CHAPTER 1
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. English and Discipline Specific Register

English plays a significant role in all disciplines, where effective communication is widely recognised as important to academic study skills and workplace performance. Effective communication entirely relies on how people use the language structure in a particular context. In fact, the people’s language structure and use differs in different context and it varies as its function varies. The variation of English language form and function in different disciplines is linguistically acknowledged as Register (Halliday et al. 1964: 87).

The work of Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens in 1964, on functional variation in English, defines any variety of language could be distinguished according to its use as a Register. Biber (1995: 07) stated that registers are situationally defined varieties. A register in a given language…….. is defined by the uses for which it is appropriate and by a set of structural features which differentiate it from the other registers in the total repertory of the community and register variation is the linguistic difference that correlates with different occasions of use (Ferguson, 1977:212 & 1994:16). The register……….. comprises the range of social situations recognized and controlled by its speakers and situations for which appropriate patterns are available (Ure, 1982: 05). Disciplinary register is increasingly regarded as situated in social practice and shaped by the social actions through which it is produced (Myers, 1985). In brief, particular linguistic patterns of any variety of language that is identified with particular people who employ it in a particular way in particular situation is known as register.
Varieties according to the subject matter involved in a discourse have attracted linguists’ attention a good deal in recent years. They are named as ‘registers’, ‘sublanguage’, ‘disciplinary variety’ and ‘diatypic variety’ by different linguists. The terms are applied to the variety used in subjects i.e. fields with particular linguistic characterisation like dialects. Such variations exist not simply because they are established by convention, but because they arise out of different epistemologies and social practices of the disciplines. Becher (1989; 1994) suggests that knowledge communities may be identified at several levels, from subdisciplinary specialisms to broad disciplinary groupings, according to their view of knowledge and their association with disciplinary culture. The theoretical bases for considering subject-matter varieties are highly debatable, but certain broad truths are clear enough. While one does not exclude the possibility that a given speaker may choose to speak in a national standard at one moment and in a regional dialect the next-and possibly even switch from one national standard to another—the presumption has been that an individual adopts one of the varieties so far discussed as his permanent form of English. With varieties according to subject matter, on the other hand, the presumption is rather that the same speaker has a repertoire of varieties and habitually switches to the appropriate one as the particular occasion arises (Quirk et al. 1972: 23). Naturally, speaker uses a variety in one context and another variety in another context from a very large repertoire. The number of varieties he/she employs depend crucially upon his/her specific profession, training, range of hobbies, etc.

Numerous studies have identified and described that the linguistic characteristic features of varying academic and professional registers, such as technical and scientific English, medical English, business English and legal English, at vocabulary and
grammatical level and many aspects which can be applied to identify the various specific features practised upon fields. For example, Biber’s analysis of lexicogrammatical features (1988) found that academic writing in the humanities exhibited more ‘narrative’ features than in technology and engineering, reflecting a greater concern for concrete events and participants and Christopher Williams (2004) discovered some of the exclusive features of written legal English such as the usage of archaic or rarely used words, very complex and long with complex patterns of coordination and subordination and the frequent use of passive constructions.

At the levels of linguistic system, the lexical items used in a field are with specific meaning which restricts their collocation range and some grammatical patterns are used so frequently. For instance, the lexical items in medicine: drug, treatment, bladder, loose stools and oral fluids, have specific meaning and their collocational range is considerably restricted. The passive voice is commonly used in the technical and scientific English. At syntactic level, the special role of religious worshipping has more vocative nominal groups, imperatives and modal verb groups than the other forms. The archaic words, foreign words, repetition at vocabulary level and complex sentences with coordination and subordination at syntactic level are identified as some features of legal English.

The Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English (1976) indexes the following types of register:
1.2. **English for Specific Purposes**

Scholars of English Language Teaching were once comfortable with using literature and grammar in teaching all discipline learners of English. By the course of time, their comfort zone got hit by the globalisation and the expansion of sub-branches in major disciplines. They produced various sub-fields in science, business and engineering. The learner’s need in different fields vary according to their subjects and workplace environment. Hence, teaching English as a second language with literature and grammar became helpless to fulfill the global demands of the learners. The learners started to face lots of problems and were not satisfied with the basic syllabi of English. Some scholars from English Language Teaching understood the problems of the learners and their
demands which made the scholars to decide that the learners needed more than what the literature and grammar teaching have given them so far and each disciplines language use and function differ with one another. Therefore, the scholars have attempted to analyse the textbooks and count the frequency of the linguistic forms used in different subjects and started to design the syllabi including the specific linguistic features. One of the general findings was that the passive construction was frequently used form in scientific and technical fields.

In recent years, there has been growing international interest in designing second and foreign language courses specific to work-related needs and academic objectives of well-defined groups of learners who usually adults, have studied general English in schools but who need to demonstrate on the job proficiency in either a specific skill area such as reading or in a specialized content area such as technical English. Effective on-the-job communication skills have long been recognized as one of the criteria for hiring and promoting employees; a good technician with poor communicative ability may not be recommended for a supervisory or management position. The impetus for the specialization of English as a second language course objectives and content is one consequence of the role that English has taken on as an international language in fields such as science, technology, business and medicine (DeMarco, 2011). The criteria for successful language learning are measured by how appropriately, efficiently and effectively students can use language to perform specific goals. The specific goals would be analysed through discourse analysis in professional courses.

English for legal purposes, English for business purposes and English for science and technology have their roots in English for Specific Purposes. The English for
Specific Purposes is a new study that shifted attention from defining the formal features of English usage to discovering the ways in which English language is actually used in real communication (Widdowson, 1978, cited in Hutchinson et al. 1987: 07). One of the findings of his research was that the language we speak and write varies considerably in a number of different ways, from one context to another. This gave rise to the view that there are important differences between the English of commerce and that of engineering. These ideas naturally match with the development of English courses for specific groups of learners. One can precisely say, if language varies from one situation of use to another, it should be possible to determine the features of specific situations and then make these features the basis of the learners’ course. The specific situations could be divided into two, present situation needs (Richterich, et al. 1980) and target situation needs (Munby, 1978 and Chambers, 1980). Present Situation Needs Analysis investigates students’ strengths and weaknesses at the start of any language course and Target Situation Needs Analysis focuses on the workplace needs of students.

Students in professional courses learn or acquire the academic skills i.e. present situation needs, which they need to carry out their course successfully, during the period of the course. At the end of their course, they go for job where the linguistic features are entirely different from what they have learnt during their course. The workplace register has seriously not been considered in both teaching and designing the curriculum.

Teaching and designing the discipline-specific register, what is important first of all is the content of students’ specialist disciplines (Sager et al. 1980 cited in Robinson, 1991: 21). Content-based approaches prefer the level above the sentence to the sentence level and consider any piece of writing or speaking as (a whole) text. Content-based
approaches, in fact, are more appropriate than grammar-based approaches in professional courses where the students have some basic linguistic competence. Thus, the researchers closely involve with discourse analysis in teaching and designing the discipline-specific courses (Hutchinson et al. 1987: 10).

1.3. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis is the study of language use in context (Brown and Yule, 1983: 01). Discourse analysis examines how stretches of language, considered in their full textual, social and psychological context, become meaningful and unified for their users…… discourse analysis can draw attention to the skills needed to put the knowledge into action and to achieve successful communication (Cook, 1989: 01). People cannot just put any sentences after another and always do not speak or write in complete sentence, yet they still succeed in communication. The overall goal of discourse analysis is to provide an understanding of social reality as the linguistic features produced by the user in different context. The researchers collect data and analyse naturally occurring linguistic forms to gain a greater understanding of the ways in which the specific linguistic forms are used.

The term, discourse analysis, has been used interchangeably in two separate contexts- spoken and written discourse (Kaplan and Grabe, 2002). There are obvious overlaps between the two and to some extent each can evolve its own direction. Written discourse analysis, the subject of this research, is closely connected with work in literacy. Discourse analysis, in this sense, emerged in the early 1970s. A number of key studies were published: Brown and Yule (1983), De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981), Stubbs (1983) and van Dijk (1983). In addition, two important journals came into existence-Discourse Process from 1978 and Text from 1981. In the course of time, new and emerging
disciplines and research fields have contributed to systematic analyses of the linguistic features of patterns occurring in written texts. The purpose of written discourse analysis is to explore the actual structuring of the text via some consistent framework, by which how texts are understood, interpreted and used in context.

For the purpose, discourse analysis requires a text that depends on aspects of the linguistic and organisational structures available in the text itself. It is, in fact, difficult to deal with isolated sentences with no connection to situation; discourse must be studied in much broader terms on any contexts. The analysis of text as applied linguists found, interpreted and used in various professional and institutional contexts represent an area where the linguists have made significant gain in the past twenty years. This involves a fair amount of overlap with a number of other domains of discourse analysis (systemic linguistics, applied descriptive discourse analysis, English for specific purposes, genre analysis and rhetoric and linguistics). There is now a large and growing body of discourse analysis for law and legal settings, business, science, medicine, social sciences, advertising and the news. These aspects of discourse analysis have important practical implications on how discourse analysis can impact people’s language learning environment through successful communication.

1.4. Approaches to Discourse Analysis

This section briefly introduces the important approaches to investigating discourse. They are ethnography, genre analysis, corpus analysis, critical discourse analysis, conversation analysis and written discourse analysis.
1.4.1. Ethnography

Ethnography is a form of qualitative research. Qualitative research has been described as study of a phenomena in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000: 03).

Ethnographies are in-depth and situated investigations, generally focusing on a specific setting such as one programme or institution. Ethnographies seek to describe the behaviour of a particular group and to understand it from the perspectives of members of that group (Richards, 2003: 14). The researcher often spends a prolonged period of time in the field (setting) to gather rich information about the context, the participants and their understandings of events, such as, speaking situations in their everyday world.

This information is used to help the analyst to interpret the events from the participants’ perspectives. Ethnographers select from a range of data collection methods including open-ended interviews, narrative accounts, observations and documents as sources of data. Having collected the data, the investigator stands back from them and tries to interpret what the events mean to the participants. Creswell (2003) suggests steps researchers can follow once the qualitative data has been collected: organize and prepare the data (for example, transcribing interviews and typing up field notes); read through all the data and get a general sense of the information - perhaps write notes in margins or record general thoughts about it; make a more detailed analysis including segmenting data into categories and labelling them with a term, often a term used by one or more participants; and using the categories to generate a small number of themes.

A study by Northcott (2001) illustrates an ethnographic approach. The study investigated lectures on master of business administration programme in a UK university.
setting in preparation for the development for new English for Specific Purposes course for master of business administration students. The study focused specifically on the role of interactive lecturing styles.

1.4.2. Genre Analysis

The term ‘genre analysis’ is arguably the most influential approach to the analysis of language use in ESP to date and is famous for its rhetorical analysis. Following the seminal work by Swales (1990 and 2004), other researchers including Bhatia (1993 and 2004) have developed and adapted this approach.

Genres are types of texts, such as academic lectures or conference abstracts, nursing care plans, sales’ letters or news reports. The texts in a genre set have a common function or set of functions, are often organized in conventional ways and use similar linguistic features. Each discourse community, a person participates in, has a set of genres that are essential to its function and work, genres that its members either produce or receive. A genre label is the name given to the text type by the members of the community in question and the members of that community similarly perceive the genre’s function or functions and they share expectations about how the genre is written or spoken.

A genre can be described as the way people in a specific community typically get things done through written or spoken discourse (Paltridge, 2006: 84). Genre analysis aims to identify patterns underlying specific genres (text types), such as nursing care plans. It seeks to identify how particular social groups (often termed discourse communities) conventionally organize specific types of texts (genres) to accomplish their aims (communicative purposes). In this approach, samples of the genre (for example,
sample nursing care plans) are collected. The analyst seeks to identify features common to these samples and to investigate the context of use in order to understand why the genre is the way it is. The description that results from genre analysis is often very revealing for others including those struggling to produce (or understand) the genre themselves.

Paltridge (2006: 98) describes steps used in genre analysis, saying the steps can be used selectively according to the purpose of the analysis. The starting point can be either text first or context first. The analyst either begins by examining samples of the genre and looking for typical patterns of discourse in them or begins by investigating the context first to find out about the functions of the genre according to the discourse community that produces it and the values and expectations they have for it. The analyst searches for prior knowledge on the genre (existing literature including guide books, manuals and practitioner advice and research reports). The analyst makes definitions of the speaker or writer and audience of the genre and the relationship between them, the overall function(s) of the genre, its subject matter and how the genre is used within a network of other genres. The analyst collects samples of the genre (texts). The analyst may select a single typical text (genre exemplar) and conduct a detailed analysis of its structure and content (the moves), or the analyst may examine a greater number of texts if investigating a particular linguistic feature.

1.4.3. Corpus Analysis

Corpus analysis techniques allow investigators to identify patterns in a body of data of language use. A corpus is a collection of authentic written or spoken texts available electronically and which can therefore be accessed with computer software. The texts can be representative of a language variety of a specific field (Medical English or Business
It is also possible to make a small corpus of texts for a specific investigation. The focus of a corpus analysis can be identification of specific linguistic features.

The analysis could, for example, seek to identify complex noun phrases in academic written or spoken texts (to see how and where the noun phrases occur in the discourse), or it could seek to identify commonly occurring words in the corpus (to make a word list) or to identify words typically occurring together (to make a list of collocations). One could, for example, construct two comparable corpora (discussion sections of articles and dissertations in Language Teaching). We could then use corpus analytical techniques to make word frequency lists of each corpus and then create a keyword list showing the words more salient in the writing of either group (the writers of published research articles and the student writers of the dissertations).

1.4.4. Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical discourse analysis views language as a form of social practice and attempts to unpack the ideological underpinnings of discourse that have become so naturalised over time that we begin to treat them as common, acceptable and natural features of discourse (Teo, 2000: 01). Critical discourse analysis therefore links language to the activities that surround it, focusing on how social relations, identity, knowledge and power are constructed through written and spoken texts. This overtly political agenda distinguishes critical discourse analysis from other kinds of discourse analysis and widens the lens of specific purposes teaching to take the sociopolitical context of teaching and learning into account. Concisely, critical discourse analysis is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse that views language as a form of social practice and focuses on the ways social and political domination are reproduced in text and talk.
Since Norman Fairclough’s *Language and Power* in 1989, critical discourse analysis has been deployed as a method of multidisciplinary analysis throughout the humanities and social sciences. It does not confine itself only to method, though the overriding assumption shared by critical discourse analysis practitioners is that language and power are linked. While critical discourse analysis does not subscribe to any single method, Fairclough (2003) draws on Systemic Functional Linguistics of Halliday to analyze concrete instances of discourse. In this model, language is seen as systems of linguistic features offering choices to users, but these choices are circumscribed in situations of unequal power. Systemic Functional Linguistics offers critical discourse analysis a sophisticated way of analyzing the relations between language and social contexts, making it possible to ground concerns of power and ideology in the details of discourse.

Critical discourse analysis is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, critical discourse analysts take explicit position and thus want to understand, expose and ultimately resist social inequality. (Teun Van Dijk, 2001: 351)

It has to be admitted that research conducted from a critical perspective is fairly scarce in the professional writing. There are, however, several studies that show how language is used to influence readers or achieve control in written professional writing in different contexts. Harrison and Young’s (2004) analysis of the phrasal construction of a memo from a senior manager, for example, shows how he uses bureaucratic language to distance himself from unpopular decisions. Lassen (2004), for instance, reveals how implicit meanings are conveyed in an environmental press release, while Hyland (2004)
discusses how a writer uses modality, formality and thematic choices to disguise a reprimand as an information text.

1.4.5. Conversation Analysis

Conversation analysis is an approach to the study of social interaction, embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct, in situations of everyday life. As its name implies, conversation analysis began with a focus on casual conversation, but its methods were subsequently adapted to embrace more task-centered and institution-centered interactions, such as those occurring in doctors' offices, courts, law enforcement, helplines, educational settings and the mass media. Paltridge (2006:107) defined conversation analysis that it examines how spoken discourse is organised and developed as speakers carry out these interactions. Conversation analysis has examined aspects of spoken discourse such as sequences of related utterances, preferences for particular combinations of utterances, turn taking, feedback, repair, conversational openings and closings, discourse markers and response tokens (107).

With the inspiration of Harold Garfinkel's ethnomethodology (1967) and Erving Goffman's conception of the interaction order, conversation analysis was principally developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s by the sociologist Harvey Sacks and his close associates Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. According to Sacks (1992), the ability of a speaker to take a recognizably intelligible turn next, after a prior turn (given a sufficient degree of indexicality in the talk), guarantees they have understood. The conversation analytic approach promises to explain not only how the mutual intelligibility of words is ordinarily achieved but also why various persons from different social categories, including race, gender and visual and hearing impairments, experience
conversational difficulties. Schegloff (1968) explored the relevance of membership categorisation devices and accounts for the understanding of racial and cultural problems. In addition, small differences in the details of preference orders promise to unlock the key to intercultural misunderstandings. The study of preference orders in medical settings has already made a significant contribution to studies of doctor-patient interaction and the delivery of what Maynard calls “bad news” in medical and other settings.

Today, conversation analysis is an established method used in sociology, anthropology, linguistics, speech-communication and psychology. It is particularly influential in interactional sociolinguistics, discourse analysis and discursive psychology. It focuses squarely on processes involved in social interaction and does not include written texts or larger sociocultural phenomena and follows Garfinkel and Goffman's initiatives. Thus conversation analysis is neither designed for, nor aimed at, examining the production of interaction from a perspective that is external to the participants' own reasoning and understanding about their circumstances and communication. Rather the aim is to model the resources and methods by which those understandings are produced.

The data collected for conversation analysis is in the form of video or audio recorded conversations. The data is collected with or without researchers' involvement, often simply by adding a video camera to the room where the conversation takes place (e.g. medical doctors consultation with a patient). From the audio or video recording the researchers construct a detailed transcription (ideally with no details left out). After transcription, the researchers perform inductive data-driven analysis aiming to find recurring patterns of interaction. Based on the analysis, the researchers develop a rule or model to explain the occurrence of the patterns.
1.4.6. Written Discourse Analysis

Written discourse analysis analyses the linguistic features and patterns occurring in written texts and explores the actual structures of the text via lexico-grammatical model. The model is designed by M.A.K. Halliday in Systemic Functional Grammar. The grammatical and lexical features of language, people use for communicating their specific purposes. The resources of lexicogrammar make two fundamental contributions beyond this upper limit of grammatical units: (i) the creation of logogenetic patterns and (ii) the marking of cohesion (Matthiessen, 2004, 586). Many studies combine investigation of lexico-grammatical features with focusing exclusively on a specific grammatical feature. Examples here would include ‘hedges’ (Salager-Meyer 1994) ‘if-conditionals’ (Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet, 2008; Ferguson, 2001) Grabe (2000)’s ‘textual coherence’, Gibbons (1994) for ‘law and language’ and Biber (1995)’s ‘register variation’. The works are widely discussed in the literature on not only scientific text but also all disciplinary texts like law, medicine, economics, etc.

Written discourse analysis is closely connected with work in literacy and it implicates a great heterogeneity of topics and approaches, including psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Its ultimate aim is to examine how linguistic structures and patterns are understood, interpreted and used in context. By studying the textual and lexical elements of these texts, one can learn to regularly recognise the overall structure of a text. It mostly focuses on the concept of text grammar, semantic propositions in text, textual signalling, textual coherence and coherence, theme and rheme and tense and aspect.
1.5. **English for Nursing Purposes**

The specific features of nursing can linguistically be identified in the clinical setting as the features are identified across all disciplines (Epp and Lewis, 2008). English for nursing is a relatively recent specialty within the field of English for Specific Purposes. It focuses on the specific ways in which, nurses, in contrast to doctors and other health-care professionals and paraprofessionals, use English both for the clinical setting as well as nursing education. Various researches have been conducted to determine the learning needs of students in nursing programmes (Bosher, 2006; Bosher and Smalkoski, 2002; Hansen, 2010; Hussian, 2008; cited in Bosher, 2013: 263). These researchers have identified various issues that create challenges for nursing students who learn English as a second language: personal, academic, discipline-specific language and cultural. The results of these studies lead to the development of courses and materials in English for nursing.

The approach, English for nursing purposes or English for nursing, is a specific approach which refers to the linguistic variations within the field of nursing. Maher, in 1986, discussed the language used for nursing professionals under English for medical purposes. But now the development of scholarship in medical English and the importance of nursing professionals have paved the way to ESP practitioners to concentrate on the sub-disciplines (for ex, English for nursing, English for pharmacy and English for paramedics) of medical English in America, Canada, Taiwan and the United Kingdom. In the late 1990s and the beginning of 2000s, the ESP practitioners started to do researches on immigrant nursing student’s needs and textbooks by Susan Bosher, Dan Douglas, Abriam-Yago, Ching Lee, Cameron, Gimenez, Hussin and Leki. The propositions of these studies have laid a foundation of English for nursing purposes and defined nursing
professional study, within the health-care sector and entirely differ from other health-care sectors in many ways, that focuses on the study of structure and function of biological systems and caring individuals, families and communities so that, they can attain, maintain or recover optimal health for survival.

1.6. Nursing Education in India

In India, Nursing Council Act came to existence in 1948 to constitute a council of nurses. The council safeguards the quality of nursing education in the country. The mandate was to establish and maintain uniform standards of nursing education all over India. Indian Nursing Council (INC) is a statutory body that regulates nursing education in the country through prescription, inspection, examination, certification and maintaining its stands for a uniform syllabus at each level of nursing education. There are five levels of nursing education in India today. They are:

1. Diploma in General Nursing and Midwifery (GNM)
2. B.Sc. Nursing
3. M.Sc. Nursing
4. M.Phil.
5. Ph.D.

Nurse education consists in the theoretical and practical training provided to nurses with the purpose to prepare them for their duties as nursing care professionals. The education is provided to nursing students by experienced nurses and other medical professionals who have qualified or experienced for educational tasks. Schools of nursing are generally attached to the hospitals. Three Board examinations are conducted, one at
the end of each year. On passing the candidates are registered as registered nurse and mid-wife by the respective state nursing councils.

The Indian Nursing Council believes that the basic course in nursing is a formal educational preparation based on sound education principles. The council recognises that the programme as the foundation on which the practice of nursing is built and on which depends further professional education. It also recognises its responsibility to the society for the continued development of student as individual nurse and citizens. Age for the entrance is 17 years to 35 years. The minimum education to students for entering nursing course is 12 years of schooling or its equivalent, preferably with science subjects. Admission of students shall be once a year. Students should be medically fit. The selection committee comprises senior tutors, nurse administrators and educationalists. The principal of the school shall be the chairperson.

A candidate for admission to the course for the degree of doctor of philosophy in the faculties of medical science must have obtained an M.Phil. degree of a university or have a good academic record with first or second class master’s degree of an Indian or a foreign university in the concerned subject. The candidate should have postgraduate in nursing with more than 55% of aggregates of marks, research background and may or may not have published articles in journals. The course’s duration for regular Ph.D. course is minimum 3 to maximum 5 years and for part time, 4 to 5 years.

M.Phil. programme is conducted as a regular and part time course. The main focus of this programme is to assist candidates to achieve a meaningful philosophy of life. The student is encouraged to develop judgment and wisdom in handling knowledge and skills and achieve mastery of problem solving and creative skills. The objectives of
M.Phil. degree course in nursing are to strengthen the research foundations of nurses for encouraging research attitudes and problem solving capacities to provide basic training required for research in undertaking doctoral work. The period of the full term M.Phil. course will be one year and part time course will be two year. The candidate has dissertation works along with the examinations on general and specialisation papers. The topic and the nature of the dissertation of each candidate will be determined by the advisory committee consist of 3 members.

The programme, M.Sc. Nursing, prepares nurses for leadership position in nursing and other health fields who can function as specialists, nurse practitioners, consultants, educators, administrators and investigators in a wide variety of professional setting. The programme’s objectives are to expertise in the utilization of concepts and theories for the assessment, planning and intervention in meeting the self care needs of an individual for the attainment of fullest potentials in the field of specialty. The candidate seeking admission for M.Sc. Nursing must have passed B.Sc. Nursing and have a minimum of one year of clinical experience after obtaining B.Sc. in hospitals or nursing educational institutions. The duration of the course is two years. Candidates will be examined in any of the following branches:

1. Medical Surgical Nursing
   1.1. Cardio Vascular & Thoracic Nursing
   1.2. Critical Care Nursing
   1.3. Oncology Nursing
   1.4. Neurosciences Nursing
1.5. Nephro- Urology Nursing

1.6. Orthopedic Nursing

2. Obstetric & Gynaecological Nursing,

3. Paediatric (Child Health) Nursing.

B.Sc. Nursing, the course of study comprises 4 academic years. A candidate seeking admission should have passed the 12 years of pre-university exam or equivalent as recognized by concerned university with science subjects i.e. physics, biology and chemistry and should have obtained at least 45% of total marks in science subjects in the qualifying exam. If students belong to a scheduled caste or tribe, he/she should have obtained not less than 40% of total marks in science subjects. The programme is designed to provide a balance of professional and general education to enable a student to become a professional nurse practitioner and an ability to assume responsibility for continuing learning appreciation of professional attitudes and leadership roles in nursing appreciation of social and ethical obligations to society.

The general nursing and midwifery course is conducted in 2178 centers in the country (As on 29/01/2014 in INC). The diploma course in general nursing is of three and half years duration as follows: a). two years for practice in general nursing, b). one year for community health nursing and midwifery and c). six months for internship which includes nursing administration and nursing research classes. The maximum hours per week per students are 36 hours, which includes instructions and clinical field experiences. During the course, the students of nursing attend both theory and practical classes. In the
practical sessions, they practise as nurses in hospitals and provide care as per the physician’s prescription.

1.7. Writing in English for Disciplinary Specific Purposes

Writing is perhaps a complex activity in higher studies. The complex activities like brainstorming, lexical and sentential choice and cohesion and coherence continuity largely depend on learner’s knowledge in specific fields. Not only is it hard to imagine modern academic and corporate life without essays, commercial letters, emails, medical reports and minutes of meetings, but writing is also a key feature of every student’s experience (Hyland, 2013: 95). With the continuing dominance of English as the global language, writing in English assumes an enormous importance for students in higher education and on professional training courses.

The experiences are extremely challenging to students and can be especially daunting to those who are writing in a second language. This is not only because different languages seem to have different ways of organising ideas and structuring arguments but because students’ prior writing experiences in the home, school or elsewhere, do not prepare them for the literacy expectations of their university or professional workplace. Unlike traditional view which saw writing as a kind of generic skill which could be taught by modelling expert practices, English for Specific Purposes’ conceptions of writing focus on assisting students towards competence in particular target genres. Teachers do not simply teach writing but teach particular kinds of writing which are valued and expected in some academic or professional contexts.

Ken Hyland in Table 1.0 categorises some of the written academic and professional genres that have been studied in ESP research:
### Some Written Discourse Studies in ESP Research

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<th><strong>Academic Written Discourse</strong></th>
<th><strong>Professional Written Discourse</strong></th>
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<td>Research articles</td>
<td>Business letters</td>
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<td>Conference abstracts</td>
<td>Environmental reports</td>
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<td>PhD dissertations</td>
<td>Business emails</td>
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<td>Submission letters</td>
<td>Direct mail sales letters</td>
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<td>Undergraduate essays</td>
<td>Company annual reports</td>
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<td>Acknowledgments</td>
<td>Engineering reports</td>
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<td>Editors’ letters</td>
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<td>Medical case notes</td>
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Table no 1.0, Source: ‘ESP and Writing’ Ken Hyland

1.8. **Nursing Procedures in Clinical Setting**

Students are introduced to nursing procedures at the end of their first year nursing course. They must go to clinical ward or causality on two-day clinical rotation. During their clinical visit in first year, they are asked to do initial nursing assessment and fundamental nursing procedures like dressing and undressing, performing bed bath, performing back care, care for fingernails and toenails, patient safety and housekeeping. In the second year, they start to assess the patient’s physiology, taking vital signs, performing physical examination, taking temperature, measuring radial pulse, counting respiration, measuring blood pressure, administering oral medications, prevention of the
needle-stick injuries, maintenance of I.V. system, collecting blood specimen, urine, a stool specimen and a sputum specimen under the supervision of staff nurses in the clinical wards. They are encouraged to clarify doubts, which they encounter in the causality, by the class tutors in their theory classes. During the final year, they are taught to complete the nurses’ reports by the staff nurses.

1.9. Nursing and Writing

Success in higher education depends on students’ ability to meet the writing requirements of their chosen courses. In many cases, this involves adapting to the literacy practices of particular disciplines. While research into professional academic discourse suggests that it may reflect differences in disciplinary culture and epistemology, there has been relatively little investigation of disciplinary difference in student writing, in particular nursing writing. Variation in disciplinary culture is thus reflected in academic writing, leaving its trace in the linguistic and rhetorical features of disciplinary texts (Bazerman, 1988; Walvoord and McCarthy, 1990; MacDonald, 1994 and Hyland, 2000).

A major purpose for written communication within nursing is to clearly and concisely document plans-of-care for patients using the nursing procedures. Writing skills are required of nurses throughout their careers because documentation and record keeping constitute the bulk of nursing duties. Since writing is such an integral part of the everyday tasks of nurses, accuracy is crucial. Crystal Lane (2005), a nurse at Hurley Medical Center in Flint, illustrates this point “when doing my documentation and charting on a patient everything have to be perfect and appropriate; in order for the records to be complete, you must go over the documentation………., I become capable of being responsible for the patient chart or documentation”. While the method of report
writing is uniform throughout the nursing community, the tools used for documenting and recording information vary from hospital to hospital. Hands-off, Plans-of-care, bedside reports are some types of documenting and recording nursing procedures of patients.

1.10. Report Writing

Documents containing information organised in a narrative, graphic or tabular form, prepared ad hoc, periodic, recurring, regular or as required basis is called reports that may refer to specific periods, events, occurrences or subjects and may be communicated or presented in oral and written form. In brief, it is defined as a document that presents information in an organised format for a specific audience and purpose. The content and structure of reports would not be the same as the reports written in all disciplines. For instance, medical reports are written documents with the results of a medical examination of a patient and sales report may contain the calculation of the total amount of sales by day, week or month. It is understood that the writing reports in different disciplines for various purposes requires a good amount of writing skills.

1.11. Nurses’ Reports

The field of nursing requires a great deal of accurate writing to document a patient’s condition. In order to document the patient’s condition, they write various types of clinical documents. Nurses’ report, being one among them, is written on each shift and serves to provide an update on the condition of a patient for other health-care professionals. It includes information of every shift on how the patient’s condition is noticed and checked, how the condition has been treated as per the doctor’s order and the condition of patient after medication. It is entirely different from other reports used in clinical settings. It is not only very important in passing information to the next nurse but also
doctors who use the nurses’ report to follow the patient’s progress once treatment has been prescribed. The reports should clearly give a very detailed information of the patient’s condition to next nurses and doctors because they have no prior idea about the patient’s status.

Students research the medical diagnosis of patients and write out a detailed report that reflects the nursing process (Bosher, 2001 and Leki, 2003). These care plans, which are long and exhaustive, require students to analyze data collected from both a physical and psychosocial assessment of the patient. To support their analysis of data, as well as their nursing diagnosis and intervention plan, students must refer to theoretical knowledge from multiple outside sources, most frequently nursing course textbooks. In addition, nursing reports use highly specialized features, such as medical and nursing terminology and abbreviations, and diagnostic labels.

Before exploring the specific language forms and functions in nurses’ reports, a brief introduction helps familiarising with the process of writing nurses’ reports. The process by which nursing students write nurses’ reports is shown in Table 1.1. Firstly, nursing students have to interview patients or the one who accompanies with the patient, to collect their personal and previous clinical history through the patients’ first language which is usually Tamil in Tamilnadu. To communicate well with them, students use every day language to conduct clinical interviews. After the interview, the students usually follow the sequential steps of history-taking and outline physical examinations and their results, the treatments and its effect and instructions to the next duty nurses. The process is followed when patients get admitted to the hospital. Once they start the treatment, the nurses summarise patients’ condition and instruct the things to do in the
next shift. This summarising process is carried out till patients get discharged from the hospital. The nurses’ reports should contain complete nursing procedures from the date of admission to the date of discharge. Furthermore, the transformation from clinical interview, test’s results and instructions to nurses’ reports is a highly complex process involving interactions between medical knowledge, cognitive management and linguistic expressions (Shi, Coros and Storey, 2001).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Performer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conducting interviews with patients/relatives/friends</td>
<td>L1 (everyday language)</td>
<td>Interview in sequential steps</td>
<td>nurses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing nurses’ reports</td>
<td>L2 (medical English)</td>
<td>Summarized narrations</td>
<td>nurses</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table No. 1.1. Process of conducting a written nurses’ report

Nurses start to keep records of all patients from the time of admission to the hospital to discharge. A patient will have three nurse’s reports every day, each shift; one report.

Nurses’ reports are usually written by the final year students of nursing when they assist the staff nurses who are working as employee after the completion of their course. While they assist the staff nurses, they are called student-nurses. The apprenticeship has been practicing as training and internship for six months for the final year students, by which they can learn the clinical culture. The student-nurses are allowed to write reports only in their training session. The staff nurses and doctors teach the nursing procedures from their first year. The final year students almost do all activities which the staff nurses do in the wards.
1.12. **Aim of the Study**

The aim of the study is to analyse the linguistic forms and functions of English in the nurses’ reports written by nursing students.

1.13. **Objectives of the Study**

The following objectives have been framed with the purpose of realising the aim of the research undertaken:

a. To categorize the distinctive structural forms used in the reports.

b. To interpret the specific functions of the linguistic forms found in the reports.

c. To identify the discourse devices like cohesion and coherence used by the students in the reports.

d. To ascertain the way the students acquire the subject-specific language, English for nursing students.

e. To establish the pedagogical significance of the subject-specific language as a powerful tool to the field of language teaching and learning in the advanced level.

1.14. **Hypothesis**

There are significant structural and lexical variations in the usage of forms and functions of English used for nursing purposes and for other common purposes.

1.15. **Research Questions**

The following research questions have been framed to be addressed in this study are:

a. What are the grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion used by the students in the reports?
b. What are the distinctive structural forms and functions used in the reports?

c. How do the students acquire the subject-specific language, English for nursing purposes?

1.16. Methodology

In this study, discourse analysis has been employed as a methodological tool for analysing the reports written by nursing students on patients to categorize the linguistic forms and describe their functions in the clinical environment. Both qualitative and quantitative approaches have been made to describe the text linguistically.

1.17. Selection of the Informants

The students participating in this research are not from medical, dental and other medical students but from final year General Nursing and Midwifery students from School of Nursing, Coimbatore Medical College Hospital, Coimbatore. These students studied through Tamil as a medium of instruction in schools and English has been a subject, taught mostly through Tamil language and composed of literature-based contents, in schools for more than 10 years. The students, from different districts of Tamilnadu, have gotten admission in School of Nursing on their higher secondary mark basis through counselling. The students are asked to attend the nursing counselling to select the colleges, firstly all government nursing institutions will be filled and then, the private institutions. The students of private nursing institutions in Coimbatore are not concentrated in this study, because the private institutes admit the students of other states of India mostly from Kerala, Manipur, Nagaland and Meghalaya through its management quota and their background knowledge and English proficiency are entirely different.
from the students of Tamilnadu state. The students are in government institutions are homogeneous in many aspects. Most of the student’s mother tongue is Tamil and their second language is English. Their linguistic competence and performance levels are almost at intermediate.

1.18. Population and Sampling Method

In sampling, the analysis includes defining the population from which the sample is drawn. The population for this study is final year nursing students studying in Coimbatore. Due to time constraints and avoidance of heterogeneous influence, the researcher has restricted to analyse only a particular group in detail. Hence, the researcher has employed purposive sampling method which is often chosen for attaining and analysing a specific group’s characteristics. Analysing the particular uniqueness paves the way to clearly answer the research question qualitatively. For the reasons, the purposive sampling method is adopted to achieve the goals of qualitative research design. In purposive sampling, the sample is collected with a purpose in mind. So the researcher has already predefined the group, final year government nursing college students of Coimbatore, Tamilnadu.

1.19. Data for the Study

The data for this research is the nurses’ reports which have been written by final year nursing students of School of Nursing, Coimbatore Medical College Hospital, Coimbatore. The researcher has chosen only final year students, because they seem reasonable to anticipate the complete disciplinary knowledge and their writing tend to conform more and more closely to disciplinary conventions over time, as students engage to the practices of nursing discipline. And the other types of writings in clinical settings
like case histories and patient’s documentation were not considered with the purpose of analysing but nurses’ reports. Even the reports, written by the nurses who are working as staff nurses after their completion of the nursing course, are not taken into analysis. Staff nurses just supervise the student-nurses and teach them the nursing procedures when they face problems. The students get clinical knowledge on observing the procedures from their first year onwards. In the final year, they do all the procedures on their own. Reports written by students give the impression to investigate emergent disciplinarity in the field of nursing. The total student-nurses’ reports were 146 in number.

1.20. Data Collection Procedure

In the final year, the students have many clinical training sessions than the theory classes. During their training sessions in the clinical wards, they practise as nurses and do all the nursing procedures as the staff nurses do in the wards. One of the nurse’s nursing procedures in the hospital is writing reports on patients for informing the patient’s condition to other staff nurses and duty doctors. The reports were collected from the wards on 05, September 2013 at the end of the shift (7:00 a.m. to 3:00 p.m.), when the 146 final year nursing students assisted the staff nurses as part of their clinical training of their course in the hospital. The 146 students-nurse practised in various clinical wards and their reports on different patients, from different wards and of different stages of patient’s medication were gathered with the permission.

1.21. Significance of the Study

This research is a pioneering attempt in understanding the structure and use of English by nursing students within India, particularly Coimbatore, Tamilnadu, with the application of discourse analysis. The results of this study will help comprehending the
language structure and use of English by the students undergoing Nursing programme. The results also will facilitate the English tutors in nursing schools to know the real and practical linguistic needs of the clinical settings. Without understanding the English used in nursing programme, it would be an idle training to the students. The findings of this study will be useful to develop the nursing programme. The misunderstandings due to language may risk the patient’s life. The confusions could carefully be amputated by this research. In addition to the above, the method of acquiring the subject specific language has been analysed in order to emphasize teaching language for specific purposes.

1.22. Scope of the Study

The study will provide a very detailed disciplinary genre of nursing to teach the specifications while teaching nursing students and consider the propositions for healthier curriculum development. The findings of the study will definitely advocate the importance of English for Specific Purposes methodologies against General English Language Teaching methods. The students will understand the specific linguistic forms and functions particularly practised in the nursing field. The comprehension will make the students to engage in clinical procedures with confidence. Designing the curriculum with disciplinary specific personality would improve the students to the international markets where Indian nurses are in demand and swat away the student’s professional fear.

1.23. The Structural Framework of the Thesis

The dissertation is compiled in five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1 titled as Introduction discusses the growing importance of English as a global language for global communication and the consequent emergence of new
varieties of English according to educational domains. This chapter gives a background of the research by discussing English and discipline specific register, English for specific purposes, discourse analysis, approaches to discourse analysis, nursing education in India, English for nursing purposes, writing in English for disciplinary specific purposes, nursing and writing, report writing and nurses’ reports. It too highlights the research plans including the aim and objectives of the study, hypothesis, data for the study, population and sampling method, methodology, significance and limitations of the study.

Chapter 2 labelled as **Review of Literature** that reviews the existing literature on discourse analysis and English language variations accordance with a particular educational domain to the present study. The reviewed literatures have been categorised as English for scientific purposes, English for economics, English for business, English for law, English for technical purposes, English for media and English for medical and nursing purposes. The international and national research articles, books and dissertations have been carefully reviewed in detail.

Chapter 3, **Discourse Analysis**, provides a theoretical background to the study. First, it outlines the general introduction to discourse analysis, language forms and functions in various educational fields, text and context, cohesion and coherence, types of cohesion and coherence, theme and rheme, tense and aspects, discourse analysis in language teaching, theories and acquisition of the subject specific language. It also explains the importance of subject specific language structure and usage in teaching and learning.

Chapter 4 named as **Analysis of the Data** deals with the presentation and interpretation of the data. It furnishes the linguistic interpretation by analysing the data of the nursing students. This section of the thesis not only features the linguistic explanation
of the discourse devices in the text, but also calculates the various structural patterns such as ellipsis, nominalisation, reference, theme and rheme, tense and aspects, lexical cohesion and other specific linguistic units found in the report to convey the clinical information.

Chapter 5, **Conclusion**, presents the critical assessment of the linguistic findings of the present study that enables the framed hypothesis to be tested and proved. This chapter reveals the scope of further research in the field of English for medical purposes with special reference to nursing course and finally leads to the conclusion, highlighting the suitability of the discourse approach in the proper linguistic interpretation of the reports. It also puts forth some recommendations for policy makers and material producers.

The bibliography and an appendix follow the fifth chapter.