

EXPRESSION OF STANCE AND ENGAGEMENT IN SPOKEN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE IN THE INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

[Valerija DROZDOVA](#)

Assistant Professor, Ph.D.

(Turība University, Riga, Latvia)

valerija.malavska@turiba.lv

Abstract

The use of English as a medium of instruction in universities to work with international and domestic students in Latvia is a current trend and deserves considerable attention. The present article shows the results of a study of the academic lectures in the institutional context. Theoretical findings include definitions of genre and discourse; a description of a lecture as a separate academic genre and of the peculiarities of spoken academic discourse, including lecturer's self-mention, expression of opinion (stance) and audience engagement. The article presents a study of the examples of extracts from the corpus of academic discourse and their descriptive analysis, as well as provides tables of lexico-grammatical features used to express stance and engagement.

Keywords: institutional context, tertiary education, English as a medium of instruction, academic lecture genre, characteristic features of spoken academic discourse, stance and audience engagement

Rezumat

Utilizarea limbii engleze ca mijloc de instruire în universități a studenților străini și autohtoni letoni este o tendință actuală și merită o atenție considerabilă. Articolul prezintă rezultatele studiului prelegerilor academice în context instituțional, efectuate în limba menționată. Constatările teoretice poartă asupra (1) definițiilor genului și discursului academic, (2) descrierii prelegerii ca gen academic separat și (3) particularităților discursului academic oral, inclusiv auto-mențiunea verbală a lectorului, exprimarea opiniei (poziției) și implicarea publicului în discuție. Articolul se bazează pe un amplu corpus de discursuri academice, supuse unei analize descriptive, precum și pe tabele, înglobând unități lexico-gramaticale ale limbii engleze, utilizate pentru a exprima poziția și implicarea cuiva.

Cuvinte-cheie: context instituțional, educație terțiară, engleza ca mijloc de instruire, genul citire academică, caracteristicile discursului academic oral, implicarea publicului

Introduction

English has become the language of communication worldwide in different spheres of life, including education; it is the first foreign language learnt at secondary schools in Latvia and it is further developed at higher educational (HE) institutions. As O'regan (O'regan, 2014, p. 534) stated "English has penetrated societies and impacted upon the lives of individuals to an extent which has no parallel in human history – in education, tourism, business, trade, diplomacy, politics, development, finance, digital communications, fashion, culture and war".

A growing number of people are studying at universities through *English as a medium of instruction* (EMI) whether in their own country or as foreign

students in other countries, including Latvia. English is used as a tool to teach specialized subjects at tertiary level since proficiency in it, especially when combined with the knowledge of and skills in a professional area, is highly desirable on the job market. The results of a study on the role of EMI in 55 countries (EMI Oxford, the Centre for Research and Development in English Medium Instruction) showed that private universities allow English as a EMI in 90.9% cases (Dearden, 2015, p. 10). 'A desire of students to develop English learning skills', 'knowledge of the target culture', 'possibilities for students to study and work abroad' were mentioned as the main reasons for the high percentage of EMI. The policy makers insist on introducing EMI in order to ensure economic growth, prestige and internationalisation, thus sufficiently trained academic personnel, materials and assessment should be considered.

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

Currently almost all HE institutions in Latvia provide education to foreign students from all over the world. For example, *Turība University* is not an exception as it offers professional bachelor study programmes, such as, Business Administration, Tourism and Hospitality Management, Management of International Communication, Journalism and Media; professional Master programmes in Business Administration and Strategic Management in Tourism and Doctoral study programmes in Business Administration, Legal Science and Communication Management in English. There were 1614 exchange and full-time foreign (international) students studying in English in *Turība University* in 2018 (Online 1).

Considering the growing importance of EMI in the institutional context, it has become essential to pay special attention to the genre of the academic lecture as such and to study the nature of spoken academic discourse. The present research is undertaken with the purpose to reveal specific features of spoken discourse with the idea in future to assist novice EMI lecturers in their preparation of lectures.

The author outlines such concepts as *genre* and *discourse* in relevance to the present research, examines the nature of spoken discourse and investigates such linguistic features as *stance* and *engagement* in connection with spoken academic discourse. Data for discourse analysis is a corpus of academic lectures, some of them were borrowed from Internet and transcribed, and

others were recorded and transcribed by the author herself. As a result, the present research was undertaken with the purpose to reveal specific features of spoken academic discourse in the institutional context with the idea to assist novice EMI lecturers in understanding the nature of spoken discourse.

1. Theoretical Background: Genre and Discourse. Definitions

Concepts of *genre* and *discourse* that have been used frequently in modern linguistics were previously studied by many researchers and especially by representatives of three schools of genre studies - Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), English for Special Purposes (ESP) and New Rhetoric School (NRS). Since these concepts can sometimes sound 'confusing and misleading for the readership' (Drozdova, 2021, p. 35) it is wise to elaborate on them and to give definitions most applicable to the present research.

The representative of ESP school of genre studies Nunan defined genre as 'a purposeful, socially constructed oral or written text such as narrative, a casual conversation, a poem, a recipe or a description.' According to the scholar 'each genre has its own characteristic structure and grammatical form that reflects its social purpose' (see Drozdova, 2021, p. 37).

Bhatia, Cook and Swales in Johnson and Johnson (1999, p. 151) have defined genres as "types of spoken and written discourse" that are recognized by a discourse community. Such examples as a lecture, conversation, speech, notice, an advertisement, a novel, a diary and others were studied by scholars and were qualified as separate genres, each with its typical features. Some of these features can be linguistic (use of particular grammar or choice of lexis), some are paralinguistic (e.g. print size, gesture) or contextual and pragmatic (e.g. setting, purpose). Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995, p. 479), who represented NRS considered "genres as dynamic rhetorical forms that develop from responses to recurrent situations and serve to stabilize experience and give it coherence and meaning". According to Freedman (1994), Devitt (1991), Orlikowski and Yates (2002) genres do not exist in isolation but rather in dynamic interaction with other genres (*apud* Drozdova, 2021, p. 35).

Representatives of SFL (Halliday, 1978), (Frow, 1980) studied genre and *register* and considered them to be *used* as synonyms, whereas Martin (Martin, 1985, 2001, 2015, *apud* Drozdova, 2021, p. 36) strongly differentiated between these two notions. According to him genre is realized through registers, whereas registers are realized through languages. Therefore, the text from one genre may contain elements of tenor, mode and field which can differ from the text from another genre.

Discourse is a more general concept that includes genre and the register of some particular genre. It is "language above the sentence" or "language produced and interpreted in a real-world context" (Cameron, 2001, p. 13). Discourse implies the use of both spoken and written modes of language. In the present study the notion *discourse* will be used in the meaning of 'language above the sentence, produced and interpreted in a real world context'. Discourse analysis in its turn is a multidisciplinary research that studies text and context and has a multi-faceted nature.

In our opinion, “any discourse will belong to some specific genre, dependent on the communicative purposes of the speaker, whereas the genre will use some specific register, for instance a written mode or an oral mode, with the individual stylistic features of the author. So, for example, academic discourse may have different genres within it (lecture, seminar, workshop, conference, class, webinar, text book), whereas all these genres may belong to different modes (spoken, written, face-to-face, monologue, dialogue, conversation, etc.) with one speaker choosing the individual style (e.g. preferring reading aloud, whereas another speaker choosing to interact with students and to engage them in communication)” (Drozdova, 2021, p. 40).

So, the present study takes place in the framework of the academic lecture that can be identified as a separate academic genre; whereas the object of the present study to be analyzed is spoken academic discourse.

2. Characteristic Features of an Academic Lecture

Lecture as an example of an ‘oral academic genre’, ‘pedagogical process genre’, ‘pedagogical genre’ or ‘pedagogic register’ has been studied by Thompson (1994), Carter and McCarthy (1997), Bellés and Fortanet (2004), Crawford Camiciottoli (2007), Lee (2009) and other scholars (see Drozdova, 2021, p. 42).

An academic lecture as “the most common form of instruction in universities” with the aim of conveying knowledge to a large number of students¹ is usually delivered by a professional who has theoretical and practical knowledge and skills in the field and “presents relevant content to the motivated audience in the appropriate setting (e.g. the audience with necessary equipment) and delivering “value-laden discourses” in which a lecturer not only presents information to the audience, but also expresses his attitudes and evaluation of the materials” (Thomson, 1994). The purpose of a lecture is to provide information to students and a lecturer usually describes, narrates, informs, explains, discusses, develops cause and effect arguments, provides definitions, draws conclusions and fulfills other functions in a course of a lecture.

It was noted that a lecture can be characterized by such distinctive features as *contextuality*, *situationality* or *improvisation*: “the lecture is always delivered at the moment of speech; it is dynamic, never static and never the same” (Drozdova, 2021, p. 44).

Scholars also observed and acknowledged such characteristics typical to a lecture as *genre chains*, *genre systems* (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Bazerman, 1994), *genre sets* (Devitt, 1991) that take into account other genres with which the target genre interacts, for example, a lecturer may read from a list, show a video during a lecture or use a Power Point presentation (a combination of spoken and written modes of discourse of two genres – a lecture and a presentation); and *intertextuality* (Swales, 2004, Counine (*apud* Fairclough, 1992), Kristeva, 1986; Bakhtin, 1981, 1986; Fairclough, 1992) or *interdiscursivity*

¹Buckley, 2000; Custers & Boshuizen, 2002; Drozdova, 2021, p. 41.

(Fairclough, 1992 and Hyatt, 2005) – borrowings from other texts, or as we defined it – “adding stories or quotations of other authors into the newly-created discourse” (Drozdova, 2021, p. 41).

As Camiciotolli (Camiciotolli, 2007, *apud* Drozdova 2021, p. 46) noted “when preparing lectures, speakers often draw from texts written by others and refer to these explicitly during the lecture itself. While speaking, they may make reference to various written texts, such as textbooks, handouts, overhead slides or writing on the chalkboard. Thus, formal written texts are transformed into spoken discourse of a more conversational and interactive nature, thus rendering their concepts more accessible to learners”.

It is also important to mention such feature of an academic lecture as *interdisciplinarity* (Hyland, 2005), since lectures often incorporate information from different subject areas. For example, a lecture on Intercultural Communication may include information from subjects of History, Culture, Linguistics or Geography.

These aspects deserve particular attention and special study of how they are expressed in the discourse, what grammatical and linguistic features are used for these purposes.

However, not less, but even more important to mention is the *individual style* of every lecture: every lecturer possesses his own individual lecturing style, “each new lecture is unique and cannot be reproduced word for word by another lecturer, even by the same speaker, because the cognitive and communicative processes are dynamic, ever-changing, and situative (occurring in relation to a specific situation) that may be dependent on such circumstances as the target audience, setting, time of the lecture, et cetera” (Drozdova, 2021, p. 43). What is more, the individual style of a lecture is composed of the lecturer’s manner of speech, his linguistic choice of terminology or quotations, presentation making skills, and finally the lecturer’s expression of opinion and attitude towards the subject matter. In other words, lecture has the lecturer’s “voice” in a lecture – the lecturer’s opinion.

Besides that, since a lecture is not a monologue produced in silence, in most cases lecturers expect their audience to participate and to be involved. *Involvement* and *detachment* (Chafe, 1982, p. 45) are two opposing concepts that mean different concerns and relations that speakers can have with their audience. Unlike writers who are often removed from their audience (*detached*), lecturers need to communicate and to reflect their own emotional participation (*experiential involvement*) (*ibidem*). The ideal lecture is an *interactive* and an *involving activity*. The characteristic features are the use of special lexical and grammatical elements that serve different functions, for example, inviting students to speak, asking, confirming and disagreeing (Drozdova, 2021, p. 43).

As it was defined by Drozdova “the academic lecture realized in the institutional context as a spoken academic genre with its specific features is a social, goal-oriented and staged activity, a communicative event realized within a discourse community; the lecture is a changing genre characterized by the lecturers’ involvement or detachment; an interactive, contextual and

to some extent improvised activity of a highly dynamic nature; an example of genre mixing, having intertextual and interdisciplinary features” (Drozdova, 2021, p. 216).

The present study looks at such characteristics of a lecture as ‘lecturer’s presence’ in the discourse (*stance*) and *engagement of the audience* by the lecturer. The next part of the article outlines the theoretical findings on the grammatical and linguistics elements that express them.

3. Methodology

Since the aim of the present work was to study the academic discourse in the institutional context, the methodology chosen was varied. Firstly, the secondary type of research (Brown, 2001), including the study, analysis and review of theoretical literature (books and articles) was chosen so as to enable to shape the theoretical part and to develop the framework for the analysis. Secondly, discourse analysis that includes both the analysis of examples from the corpus and the analysis of the transcribed authentic lecturers’ discourse, was carried out.

The following contextual factors were considered (Brown, 2001, p. 479): institutional context, since the study was carried out in universities (a research site), with the target group (population) being university lecturers with the purpose of serving institutional needs.

Discourse analysis research was chosen as the empirical research method (idem, p. 488), where the object of the present study is the language of the university lecturers (spoken academic discourse).

Data gathering, the study and the analysis of data were carried out with the help of different software, by means of mechanization (Davies & Elder, 2007, p. 142):

- the lecturer’s discourse was recorded on a Dictaphone- IC Recorder Sony ICD – UX71 with the prior permission of the participant;
- the recorded texts were transcribed with the help of the computer programme *Listen and Write*.

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

The Corpus of lectures for discourse analysis includes both Internet resources that were free for access and lectures attended, recorded and transcribed by the author in Saint Petersburg State University of Economics and Finance (SPBGUE in Russia, Saint-Petersburg). The corpus comprises 10 lectures, 9 of them were borrowed from Internet, and one lecture was recorded in the university setting. All lectures were transcribed and analyzed; the present study allows to look at some of the examples extracted from the discourse.

4. The Nature of Spoken Academic Discourse: Theoretical Background and Examples

4.1. Expression of Stance

Previous studies on the genre of a lecture (Drozodova, 2021) revealed the significance of the *speaker's / lecturer's presence in the discourse*. Lecturers not only convey information, but also shape students' opinion on matters by expressing their personal opinions and attitudes. The most common terms used to denote lecturer's presence in a lecture, his opinion and attitude is *stance*. *Stance* conveys lecturer's personal feelings, attitudes, emotions and his personal experience; the importance of the lecturer, his presence / authority in the discourse he creates; writer's judgments or viewpoint about something (Biber and Finegan, 1989, Hyland, 2009). "...in fact, in some cases speakers and writers in university registers seem more connected with the expression of stance than with the communication of 'facts' " (Biber, 2006, p. 87).

Different terminology has been used as synonyms to the concept 'stance': 'evaluation' (Hunston & Thompson, 2000), 'evidentiality' (Chafe, 1982) and 'modality' (Palmer, 1986). 'Hedging' (Hyland, 2005), however 'stance' and 'hedging' (Barton 1993; Beach & Anson 1992; Biber & Finegan 1988, 1989 etc.) have been encountered most frequently. In the present article we use the term 'stance' in the meaning of personal opinion and attitude of a speaker.

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

A very clear and coherent description of grammatical devices used in the expression of stance for academic purposes was provided by Biber (Biber, 1996, 2006). The author of the present work studied, summarized and exemplified Biber's (*ibidem*) findings on *stance* used in academic discourse and made discourse analysis based on these theoretical findings. The analysis is provided in a descriptive way in the form of examples.

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

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

"You've heard in a reading a lot about the kind of generic plant climate science and I wanna try to *hopefully* compliment that industry some pictures about how an insurer with look at the climate science and how they might kinda digested or interpret it..." (AL 1).

The same uncertainty can be observed in the next example. Stance adverbial *obviously* shows that the speaker is hesitant or does not want to take responsibility for his words:

"*Obviously* there is a high-level dependency I'll on external markets for income and for resources and at that might include a naval I government..." (AL 2).

Another feature noticed in spoken academic discourse that denotes stance is the use of *stative verbs* that express thoughts, opinions and attitude to the proposition such as "love", "hate", "believe", "guess", "doubt", "hope" that are followed by a *complement clause*. For example:

"So, you have something that's imperfect. I *hope* you excuse me when you look at the chapters of this book" (AL 3).

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

(1) "*That's a good* question. If there are multiple winners, we'll make sure everyone has a positive winning. *Good question*" (AL 4).

(2) "...the concept of reciprocity intends that *you're probably right* about that influence yet another word for tracking power..." (AL 5).

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

Stance structures with the 1st person object or 1st person pronoun are often used to describe an attitude of a speaker:

"*I know* this is of great interest, because we place a lot of students in good jobs in investment banking" (AL 3).

The use of a first person pronoun and its inflected form can also be called *self-mention*. As Hyland stated "presenting a discursal self is central to the writing process (Ivanic, 1998), and we cannot avoid projecting an impression of ourselves and how we stand in relation to our arguments, discipline and readers" (Hyland, 2009, p. 76). The same may apply to the spoken discourse. Lecturers often use self-mention in the meaning of stance. Below are some of the examples of the use of them in discourse:

(1) "*I'd like to believe* that because *my "peers"* encourage *me* and guide *me* that *I am being able* ..." (AL 3).

(2) "To work close to *my* full potential both with the student and as a professor and as a psychologist..." (AL 3).

(3) "*I am one of the few* people who have developed ways of measuring employee motivation based on Maslow's concepts" (AL 3).

These are personal examples of the theme the speaker described; by giving personal examples he demonstrates that the topic is essential for him. Another concern of the speaker here is to make his examples sound authoritative.

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

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

- (1) "So 25 plus 5 plus 60 is 90. People *should* feel free to correct my arithmetic because it's often wrong, 90 right" (AL 4)?
- (2) "...and that's because in practice a ... it's like having three lakes it is still with only two lakes obviously would stand out so it *might be* OK to study economic and say social aspects sustainability" (AL 2).

Stance adverbials with modal verbs:

"Okay so it *shouldn't* take you *probably* more than for the 45 minutes to finish the whole..." (AL 2).

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

- (1) "But *it seems that* I talked about the Forbes 400 people, and I mentioned last lecture about Andrew Carnegie's The Gospel of Wealth..." (AL 7).
- (2) "So *it's important that* we have the world perspective which is something I will try to incorporate in this course" (AL3).

As we can see from the above descriptions lecturer's 'voice' and his attitude or opinion towards the subject/theme of the lecture is strong in the spoken academic discourse and it is directly expressed through the use of first person pronouns, verbs of stance, value laden words - evaluative adjectives and stance adverbials, modal verbs and extraposed complement clauses.

The following table was developed on the basis of the theoretical findings by the author and can be of help for novice teachers and students:

Meaning/function	Lexical unit
Modal and semi-modal verbs	
Possibility, permission, ability	<i>can, could, may, might</i>
Necessity, obligation	<i>must, should, (had) better, have to, got to, ought to</i>
Prediction, violation	<i>will, would, shall, be going to</i>
Stance adverbs	
Certainty	<i>actually, always, certainly, definitely, indeed, inevitably, in fact, never, of course, obviously, really, undoubtedly, without doubt, no doubt</i>

Likelihood	<i>apparently, evidently, kind of, in most cases/ instances, perhaps, possibly, predictably,</i>
Attitude	<i>amazingly, astonishingly, conveniently, curiously, hopefully, even worse, fortunately, importantly, ironically, rightly, sadly, surprisingly, unfortunately</i>
Style	<i>according to, confidentially, frankly, generally, honestly, mainly, technically, truthfully, typically, reportedly, primarily, usually</i>
Stance verb + that -clause	
Epistemic verbs	
Certainty	<i>conclude, demonstrate, determine, discover, find, know, learn, mean, notice, observe, prove, realize, recognize, remember, see, show, understand</i>
Likelihood	<i>assume, believe, doubt, gather, guess, hypothesize, imagine, predict, presuppose, presume, reckon, seem, speculate, suppose, suspect, think</i>
Attitude verbs	<i>agree, anticipate, complain, concede, ensure, expect, fear, feel, forget, hope, mind, prefer, pretend, require, wish, worry</i>
Speech act and other communication verbs	<i>announce, argue, assert, claim, contend, declare, emphasize, explain, imply, insist, mention, promise, propose, recommend, remark, respond, say, state, suggest, tell</i>
Stance verb + to-clause	
Probability (likelihood) verbs	<i>appear, happen, seem, tend</i>
Cognition /perception verbs (likelihood)	<i>assume, believe, consider, expect, find, forget, imagine, judge, know, learn, presume, pretend, remember, suppose</i>
Desire, intention, decision verbs	<i>agree, choose, decide, hate, hesitate, hope, intend, like, love, mean, need, plan, prefer, prepare, refuse, want, wish</i>
Verbs of causation, modality, effort	<i>allow, attempt, enable, encourage, fail, help, instruct, manage, oblige, order, permit, persuade, prompt, require, seek, try</i>
Speech act and other communication verbs	<i>ask, claim, invite, promise, remind, request, be said, show, teach, tell, urge, warn</i>
Stance adjective + that -clause	
Epistemic adjectives	
Certainty	<i>apparent, certain, clear, confident, convinced, correct, evident, false, impossible, inevitable, obvious, positive, right, sure, true, well-known</i>
Likelihood	<i>doubtful, likely, possible, probable, unlikely</i>
Attitude / emotion adjectives	<i>afraid, amazed, aware, concerned, disappointed, encouraged, glad, happy, hopeful, pleased, shocked, surprised, worried</i>
Evaluation adjectives	<i>amazing, appropriate, conceivable, crucial, essential, fortunate, inconceivable, incredible, interesting, lucky, necessary, nice, odd,</i>

	<i>ridiculous, strange, surprising, unacceptable, unfortunate</i>
Stance adjective + to-clause	
Epistemic (certainty/likelihood)	<i>apt, certain, due, guaranteed, liable, likely, prone, unlikely, sure</i>
Attitude/ emotion	<i>afraid, ashamed, disappointed, embarrassed, glad, happy, pleased, proud, puzzled, relieved, sorry, surprised, worried</i>
Evaluation	<i>(in)appropriate, bad/worse, good/better/best, convenient, essential, important, interesting, necessary, nice, reasonable, silly, smart, stupid, surprising, useful, useless, unreasonable, wise, wrong</i>
Ability or willingness	<i>(un)able, anxious, careful, determined, eager, eligible, hesitant, inclined, obliged, prepared, ready, reluctant, (un)willing</i>
Ease or difficulty	<i>difficult, easy, easier, hard, (im)possible, tough</i>

Table 1: *Lexico-grammatical features used for stance analyses of spoken academic discourse (based on Biber, 1999, 2006)*

4.2. Audience Engagement

As it was stated before *lecture* as a separate genre is characterized by interactiveness and involvement of both parties of communication – a speaker/lecturer and listeners/students. The next part of the article demonstrates theoretical findings on *audience engagement* and lexico-grammatical features used in the discourse to express it.

Hyland (2009) studied audience engagement in written academic discourse and discourse of conference presentations. Some features are characteristic to spoken academic discourse too.

Namely, he mentioned (Hyland, 2009, p. 76) pronouns *you* and *we* as ‘the most explicit ways of bringing readers into discourse,’ as well as ways of ‘identifying the reader as someone who shares similar understandings to the writer as a member of the same discipline’.

Participatory pronouns (Connor, 2008) *you, we* and their inflected forms (*your, our*) are often encountered in spoken academic discourse too (Drozdova, 2021) since their main role is to involve or to engage the audience in the inner conversation with the speaker, to make them feel affiliated. Below are the examples of the use of participatory pronouns in the discourse of Hoffman’s lecture (AL 8).

By using “*you*”, “*you’re*”, “*your*” the speaker establishes rapport with the audience, makes his speech more personally appealing for listeners, acknowledges listeners’ presence.

“*You probably all studied something about the hierarchy of Inborn Needs of famous Maslow’s theory...*”.

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

“*So... If you as college students know how to motivate yourselves, you’ll do better at school...*”.

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

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

In this sentence the speaker appeals to another part of his audience - academic personnel (teachers and professors).

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

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

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

Assuming that the audience needs extra explanation of the idea the speaker gives a personalized example. The pronoun *you* engages the audience in the process, makes the example understandable, the pronoun *they* is used as a pronominalization of a noun phrase 'repair companies'. By using 'you' and 'they' in one move, the speaker as if makes contrast of good and bad. Playing on this contrast: *you* - good, *they* - bad the speaker shows that both the speaker and listeners are engaged in the same game and have something in common - as if both the speaker and listeners can be in the situation of being cheated by a company.

The *first person pronoun we* is often encountered in spoken discourse to denote unity and belongingness of the group to the speaker and, as a result, to arouse interest of the audience:

"I bear *we* are all teachers, either professors... want to know how *we* motivate *our* students".

By using "we" in the sentence, the speaker means himself, the academic personnel, present in the lecture room and thirdness - other representatives of the teaching profession, who are not present in the lecture room.

"Though some students are smart, they don't do well at school because they don't know how to motivate themselves. ...OK, I think *we all* can understand that".

Again the speaker engages that part of the audience who are teachers. He expresses his point of view believing that the audience has shared knowledge with him.

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

We is used in the above example to appeal to shared knowledge with the audience, the knowledge about globalization.

Another method to attract attention of the listeners by the speaker is the use of rhetorical questions (RQ). As Hyland (Hyland, 2009, p. 78) indicated about the use of RQ in written discourse "questions are the strategy of dialogic involvement par excellence, inviting engagement, encouraging

curiosity and bringing interlocutors into an arena where they can be led to the writer's viewpoint." The same is applicable to the spoken discourse. For example, the use of *so + to be going to* in the *rhetorical questions*:

(1) "So then, the question is: Suppose you get on the Forbes 400, what *are you going to* do with it? In other words, to get on the Forbes 400 you have to have made at least a billion dollars" (AL2).

(2) "You know, you still have 900 million leftover. So, what *are you going to* do with all that money" (AL2)?

Or, for example, the use of *so* with *rhetorical questions* in order to involve the audience in the discussion or to exemplify something:

"... tell are just stories. So, how do we deal with the company..." (AL7).

The following examples were extracted from the discourse of a lecture that was recorded and transcribed in Saint-Petersburg State University of Finance and Economics, a lecture on Russian civilization:

Extract from the spoken discourse of a lecturer	Function in the sentence
<i>So, we will see</i> how such very important values and attitudes as attitude to state, attitude to authority, attitude to work and money, how they developed in time.	Future action, lecturer's intention; audience engagement
<i>We will summarize</i> traditional values and <i>we will see</i> how they are changing nowadays.	Structuring information about the course, informing about the goals; audience engagement
<i>And I would like you to set these rules of the game and imagine yourself Russian a little bit.</i>	Lecturer's intention; audience engagement
<i>And again you are welcome to write to me with any questions or to ask any questions</i>	Invitation for action; audience engagement
<i>So, as you know we will study just for a week...</i>	Informing students about the procedures; audience engagement
<i>...you can think about it</i> at the beginning of the course already...	Giving instruction; audience engagement
<i>And you can choose</i> a topic for your presentation,	Giving instruction; audience engagement
<i>First of all, you are welcome to give any topic you are interested in ...</i>	Giving instruction; audience engagement
<i>Of course, you are welcome to add something in addition</i>	Giving instruction; audience engagement
<i>But it's for those who would like to know a lot and who would like to be an expert on... you can</i>	Specifying, giving a more detailed information; audience engagement
<i>...and again you are welcome to choose your own topic if you are interested in something else.</i>	Giving instruction; audience engagement

Table 2: Examples of Audience Engagement

Some of the characteristic features to describe audience engagement that were encountered in the process of the study of theory and noticed during the analysis of the discourse, include the use of the pronouns *we* and *you* and their inflected forms and the use of rhetorical questions. Further study on this matter would allow the researcher to add more insight into it.

Conclusions

The purpose of the present study was to look at the genre of an academic lecture in the institutional context, to reveal and to study some aspects of spoken academic discourse. Based on the study of theory and extracts from transcribed spoken discourses several conclusions were drawn.

The academic lecture realized in the institutional context as a spoken academic genre with its specific features is an *interactive*, contextual and, to some extent, improvised activity of a highly dynamic nature; it is characterized by the *lecturer's presence in the discourse* through expression of his opinion, attitude and feelings as well as by *lecturer's involvement or detachment of the audience* in lecturer's discourse.

The opinion of the lecturer on the subject matter is indispensable in the discourse not only because lectures are not deprived of the speaker and his attitude, but also because lecturers form students' opinion and perception of the material of the lecture, that is why lecturers have to be able to express themselves in a coherent way. That is possible to be achieved through the correct use of stance expressions.

Since lecture is an interactive activity and expects students' participation and involvement in the process, lecturers have to be aware of the techniques of how to interest the audience and how to engage it in the process.

The analysis of theory and examples of spoken discourse revealed that *stance* is expressed through the use of such lexico-grammatical elements as *stance adverbials, stative verbs of attitude and opinion, evaluative adjectives, stance structures with 1st person and its inflected form pronoun (self-mention), modal verbs and extraposed complement clauses*, while *audience engagement* is realized through *giving personalized examples*, the use of *personal pronouns you and we* and their inflected forms (*your, our*) and *rhetorical questions*.

The Analysis of lexico-grammatical features of stance and audience engagement helped to group the data in tables with their possible further use by lecturers. We believe that the results of our findings on spoken academic discourse can be helpful for novice and inexperienced EMI lecturers in planning or organization of their lectures.

The present study was a modest attempt to look into the nature of the academic spoken discourse realized in the institutional context. These findings require further study by analyzing bigger corpus of discourse to have a more realistic picture of the studied matter. Similarly, stance and engagement require further analysis since there are more lexico-grammatical elements to be found for their expression.

References

- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The Dialogic Imagination: Four Essays*. University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). The Problem of Speech Genres. In *Speech Genres and other Late Essays*, C. Emerson and M. Holquist (eds.), 60-102. The University of Texas Press.
- Barton, Ellen. (1993). Evidentials, Argumentation, and Epistemological Stance. *College English*, 55, 745-769.
- Bawarshi, A. S., Reiff, M.J. (2010). *Genre: An Introduction to History, Theory, Research, and Pedagogy*. Parlor Press.
- Bazerman, C. (1994). Systems of Genres and the Enactment of Social Intentions. In: A. Freedman and P. Medway (eds.) *Genre and the New Rhetoric*. Taylor and Francis, 79-101.
- Beach, R., Anson, C.M.. (1992). Stance and Intertextuality in Written Discourse. *Linguistics and Education*, 4, 335-357.
- Bellés, B., Fortanet I. (2004). Handouts in Conference Presentations. In I. Fortanet, J. Palmer, and S. Posteguillo (eds.) *Linguistic Studies in Academic and Professional English*. Publicacions de la Universitat Jaume I., 211-235.
- Berkenkotter, C., Huckin, T. N. (1995). *Genre Knowledge in Disciplinary Communication: Cognition, Culture, Power*. Lawrence Erlbaum.
- *Biber, D. (1996). Investigating Language Use through Corpus-Based Analyses of Association Patterns. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 1, 171-197.
- Biber, D. (2006). *University Language: a Corpus – Based Study of Spoken and Written Registers*. . John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Biber, D., & Finegan, E. (1988). Adverbial Stance Types in English. *Discourse Processes*, 11, 1-34.
- Biber, D., & Finegan, E. (1989). Styles of Stance in English: Lexical and Grammatical Marking of Evidentiality and Affect. *Text*, 9, 93-124. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1989.9.1.93>.
- Brown, J. D. (2004). Research Methods for Applied Linguistics: Scope, Characteristics, and Standards. In: A. Davies. *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Cameron, B. (2001). *Working with Spoken Discourse*. Sage Publications.
- Chafe, W. (1982). Integration and Involvement in Speaking, Writing, and Oral Literature. In D. Tannen (eds.) *Spoken and Written Language: Exploring Orality and Literacy*. Ablex.
- Connor, R.T. (2008). *Participant Positioning and the Positioning of Participatory Pronouns in the Academic Lecture*. Doctoral dissertation. http://digitalcommons.lsu.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=4263&context=gradschool_dissertations.
- Davies, A., Elder, C. (2007). *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*. Blackwell Publishing.
- Dearden, J. (2015). English as a Medium of Instruction - a Growing Global Phenomenon. https://www.britishcouncil.org/sites/default/files/e484_emi_-_cover_option_3_final_web.pdf.

Drozdoņa, V. (2021). *Communicative English Language Competency Framework for the Academic Personnel*, University of Latvia, Doctoral dissertation. <https://dspace.lu.lv/dspace/handle/7/54242>.

Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and Social Change*. Polity Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978) *Language as Social Semiotic*. Edward Arnold.

Hunston, S., Thompson, G. (eds.). 2000. *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. Oxford University Press.

Hyatt, D. (2005). Time for a Change: A Critical Discoursal Analysis of Synchronic Context with Diachronic Relevance. *Discourse and Society*, 16(4), 515-534.

Hyland, K. (2005). *Stance and Engagement: a Model of Interaction in Academic Discourse*. <http://dis.sagepub.com/content/7/2/173.short>.

Hyland, K. (2009). *Academic Discourse*. Continuum.

Johnson, K., Johnson, H. (1999). *Encyclopedic Dictionary of Applied Linguistics: a Handbook for Language Teaching*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Kristeva J. (1986). Word, Dialogue, and the Novel. In: T. Moi (Ed.) *The Kristeva Reader*. Columbia University Press.

O'rgan, J.P. (2014). English as Lingua Franca. *Applied Linguistics*, 35(5). Oxford University Press.

Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research Genres: Explorations and Application*. Cambridge University Press.

[Online 1] <https://nra.lv/latvija/303325-gada-laika-arvalstu-studentu-skaita-udzis-par-20-visrazenakie-ir-indiesi-un-uzbeki.htm>

Academic Lectures (AL)

(AL 1) Michael Hanemann, *The Economics of Climate Change*, Lecture 2. <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=CrSfIoRDLL8>.

(AL 2) Island Tourism Sustainability by Prof. Jack Carlsen. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PDQr38gWDj8>.

(AL 3) Clayton Christensen on Management - Clarendon <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Ei57yFEJlrI>.

(AL 4) Game Theory <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nM3rTU927io&list=PLwy3d3shfRNiXgFHkrYscDit-4uKa9yRC>.

(AL 5) Rypple Leadership Series | Jeffrey Pfeffer: Power <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-exu8UGieVQ>.

(AL 6) Tourism Asia Video Lecture 2, Types of Tourism <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ctrBMn7aIAE>.

(AL 7) Risk and Financial Crises <http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ObosMr2JVrc&index=2&list=PL8FB14A2200B8718>.

(AL 8) Dr Edward Hoffman Lectures on Maslow: Osaka 2007 <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=q88NzM3SHIY>.

(AL 9) Introduction and What this Course Will Do for You and Your Purposes http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WQui_3Hpmmc.

(AL 10) A lecture on Russian Civilization, SPBGUE, Saint-Petersburg, Russia.