or quantified of the human characteristics or abilities involved
- **Construct**: the actual human ability
- **Operationalisation of variables**: explaining how each variable is being defined with respect to the construct in question (questions to ask: 1. Is the construct labelled with sufficient precision? 2. Does the operational definition of the variable adequately describe the characteristics of the construct in question? 3. Could the definition describe any other constructs?)
- **Dependent variable**: the variable of focus on which the other variables will act if there is any relationship
- **Independent variables**: selected by the researcher to determine their effect on or relationship with the dependent variable; systematically controlled by the researcher

### **The main structural units in the write-up of a research project**

- Introduction (rationale, brief overview)
- Theoretical framework (literature review)
- Aims and research questions
- Participants
- Instruments of data collection
- Method (analysis)
- Results
- Discussion
- Conclusion

## Appendix G – COURSE HANDOUT 2

### Preparing your oral presentation

#### First of all, think!

- *Think about what you want to achieve:*  
do you want to inform your audience, inspire them to think about your topic, or convince them of a particular point of view?
- *Think about your audience:*  
what background knowledge do they have about your topic? Do they have any particular interests? How are you going to involve them in your presentation?

#### Step 2

- Brainstorm your topic and write a rough outline.
- Research your topic. Don't get carried away—remember you have a limited time for your presentation.
- Organise your material and write a draft—think about the length of time you have to talk.
- Summarise your draft into points to write on overheads and/or cards.
- Plan and prepare your visual aids.
- Rehearse your presentation and get its length right. Ask a friend to listen and time you.

### Organising the content

#### Introduction (may be written last)

- *Capture your listeners' attention:* Begin with a question, a funny story, a startling comment, or anything that will make them think.
- *State your purpose;* for example:  
'I'm going to talk about...'  
'This morning I want to explain...'
- *Present an outline of your talk;* for example:  
'I will concentrate on the following points: First of all... Then... This will lead to... And finally...'

#### The Body

- Present your main points one by one in logical order.
- Pause at the end of each point (give people time to take notes, or time to think about what you are saying).
- Make it absolutely clear when you move to another point. For example:  
'The next point is that ...'  
'OK, now I am going to talk about ...'  
'Right. Now I'd like to explain ...'  
'Of course, we must not forget that ...'  
'However, it's important to realise that...'
- Use clear examples to illustrate your points.
- Use visual aids to make your presentation more interesting.

## Appendix G continued

### The Conclusion

- It is very important to leave your audience with a clear summary of everything you have covered.
- It is also important not to let the talk just fizzle out. Make it obvious that you have reached the end of the presentation.
- Summarise the main points again, using phrases like:  
'To sum up...'  
'So, in conclusion...'  
'OK, to recap the main points...'
- Restate the purpose of your talk, and say that you have achieved your aim:  
'I think you can now see that...'  
'My intention was ..., and it should now be clear that ...'
- Thank the audience, and invite questions:  
'Thank you. Are there any questions?'

### Delivering your presentation

**Talk** to your audience, don't read to them!

A presentation is not the same as an essay.

If you read out your presentation as if it were an essay, your audience will probably understand very little and will lose concentration quickly.

So use notes, cue cards or overheads as prompts, and **speak to** the audience. Include everyone by looking at them and maintaining eye-contact (but don't stare or glare at people).

### Watch your language!

- Keep it simple. The aim is to communicate, not to show off your vocabulary.
- Emphasise the key points—and make sure people realise which are the key points. Repeat them using different phrasing.
- Check the pronunciation of difficult, unusual, or foreign words beforehand.

### Use your voice to communicate clearly

- Speak loudly enough for everyone in the room to hear you.  
This may feel uncomfortably loud at first, but if people can't hear you, they won't listen.
- Speak slowly and clearly.  
Don't rush! Speaking fast doesn't make you seem smarter, it will only make it harder for other people to understand you.
- Key words are important. Speak them out slowly and loudly.
- Vary your voice quality. If you always use the same volume and pitch (for example, all loud, or all soft, or in a monotone) your audience will switch off.
- When you begin a new point, use a higher pitch and volume.
- Slow down for key points.

## Appendix G continued

- Use pauses—don't be afraid of short periods of silence. (They give you a chance to gather your thoughts, and your audience a chance to think.)

### Use your body to communicate, too!

- Stand straight and comfortably. Do not slouch or shuffle about.
- Hold your head up. Look around and make eye-contact with people in the audience. Do not just address the lecturer! Do not stare at a point on the carpet or the wall. If you don't include the audience, they won't listen to you.
- When you are talking to your friends, you naturally use your hands, your facial expression, and your body to add to your communication. Do it in your presentation as well. It will make things far more interesting for the audience.
- Don't turn your back on the audience!

### Interact with the audience

- Be aware of how your audience is reacting.  
Are they interested or bored? If they look confused, ask them why.  
Stop if necessary and explain a point again.
- Check if the audience is still with you.  
'Does that make sense?'  
'Is that clear?'
- Be open to questions.  
If someone raises a hand, or asks a question in the middle of your talk, answer it. If you can't answer it, turn the question back out to the audience and let someone else answer it!  
Questions are good. They show that the audience is listening with interest. They should not be regarded as an attack on you, but as a collaborative search for deeper understanding.
- Be ready to get the discussion going after your presentation. Just in case nobody has anything to say, have some provocative questions or points for discussion ready to ask the group.

### Using visual aids

It is very helpful to use visual aids in your presentation, as it helps people to understand. People learn visually as well as orally.

### Overheads

Overheads are the easiest and most reliable form of visual aids. You can use them as a prompt for your talk, so that you may not need cards. (But don't read word-for-word from your overheads!)

## Appendix G continued

### Be careful to:

- Use bold typeface, and a minimum of size 16 font [Check that your overheads are readable by placing them beside you on the floor and looking down at them. Can you read them?]
- Use no more than seven or eight main points on an overhead [Overheads that have too many words on them are no use at all]
- Give your audience time to take notes from your overhead
- Make sure your audience can see the overhead screen [Where are you standing? Is it directly in front of the screen?]
- Using colour, pictures and graphs can make your overheads more interesting [But don't overcrowd your overheads with too much detail]

### PowerPoint

- You can use PowerPoint software to produce very professional overheads, or to make a computer-based presentation.
- Remember that PowerPoint may look great, but if the technology goes wrong you may be very embarrassed. It's a good idea to print out a handout, or have some overheads as a backup just in case.
- Sometimes students are tempted to spend more time on producing PowerPoint graphics than on the actual talk. Remember—if your talk is poor, no amount of fancy graphics will save it!

### Handouts

Handouts are a great idea. Think about whether you want to distribute them before or after your presentation. It is a good idea to include your references on a handout, so that people can follow up on them later. You could also include some follow-up questions for discussion.

### Using the whiteboard (or blackboard)

If possible, put your information on the whiteboard/blackboard *before* the talk begins, otherwise you will have to turn your back on the audience and break your eye contact with them, which is never a good idea. Writing on a board is also time-consuming. Use alternative visual aids wherever possible.

If you really must use a whiteboard, come prepared with the right pens (use pens clearly marked 'Whiteboard Marker'— don't use anything else) and write in large neat writing, so that people can read it.

### Checking out the facilities

Whenever possible, check the facilities of the room where you are going to deliver your talk. Does the overhead processor work? How does it turn on and off? Where is the plug for the computer? Is there a whiteboard, or is it a blackboard? If a blackboard, is chalk provided?

## Appendix G continued

### Dealing with nervousness

The first few times you make a presentation, you will be nervous. That's quite a good thing—a bit of adrenalin often helps you to perform well.

However, to make sure that your nervousness does not become a problem, here are some things to consider:

- Smile! Your audience will react warmly to you if you smile and at least look relaxed.
- Treat your audience like friends.
- Confess that you are nervous! Your audience will be very sympathetic—they know how you are feeling.
- Breathe deeply. It will calm you down and help to control the slight shaking that you might get in your hands and your voice.
- Be well-prepared. Practise giving your talk
- Be organised. If you are well organised, your task will be easier. If your overheads are out of order, or your notes are disorganised, you may get flustered.
- Slow down! When people are nervous, they tend to get confused easily. So your mind may start to race, and you may feel panicky. Make use of pauses: force yourself to stop at the end of a sentence, take a breath, and think before you continue.
- Remember: ***The way you perform is the way your audience will feel.*** Giving an oral presentation is a performance—you have to be like an actor. If you act the part of someone enjoying themselves and feeling confident, you will not only communicate these positive feelings to the audience, you will feel much better, too.
- Accomplished public speakers feel nervous before and even during a talk. The skill comes in not communicating your nervousness, and in not letting it take over from the presentation. Over time, you will feel less nervous, and well able to control your nervousness.