April, 2015

As different as night and day: The ways Japanese adult working learners in an EOP program learn differently from university students

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EDITORIAL

Welcome

Welcome to Issue 45 of *Professional and Academic English*.

I am delighted to introduce you to the Winter–Spring issue of the Journal. The articles cover various topics in ESP and EAP and the contributions come from Europe, Asia and America.

This issue continues to demonstrate the ever-evolving contexts in which EAP and ESP are taught and learnt. Neil Bullock writes about considerations in the teaching of spoken English in the context of aeronautical communications. The rest of the contributors focus on the Japanese context, starting with Robert Connor who considers Legal English in Japan. Simon Fraser, Walter Davies and Keiso Tatsukawa look at the creation of a corpus-informed English for Medical Purposes (EMP) course for medical undergraduates in Japan. Similarly, Kyoko Hosogoshi and Sachi Takahashi discuss the effect of integrated listening, reading, speaking and writing tasks on students' productive skills in a university EAP course. Yuko Hijikata-Someya and Bob Eckhart explore how working Japanese adults learn differently from full-time university students.

I hope that this issue inspires you to contribute EAP/ESP insights. We would like to encourage all our readers to submit articles to the Journal. Please visit http://espsig.iatefl.org/ for further information. Finally, we are grateful to our colleagues at Garnet Education for their continuous support in publishing this journal.

Bernard Nchindila, University of South Africa, Pretoria, RSA

Message from the Joint Co-ordinators

Dear Colleagues,

It gives us great pleasure to present Issue 45 of *Professional and Academic English* to you. As usual, this issue contains a wide range of articles showcasing ESP research and practices from around the world. We would like to thank the Editorial team, particularly Mark Krzanowski (Editor-in-Chief) and Bernard Nchindila (the editor of the current issue), for their excellent work.

Every year, we aim to organise more events, either jointly with other SIGs or professional organizations, or on our own. In order to achieve this goal, we organised our second webinar on language assessment for specific purposes in February 2015. We plan to increase this type of event in future as it appears to be popular among our members who are unable to attend our face-to-face events. Watch out for more information on our official website and the ESP SIG Facebook page.

We are grateful to our valued members for their constant support. We look forward to seeing many of you in Manchester at the 49th IATEFL conference in April. The ESP SIG PCE in Manchester is a joint event with BALEAP which promotes collaboration with organisations with similar interests. If you wish to organise any local events, please contact us for any support we can offer.

Finally, we would like to thank Garnet Education for their continuous support with our journal and book publications.

Aysen Guven and Prithvi Shrestha
Joint Co-ordinators, IATEFL ESP SIG

Index

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Wider considerations in teaching speaking of English in the context of aeronautical communications

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the skill of speaking, based on the context of teaching English in aeronautical communications. The paper firstly outlines the recent change of focus in this domain and then goes on to discuss the current methodologies and techniques that can be employed. Thereafter, new techniques are analysed with reference to how they are suitable for teaching in this context.

Keywords: Aviation English, language proficiency, teaching, phraseology, aeronautical communications.

1 Introduction

The past few years have seen the growing importance of teaching English in the aviation world since the introduction, in 2008, of mandatory plain language proficiency testing for most of the world's commercial pilots and air traffic controllers (ATCOs). Guidelines were established by the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) to set minimum standards for 'plain language' to support standard radiotelephony phraseology. The de facto adoption of English as a lingua franca by the aviation world has meant that the teaching of English language skills for pilots and ATCOs has recently adopted a much greater significance than previously.

2 Towards a communicative approach in a specific purposes context

Because spoken communications are the essential way of pilots and ATCOs exchanging information, ICAO (2009) explicitly states that teaching in aviation English must 'focus on speaking, listening and interactive skills'. Although as seen by Wang (2008) as an English for Specific Purposes (ESP), teaching aviation English is not simply a way of enabling learners to absorb 'subject matter focussed' material (Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 25). According to Dusenbury and Bjerke (2013), the operational specificities of pilot/ATCO communication mean that it is not sufficient either to simply offer lists of aviation-specific vocabulary to complement a learner's current language. Furthermore, a teacher in this domain must be aware, not only of the learner's need for oral language proficiency, but the ability to produce, receive and process language in a 'highly technical and safety specific context' (Uplinger, 1997, p. 1).

Therefore, to ensure that these skills were targeted in the teaching of aviation English, ICAO (2009) mandated that a communicative approach must be adopted. The idea of the approach is seen by Anthony (cited in Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 19) as the 'subject matter to be taught', but such an explanation overlooks the fact that teachers of aviation English need to help learners develop 'communicative strategies that draw on a range of language resources' (Read & Knoch, 2009, p. 21.7), whilst Hedge (2000, p. 261) suggests that 'communicative ability' means use of language features in 'purposeful communication'. Clark et al. (cited in Hedge, ibid., p. 45) maintain that a communicative approach should offer learning that resembles real-life communication, enabling learners of aviation English to 'operate effectively in the real world' (Abbs and Freebairn, cited in Hedge, ibid.). Paramasivam (2013, p. 104) further suggests aviation English teaching adopts a genre-based approach, as it has to 'mirror as accurately as possible critical features of the target language situation', a basic teaching theory also supported by Harmer (2007).

Because of the specific nature of aviation communications, it is also important to consider certain linguistic features to help a teacher of aviation English identify a suitable methodology and techniques for this approach. Uplinger (1997) notes that pilot/ATCO communications lack the paralinguistic features of face-to-face interaction, such as body language or facial cues, so paraphrasing and clarification techniques are vital to effect meaning. This view is broadened by Khosravany Fard, Khosravany Fard and Baghi (2014, p. 62) who outline that communication without visual cues is 'more challenging and requires higher levels of proficiency'.

Phillips (in Breul, 2013, p. 75) suggests that such language in aviation has a 'structural sub-grammar', giving a very specific meaning, working together with 'referential values common to its domain and the speech community within' that must be understood by the communicators. This has the paradoxical cause of creating elliptical language, where it may appear more explicit meaning is necessary. When a pilot says to a controller: 'ABC123, going around', the elliptical predicator – the action *going*, does not need the finite *am* – and lexical reference here is sufficient for the controller to know that the pilot has decided to: i) cancel his landing, ii) fly over the runway, and iii) will shortly give further information to the controller on his intentions. Both pilot and controller should understand the communication with no need for further explanation.

The ICAO (2010) has defined the areas of communication as language functions, events, domains and tasks, but real and concrete examples of how these are used in aeronautical communications to help prepare material are not given. There are technical manuals, theory course books and dedicated aviation English books commercially available, but these often lack appropriate materials to focus on the tasks required to meet the student's objective. One example appropriate for further research is that of the private pilot. Since the implementation of European Union regulations requiring any pilot who contacts Air Traffic Control (ATC) to demonstrate operational Level 4 in the language used for communication, little material seems to have been forthcoming to help maintain proficiency skills for private pilots. It is conceivable that with such a group of pilots – where communication is not practised on a regular basis – more in the way of pedagogical support and linguistic awareness would be needed than, say, for commercial pilots who use the language in their daily tasks. This lack of foresight is also demonstrated in the ICAO Rating Scale descriptors, which talk about 'work-related topics', referring clearly to professional pilots and ATCOs, when aviation, aeronautical or operational-related topics would have been more useful (to all pilots).

The lack of specific material is not helped either by the somewhat random and ambiguous use of terms to define the language to be used with standard radiotelephony phraseology (RTF). Read and Knoch (2009) voiced uncertainty over what ICAO ambiguously refers to as *plain language* and whether all elements of the communicative process are included in teaching and training material. A specific concern for Moder and Halleck (cited in Read and Knoch, 2009, p. 218) was how to define the often-cited domain of aviation English, in order to help support selection of test tasks and content. When Breul (2013, p. 74) suggested that this specific style and form of language communication 'has only played a very modest role' in specific language purpose research, it would seem to show that a more specific understanding of the language itself would be of benefit to both teachers and learners. It is thus not fanciful to wonder how communications can be improved if teachers and trainers do not have a clear picture of what they are supposed to teach. Alderson (2009, p. 172) widened these concerns when he questioned the 'quality and empirical basis' of ICAO's rating scale and again (2010, p. 51) when he commented that there was a 'low awareness' in this domain.

A further prominent area of confusion seemed to come from ICAO's assumption that we are dealing with a lingua franca in the strict sense of the phrase. Seen by Wardhaugh (2010) as a language commonly used by a multilingual group of people in order to aid communication, it is clearly attributed with what Crystal (1997, p. 3) calls a 'global status' in that it is 'recognised in every country'. Whilst such descriptions are arguably valid, what is clear is that we are dealing with people of different first languages attempting communication, but this does little to improve rather generalist theories for such a technically specific domain as aviation.

Whilst it would seem logical to attribute such status to a language used worldwide, it is also equally clear that the specificity of this domain is far from the socio-cultural fabric, observed Graddol (2006). Read & Knoch (2009) even go as far to say that cultural references should be avoided to accommodate weaker L2 speakers, while Wang (2008) suggests that ESP in aeronautical communications exists regardless of cultural backgrounds. ICAO (2010, p. 26) themselves rather naively suggest that English is emerging as an 'international language (EIL) or lingua franca' and that it 'sets its own standards of proficiency'. I would argue that English as used in this context actually emerged many years ago, and that it would be more appropriate today to say that a more thorough understanding and greater clarification of the language as a practical communicative tool with a common aim – safety – is needed. I would also advocate that, as educators in this domain, we have a duty to help set those standards ourselves. It should be less about cultural identity and emergence than about a structure and form which are already present, and which can be nurtured to be used by speakers of all languages in effecting efficient, accurate and safe communication. It represents, as Harding (2014) suggests, 'a shift away from more traditional models of communicative competence' where 'focus turns to communicative strategies' and where we need to look for 'purpose-built' assessment tasks'.

3 Defining the specifics

In trying to define the language of such a communicative process for learners, test takers and, most importantly, for use in everyday operational situations, Kim and Elder (2009) suggest plain language to be used at times when phraseology does not cover the appropriate needs in radiotelephony communication. Given that we are dealing with an ESP context, it still fails to clearly address the subjectivity of such an expression. What it does show, however, is that we are dealing with a communicative process operating on more than one language level. Further evidence demonstrates that the language of communication in an aeronautical context is not simply a harmonised two-tier lexicography: one coded and restricted, one not. Its interaction comes from the interplay of three quintessential language elements, as shown in Figure 1.

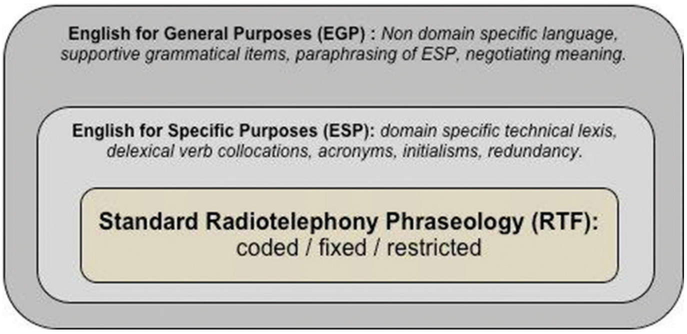

Figure 1: The levels of language in aeronautical communication

During routine operational situations, Alderson (2009) states that the core of this communication tool used by all pilots and ATCOs is RTF. Breul (2013, p. 71) defines it as a 'semi-artificial English-based sub-language' while Falzon (2009, p. 3) sees it as a way to 'formulate directives … consistently and unambiguously'. To this end, a good start for any teacher is familiarisation with the ICAO's own RTF manual, together with defined phrases that must be used in all situations. An example of typical RTF is:

ATCO: 'Sunair123 Runway 06 Cleared For Take-Off'

Pilot: 'Runway 06 Cleared For Take-Off Sunair123'

Simple forms give the pilot minimum detail and imperative instruction, which is read back verbatim. This aims to show the pilot has understood the instruction. Alderson (2009) further shows that redundancy and elliptical language, due to situational awareness, eliminate the need for verbosity. Removal of other natural speech conventions such as pleasantries, fillers and hedging should also keep communication time to a minimum. As Rubenbauer (2009) highlights, turns of speech are clearly marked by the beginning and end of a speech group. Use of the microphone also makes speech overlapping technically impossible. Even quite complex exchanges can fit quite easily into this pattern of discourse, such as in this next example:

ATCO: 'Sunair123 landed time 38 taxi and vacate at the end of the runway and taxi holding point G4'

Pilot: 'Roger taxi to the end and vacate and taxi holding point G4 Sunair123'

The second layer of communicative language is when this coded RTF is combined with domain-specific non-coded English, essentially an ESP. This can be seen as language inherent and vital in such a highly technical socio-professional domain in operational discourse during both routine and non-routine situations, as shown in this exchange.

ATCO: 'Sunair123 for planning purposes confirm returning to stand or taxiing round for departure?'

Pilot: 'Stand by on that. We might need to do some drills when we clear the runway and then we'll advise if we have to go back to stand Sunair123.'

Finally, as noted by Kukovec (2008) and Wang (2008), there is an obligation to use unrestricted English for General Purposes (EGP), combined with ESP, to effect communication at times when standard RTF will not suffice. Even in this exchange, the ESP used needs to be supported with certain modality expressions (*might need* and *have to*) from EGP to give referential meaning to the ATCO. In this next exchange, when the ATCO wants to know if the crew need any assistance following a rejected take-off, almost no RTF is suitable, just a combination of pseudo-colloquial and referential ESP supported by EGP to effect the discourse.

ATCO: 'Sunair123 do you require any assistance or do you need me to make any phone calls to people on the ground?'

Pilot: 'At the moment no. We're fine as we are. We're just talking to our operations people to try 'n' find how to reset the FMS and then hopefully if it reboots they'll get us a new slot, Sunair 123.'

Learning the components of the language is one thing, but the utilisation of it must also be taken into account. Breul (2013) states that pragmatic inferencing must be conveyed so learners need as much pragmatic language as possible, not only for speaking, but also for listening. Cushing (1995) similarly points out that uncertain references should be avoided and highlighted the case of one military aircraft flying in formation with a second referring to 'we' (the two aircraft), a term often used by one aircraft (*we* = the crew = 2 people). Breul (2013) also suggests a high level of proficiency in natural English – in addition to mastery of the coded RTF – is key to optimising safety. Furthermore, the ability to make successful transitions from known to unknown information necessitates proficient discourse organisation (Qionglan, 2008). Kukovec (2008) advocates more specifically the need for grammar structures to deal with the known difficulties in communicative language use, while Rubenbauer (2009) suggest greater linguistic awareness in general can help reduce the number of miscommunications, through focusing on shorter, less complex utterances and ensuring the flow of information is efficient.

Analysing transcripts from aeronautical communication in this way can help teachers to better understand learners' needs and aid preparation of valid and appropriate learning tasks, particularly in the voice-only communicative tasks that learners will eventually need to use in operational situations.

It also allows teachers to see such comments as Alderson's (2009, p. 169) that 'the English of international aviation is not EGP' as misleading. It overlooks the fact that almost all learners probably learn a general language first, before any technically specific or sub-version of the same language. Thus, without naturally formed EGP to support the essential items of ESP, discourse would be difficult, if not impossible to enact. A more systematic approach might have been to say that the domain-specific lexis of ESP which supports RTF is itself referenced and supported by the inherently neutral grammatical forms of EGP. Furthermore, it is essential to highlight the need for general English lexis as a way for a speaker to paraphrase, ideally when lacking ESP items in unexpected and non-routine situations. This thus forms the background for the requirement of an operational Level (4) of language proficiency (ICAO, 2010) and is, arguably, one key difference between safe and unsafe communications.

4 Practical competence

What is clear, as Rubenbauer (2009) states, is that learners should practise with materials that give a clear understanding of which parts of linguistics are actually relevant and appropriate. Harding (2014) takes the idea further, stating that for this type of communication, teaching and testing need to be 'interactive and goal-oriented', while eliciting 'negotiation of both form and meaning'. If students in this domain are to learn how to communicate in unexpected situations, then breakdowns in communication must be 'anticipated and complications built-in' (Harding, 2014). If we return to the inherent reason for setting up such a system of testing language proficiency, then such theories of teaching would appear to correspond very well with the system's objectives, but they must be exploited fully.

Knowing the functions of communication in aviation English can further help the teacher identify linguistic components useful when deciding which techniques will support the chosen methodology. Sarmento (2011) indicates that once you know the language requirements in ESP, you can define the methodology to teach it. Dusenbury and Bjerke (2013, p. 13) partially characterise the language requirements of ESP by pointing out that students must have a solid basic understanding of English so they can apply it to a 'technically dense' domain-specific vocabulary in context, whereas Kukovec (2008) maintains that, although students may have suitable grammatical proficiency, using it in an operational context may prove difficult. Additionally, Uplinger (1997) points out that competence in radiotelephony alone is not sufficient to achieve proficiency of plain language in functional situations.

Collectively, this evidence underlines the importance of combining all the elements of aeronautical communications in adopting a communicative approach for the teacher of aviation English. Real-life situations, communicative competence rather than reliance on form, pragmatic contextual content and ability to effect appropriate communication are crucial in this area of language teaching.

Harmer (2007, p. 343) characterises communication as 'speaking events' from which aviation English can be seen as transactional (exchange of services) and interactive (pilot/ATCO), as well as both planned (normal flight) and unplanned (unexpected events, e.g., weather change, technical malfunction, sickness, etc.). A broader perspective is proposed by Hedge (2000, p. 47) who divides the idea of communicative competence into 'linguistic', 'pragmatic' and 'strategic competence'. This would appear to fit nicely into the aeronautical language context.

Linguistic competence requires that the learner has 'linguistic' skills in order to develop 'communicative' skills (ibid.). Both EGP and ESP would be key components here.

Pragmatic competence relates to a learner knowing not only the language, but also the significance of its use in a given context. Qionglan (2008) demonstrates that short quasi-elliptical dialogues in aviation communication and their metaphoric lexis would not be immediately obvious without any contextual information. Thus, ESP and RTF link up to form the pragmatics of the communicative role.

Strategic competence is also an important facet of the communicative approach (Hedge, 2000). The ability to paraphrase and negotiate meaning is a requirement for evaluating vocabulary at Level 4 (ICAO, 2010). This offers more evidence that ESP underpinned by EGP supports linguistic competence when RTF is insufficient or inappropriate.

The next stage considers Richards and Rogers' (2001) consideration of three specific areas from which to define language: structural, functional and interactional. The most appropriate area for aviation English would therefore be functional, as it emphasises a specific communicative dimension and meaning, taking into account a learner's exact communicative needs. As the contexts, forms and functions are established, it is now possible to develop the methodology.

5 Establishing an analysis of student needs

If the communicative approach is at the heart of teaching aviation English, then central to the methodology of such teaching is knowing what the learner needs. Unlike certain other more formulaic approaches, such as those which include pre-determined drills (audio lingual) or where 'mental discipline' is the supporting theory (grammar translation) (Knight, 2001), the communicative approach is not underpinned solely by a strict and 'conscious understanding of the rules' (Knight, 2001, p. 155). This necessitates a more focused and flexible approach based on the objectives and needs of the learners, rather than a disciplined pre-written script. In order, therefore, to define the objectives and needs of a learner, a step-by-step approach would be a practical option. Hedge (2000) suggests that an analysis of student needs is the first stage for an ESP teacher, followed by consideration of the context, with the third step of laying down clear objectives.

As part of the needs analysis, a qualified assessment of students' current levels according to the ICAO scale is crucial. A diagnostic test for language proficiency in speaking and listening should evaluate the linguistic requirements of ICAO's Holistic Descriptors and the six required language components of the ICAO rating scale: pronunciation, fluency, vocabulary, structure, comprehension and interactions (ICAO, 2009). Teachers must also consider the inclusion of radiotelephony in both the speaking and listening parts of any diagnostic test, in order to support how the plain language can be used and, ultimately, tested. It may also be necessary, in order to assess a learner's ability to demonstrate full proficiency in English (i.e., without an aviation bias that may have been gained from theoretical training) to know the level of general English. Construct of diagnostic tests must mirror that of the ultimate test that the student will pass and, as with any valid and reliable test development, the assistance of domain or subject matter experts is critical (Kim, 2013; Hutha, 2009; Read & Knoch, 2009). Course content should be carefully constructed on the basis of the learner's objectives, not just to avoid teaching to the test, but to look further beyond the test into the real-life communicative situations a test taker is likely to encounter.

6 Consideration of an appropriate methodology

As explained earlier, language in aviation communication has many complex and unnatural functions and forms, and so establishing a methodology to teach this should be carefully principled. To help define which principles to utilise for teaching aviation English, I will discuss 3 of the 12 research-based principles for classroom practice suggested by Brown (2002). Those chosen are:

Principle 2:	Meaningful learning
Principle 4:	Intrinsic motivation
Principle 12:	Communicative competence

Meaningful learning implies learning centred on content which has contextual meaning – a key element of aviation English. Teachers should also look to prepare material on relevant topics and meaning-focused activities that also promote learning (Knight, 2001). Intrinsic motivation, which is driven from within the learner, has the potential to be self-rewarding. As there is a high level of personal and professional investment for learners here, intrinsic motivation is also likely to be high. Communicative competence is gained through more targeted activities that highlight use, fluency and authentic language from the real world that the learners communicate in. This does not just facilitate expression, but 'survival' and 'repair' strategies (Harmer, 2007, p. 344).

It is also important to understand that considerations that are used to define the methodology for teaching aviation English are supported by ideas from the communicative teaching approach. Knight (2001) shows that meaningful tasks using language promote learning, whilst Thornbury (2008, p. 112) states that teaching speaking is not simply 'teaching oral production of grammar and vocabulary items', it should also target the skills to be taught. Kukovec (2008, p. 131) suggests a 'job specific approach' where teaching focuses on 'lexical domains', 'language functions' and communication in 'non-routine' situations. It is also likely that students will benefit more from learning and acquiring language in smaller, more manageable amounts, as it can consolidate and improve the language they already have before attempting any real-life communicative tasks. Hedge (2000) maintains that learners need more controlled forms of practice, whereas Qionglan (2008) suggests that contextualised material should include linguistic, situational and cultural context. In the next section, I will discuss the techniques I use to support such methodology.

7 Defining effective techniques to support the methodology

If we start with the 'core' of Radiotelephony to communications, teachers should resource the contents of ICAO Doc9432, the Radiotelephony manual or the official document of the national authority of the country in which they are teaching, if one is produced. Utilising subject matter experts (SMEs) is also vital to help teachers create real-life task-based learning material which can then be adapted for unexpected routine situations. Furthermore, the chance to further learn and practise standard radiotelephony is an important opportunity for all learners in this domain in maintaining and improving standards in communication.

Interactive activities should be non-visual. Simulator equipment for both pilots and ATCOs with headsets involving a real-life task environment would arguably be the best scenario. If this is not available, then using room dividers or separate rooms would suffice. Teachers without the relevant RTF experience, or who do not feel comfortable role-playing a pilot or ATCO, should call on SMEs to participate in their place. This additionally offers the teacher who has never formally worked in an operational role the opportunity to observe and learn from such communicative activities. Such activities are motivating, interactive and give learners the chance to actually participate in real-life task-based learning.

The second area for consideration is the language of ESP. International Civil Aviation Organisation documentation, as well as the many operations and training manuals refer to specific lexis for this ESP context, as well as often giving extended descriptions of certain lexis, making it ideal for practising paraphrasing. What is lacking here is the extended collocations that foreground any such use of domain-specific lexis. However, teachers should make use of the many free-to-access incident and accident reports, as well as technical and industry journals, to source valuable examples of how EGP and ESP fuse to form domain-specific language. Other web-based sources include the excellent Eurocontrol Skybrary website: www.skybrary.aero.

7.1 Vocabulary

Speaking activities that I employ aim to consolidate and increase students' range and accuracy (ICAO, 2010), are essentially material aided (Shumin, 2002), and based on standard ESP English course book layouts that adopt the communicative approach. Material is based around 4-page units, with each unit having an overall domain such as weather and then subdivided into events – thunderstorms, turbulence, etc. Warmer discussion questions start the unit to create interest and motivation, and help maintain interaction (Thornbury, 1996) whilst pictures are used as referencing for extended discussion in technical areas. Parts of the unit also include reading texts to expose learners to a 'meaning-focussed input' (Paramasivam, 2013, p. 105). Such activities also go a long way in helping learners deal with paraphrasing and using EGP when having difficulty in finding required ESP lexis. The double benefit of such exercises is linguistic referencing, which aids vocabulary acquisition and retention in the long term.

Aviation, like a large number of technical domains, has many compound nouns (*Precision approach path indicator*, *Aerodrome traffic circuit*) and context-specific collocations (*snow clearance in progress*; *to make a fly-past of the Tower*). Vocabulary cards and interactive games enable the student to use the language less explicitly, giving learners declarative knowledge – knowing what the word looks and sounds like, but, more critically, the procedural knowledge or the pragmatic competence – knowing how to use it (Hedge, 2000). These techniques enhance language learning through visually re-enforced input such as reading texts (Uplinger, 1997). Such language can then be built into short role-play exercises where learners must respond to and initiate non-routine situations using the language learned.

7.2 Structure

Proficiency in the use of basic grammatical forms and syntactical competence is required for operational Level 4 (ICAO, 2010). To contextualise the material, exercises are easily adapted from typical activity books such as *Games for Grammar Practice Extra* and *Timesaver Grammar Activities*. They work well, particularly as an explicit way of revising and improving proficiency in grammar forms required for aviation safety, whilst in a contextually-appropriate situation for aviation English in line with communicative methodology (Brown, 2007; Shumin, 2002). Again, such linguistic competence is enhanced by the use of task-based role-play classroom activities using RTF.

7.3 Fluency

Fluency (cited by Fearch, Haastrup and Phillipson, in Hedge 2000, p. 57) refers to the flow of a language and the facility to link units of speech together 'without undue strain'. Students are thus made aware of the importance of discourse markers and how to use them in fluent discourse (McGrath, 2011), as well as increased awareness of reducing fillers and hesitation. Fluency may also acquire more importance than accuracy in order to keep learners meaningfully engaged in language use (Brown, 2007) and, as Paramasivam (2013) suggests, certain learners, even though they have a core grammar and vocabulary may still have problems establishing and maintaining fluency.

Techniques to improve fluency include guessing games, where a learner has to describe something on a picture and another has to guess what it is, as well as thinking strategy exercises where students discuss and try to resolve problems. Simulated communication in authentic situations, such as role-play activities, is also purposeful for aviation English as they help to improve oral fluency (Harmer, 2007).

7.4 Interactions

Techniques to practise interactions are based on simulated real-life tasks of ATCO/pilot communications and, whilst incorporating all the linguistic features of the language areas mentioned above, they include practice of clarification techniques, particularly in unexpected situations, and ensure that students have the opportunity to initiate and maintain dialogue. Authenticity and personalising interactions can also be achieved by eliciting personal experiences from students. This contextualises the language which helps to aid storage for later retrieval (Kukovec, 2008).

This section has summarised the methodology and techniques that I currently use for my teaching. In the next section, I will go on to consider additional techniques that may be considered useful for teaching in aviation English.

8 The importance of new teaching techniques

As was mentioned earlier, the communicative approach demands a more focused and flexible approach, based on the objectives and needs of the learner, rather than a disciplined pre-written script. These new communicative teaching techniques should therefore be made apparent, as it is important to not simply analyse and consider such techniques, but to show how they can be used. What follows is a review of how further techniques are useful in teaching and whether such techniques would be suitable for learners of aviation English.

Language level

Whilst the key objective for many learners is based on attaining and maintaining the operational Level 4, the idea of Hedge (2000, p. 11) to set 'language … just above that of the student', rather than at their current level, is very useful, as it could offer more probability of matching the student's objective. However, whilst it may be seen as suitable, the material shouldn't be so challenging it's demotivating (Brown, 2007).

Learning strategies

The rationale for placement tests seems to assume intuitively that everyone may learn the same things in the same way, even when an assessment may show similar levels among learners. However, Hedge (2000) suggests that students may well have different learning strategies and, by knowing this, it is possible to target lesson activities more to their way of learning, rather than simple reliance on a placement test result. Thornbury (2008), gives good guidance on this, whilst Brown (2007) cites a very useful tool in Rubin's 14 characteristics of a good language learner. The addition of appropriate questions on a needs analysis questionnaire could make this a suitable pre-course 'learning technique analysis' for each learner.

Error correction and feedback

Hedge (2000) discusses the use of global errors to determine where linguistic errors cause communication to break down. Any error that does not cause a communication breakdown is categorised as local. As success in communication is the key to language proficiency in aviation English, this practice is already used in assessing structure and could also be very useful in assessing errors in other linguistic areas, such as vocabulary or pronunciation. While any error correction should be handled sensitively and discretely, as proposed by Hedge (2000), immediate intervention by the teacher could be a suitable strategy to make the learner aware of how global errors can cause communication breakdown. Such correction techniques could be:

- an intentional direct request for clarification: 'Sorry?'
- explicit clarification: 'What do you mean by *immatriculation*?'
- implicit clarification: 'Are you sure?' 'Confirm …'
- requested repetition in RTF: 'Say again'

Local errors could be handled in a five to ten minute session at the end of a lesson and students guided to search for examples and to learn the words in context for self-study.

Activities

In order to include the objectives of the needs analysis, Hedge (2000) suggests that, when organising a teaching programme, activities should be as varied as possible. For lessons of aviation English, it may also be useful to list how lesson activities focus on the specific requirements of the ICAO language functions, domains and events. Hedge's idea would allow a syllabus to be more clearly targeted towards the needs analysis for students and, as such, could be considered as suitable for aviation English.

Analysing speech acts for oral production

Hedge (2000) considers analysing listening texts by discussion and investigation of language areas used under guidance, and highlights six points for the student to investigate. Whilst the importance of language functions in aviation communications is a key point in learning, one of the limitations, as McGrath (2011) states, is that when analysing transcripts 'rarely are whole sentences … observed'. This makes the analysis of specific elements more difficult. A lot of redundancy and ellipsis may also seem confusing for the student and be difficult for the teacher to explain. So, whilst potentially a useful tool for higher-level students with greater exposure to more complex language functions, Uplinger (1997) advises that this idea would only be suitable for lower-level students in a controlled and guided context, probably with considerable input from the teacher.

Code switching

A pilot or ATCO could study and understand standard radiotelephony phraseology, but have insufficient competence in plain language, hence the recent introduction of language proficiency testing in aviation. Hedge (2000) and Breul (2013), however, point out that students should be given activities where they can identify plain language expressions in restricted codes. This may, therefore, be a useful tool for learners of aviation English to facilitate a link between the restricted code of phraseology and how it can be supported by that of unrestricted plain language ESP and EGP.

Gap-fill activities

Such activities are typically advocated (Thornbury, 2008; Hedge, 2000; Khosravany et al., 2014) in the communicative approach and are well covered in most course books (Paramasivam, 2013). These can easily be adapted into an aviation context, making this technique very useful in tasks such as discussing a flight, where, for example, each student must exchange information in order to organise a flight. In the course of normal language functions in aeronautical communications, pilots and ATCOs must have communicative strategies to fill gaps in the dialogue and so, in order to increase proficiency in this area, it would be both useful and suitable for teachers to introduce more such gap-fill activities into simulated role plays for non-routine situations, particularly where there is no visual contact.

Functional language

The need for better understanding of plain language functions in aviation English is highlighted by the information given in the ICAO documentation, despite the lack of concrete examples. Hedge (2000) suggests a better awareness of social language by listing expressions under functions and so, if functions are taken from the ICAO documentation and the specific language added, it could be a very useful tool for preparing activities.

The suitability of this activity is that it adds context to material which can help increase a student's functional output. The role of SMEs here is again very important in ensuring accurate and appropriate technical language.

Materials preparation

Based on my own experience, consideration must be given by the teacher to preparing a lot of material themselves to ensure it is meaningful and contextually authentic in order to be more motivating and purposeful for the student. Teachers without any operational background or uncertain as to the technical accuracy of such material should work with SMEs to ensure students receive useful and valid ESP language learning material. Learners, likewise, should ensure that teachers or schools offering such teaching or training have the relevant aeronautical ESP experience.

In preparing appropriate and meaningful tasks for aviation English learning, adaptability of readily available materials for communicative tasks is often required. This allows flexibility towards the students' needs and can increase motivation of students because of its varied and contextual content. Paramasivam (2013), however, highlights the importance of principled criteria towards material writing and suggested Troncoso's checklist guidelines for such tasks. Simple *who*, *what* and *how* principles may well be a useful way of improving and facilitating materials for speaking activities in the future and would almost certainly be suitable for learners in this context.

Speaking tasks

Although speech acts and language functions in aviation English are relatively well defined by ICAO, the means of teaching students how to use them often relies heavily on a teacher's operational experience and intuition. The criteria checklist for speaking tasks by Thornbury (2008), however, on six specific areas (Purpose, Productivity, Interactivity, Challenge, Safety, Authenticity) provides a useful and clearer guide on how best to match techniques with activities. As this is adaptable to any teaching domain, it would appear to be suitable for use in an aviation English context.

9 Conclusion

This paper set out to look at the teaching of speaking skills in an ESP context – aviation English – and, in particular, the techniques used and how these could be supplemented with further research. It has shown that, for teaching of aviation English, a communicative approach is recommended, reflecting the task- and language-specific events and domains of the communication between pilots and ATCOs. This paper has provided an important opportunity for the aviation English teacher to further analyse the approach in order to better understand the methodology. This, along with the fact that certain linguistic content and functional language of such communications are also defined, enables the teacher to more clearly determine the techniques.

Furthermore, this paper has demonstrated that the communicative approach, by its need to be flexible and adaptable, allows appraisal and input of new techniques to suit learners and teachers alike, allowing a clearer understanding of teaching methodology and practice, which, in turn, underpins the contextual knowledge in teaching an ESP such as aviation English.

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From ‘Legal Japanese in English’ to ‘Legal English in Japan’

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Abstract

To adequately design an ESP course, the English variety must be well documented by a needs analysis; this study documents a needs analysis to improve the English used in government documents in Japan. ‘Legal Japanese in English’ is not fulfilling the mission of the government documents, but a few changes could result in Legal English that better serves the immigrant population in Japan. Primarily a piece-by-piece translation, the linguistic mechanisms and ideologies used in these documents produce a Legal English that neither resembles U.S. American Legal English nor any other style of English writing. Putting these legal documents within the context of Japanese society and other immigrant societies, either by using keywords that the audience is familiar with or supplemental explanation sheets, would better serve the purpose of these documents.

Keywords: Legal English, needs analysis, world Englishes, translation, public policy.

1 Introduction

> ‘To all foreigners leaving Japan: Persons enrolled in Japanese public pension schemes for 6 months or longer can apply for Lump-sum Withdrawal Payments.’
>
> (Japanese Social Insurance Agency document)
>
> ‘Before you start using new or second hand vehicles, when the name or address of the owner of the car changes, …[four more conditions], or when you either loss, destroy or have your number plate stolen, you must report the changes at the local Bureau for the Ministry of Transport (or the Light Motor Vehicles Inspection Organization in the case of Light Vehicles)’
>
> (Life in Akita, p. 31).

So begins government bilingual documents meant to explain how to claim pension benefits and when to visit a government office. What happens when Japanese officials try to express legal concepts in English? Who is their audience, and what is their goal? Should they try to imitate the Legal English of America that is notoriously hard to understand, even for native English speakers? Should they try to make the writing easily understood, but risk the ambiguity that comes from deviating from the exactness of legal language? The mechanisms of Legal English in Japan is a mixture of conflicting choices. To adequately design an ESP course, the English variety must be well documented by a needs analysis; this study documents a needs analysis to improve the English used in government documents in Japan.

There is also an ideology and power component to Legal English in Japan. The English versions of documents rarely have legal standing in Japanese courts. The documents explicitly denote their lower status as unofficial documents. So what is the purpose of having an unofficial version of a legal document? Does the English version represent a bowing to the cultural oppressor or a helping hand to immigrants? By giving an official legal text in an unofficial version, what is being accomplished?

Legal English in Japan is a conglomeration of cultural and linguistic perspectives. Nowhere is the mix so evident as in the legal discourse of government documents. This descriptive study documents and analyzes the way that English is used to convey legal concepts to immigrants in Japan. Specifically, I argue that the English variety used in these government documents is best described as ‘Legal Japanese in English’ rather than ‘Legal English in Japan’ with the distinction that the discourse mechanisms and ideology do not seem targeted at English speakers. I further advance that ‘Legal Japanese in English’ is not fulfilling the mission of government documents, but a few changes could result in Legal English that better serves the immigrant population in Japan.

Many government legal documents in Japan are available in bilingual editions; however, the English is exclusively a piece-by-piece translation of the concepts expressed in Japanese. The linguistic mechanisms and ideologies used in these documents produces a language variety that does not resemble American Legal English, nor any other style of English writing. Free from such features as mixed language doublets, which are so common in American Legal English, and the formalities of other government documents, Legal Japanese in English is easy-to-read; however, the lack of a recognizable English variety leaves the native speaker bewildered by how to interpret the discourse.

Specifically examining employment contracts and government legal explanations, these imperfect translations render many aspects of the documents meaningless and misleading to native English speakers; however, simple strategies can render the jargon from ‘Legal Japanese in English’ to ‘Legal English in Japan’. The flaws and principles revealed in these findings not only reveal the underlying characteristics of Legal English, but also are likely to be transferable to Legal Englishes in other cultures and contexts.

In answering the underlying issues of all these questions, this discussion has two main components: what is the linguistic mechanism of Legal English in Japan, and why is English present at all; that is, what does it accomplish and how does it accomplish it? I examined English and bilingual documents from government offices in Japan. In undergoing this investigation, I focus on the native-speaker perspective to deduce the effect of the writing. I ignore the explicit goals of the translators because their explicit mission has little to do with the affect that the result has on the reader. For example, whether they intended to be colonial or not does not mean that the writing is not colonial. By examining Legal English in Japan and determining how it can move away from Legal Japanese in English, I develop principles that reveal the underlying characteristics of Legal English that are transferable to Englishes in other contexts and cultures.

My term ‘Legal Japanese in English’ will be shown by the examples as an accurate description of current legal documents in Japan and, as the name implies, the translation of Japanese to English is undertaken with an emphasis on simple substitution of words and structures. The ideology seems to be that translation is self-explanatory and no further cultural explanations are necessary. These documents should not be simply a translation because the purpose extends beyond conveying the message of one language into another. Legal Japanese in English’s purpose is to create the harmony and mindset of Japan in the audience, to make the audience understand and know how they are supposed to act in Japanese society, not necessarily a legalistic mindset of rules and punishments, but a creation of the sense of responsibility and obligation on which Japanese society depends.

The goal is to describe Legal English in Japanese. This investigation will be successful if I can describe the linguistic and ideological mechanisms that result in the rather faulty Legal Japanese in English. Turning these mechanisms into principles for improvement, I would like to create a Legal English in Japanese that has adequate linguistic terms that correlate with other Legal Englishes, as well as cultural explanations that highlight the cultural schemata necessary of interpretation.

2 Theoretical background

I am proposing an examination of Legal English, broadly defined. Perhaps the prototypical type of Legal English would be that of The International Association of Forensic Linguistics, which is mostly concerned with analyzing text for ‘linguistic evidence in court’ (International Association of Forensic Linguistics). Such a relatively narrow definition is followed in such studies as Levi and Graffam (1990) in their analysis of texts in the judicial process. Thinking more broadly, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 50) use Bhatia’s (1987) framework to discuss Legal English in three contexts: academic legal writing, juridical writing and legislative writing. The Legal English in Japan that I am examining touches each of these contexts. The English is a mélange of translation, explanation and restatement of each of the three contexts. Looking historically, Mellinkoff’s (1963) classic history of how legal writing developed takes an even broader scope that emphasizes how Legal English derived from many sources for different purposes.

I would like to look at the Legal English that is used in Japan to explain laws and to make laws known. Legal English has specific and identifiable characteristics that have been identified by many sources (Bhatia, 1983, 1987; Howe, 1990, 1993; Swales & Bhatia, 1982). The main principal of Legal English is that certain words and phrases have specific, defensible meanings. The Legal English in Japan will avoid these phrases, which introduces ambiguity into the interpretation of the documents.

Before examining the language more closely, a perspective on Japanese culture and its relation with foreigners (immigrants) is in order. Japan has a unique colonial history with English and a unique relationship to immigrants in its mist. Ethnic minorities and immigrants have often been overlooked and neglected in the history of Japan (Doak, 1997). Immigrants have retained outsider status after many years of residency and been the target of frustration when nationalism arises (Doak, 2001). Without full cultural status, immigrants have had difficulty negotiating the complexities of Japanese culture, especially its legal culture. As business in Japan has become more transnational, the legal concepts of different cultures have become more relevant (Developments in the Law – Jobs and Borders).

The legal culture in Japan is based on conflict resolution, where the participants share common principles of culture and success. Even though Japan is among the most highly developed countries, it has one of the lowest amounts of litigation (Blankenburg, 1998). With a low percentage of attorneys per capita, litigation is often avoided by working through mediation institutions.

Other scholars have investigated some aspects of Legal English in Japan. Abe (1956) and Shively (1964–1965) provides a historical example by demonstrating how scholars translate Japanese legal concepts. Vogel (1992) describes the avoidance of certain phrasings in developing laws. Even those who live in countries for a long time are not guaranteed to be able to adjust to legal and cultural norms (Selwood, 2005). Identity and background knowledge are key issues in how law is interpreted and understood (Damrosch, 2006).

3 Method

The method used in this study was document analysis. A wealth of legal government documents are available in English editions. I chose to focus on documents that detail the essential aspects of life in Japan, specifically, a sample of orientation, driving, banking, pension and health documents. These materials are the most prevalent materials for new arrivals in Japan. This purposeful sample seeks to highlight the most common and most important types of documents that are available in Legal English. These documents were chosen because of the high stakes involved in understanding these aspects of life. Misunderstandings in these areas can result in bankruptcy and death, so these documents are absolutely essential.

Because I examined more than 60 pamphlets, notices, contracts and guidebooks, I hesitate to list them all as references. Most are not easily labeled so that they could be retrieved by future researchers. I also examined the websites of government ministries such as the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, as well as the Social Insurance Agency.

The texts contain a number of metalinguistic comments about the role of English in the Japanese legal context. Notably, a gas company pamphlet includes this phrase ‘If you do not understand Japanese, ask someone who does to read the label for you’, and also ‘Ask a Japanese person to call the gas company.’ The second statement assumes that if you are reading the English version, then you cannot be Japanese. The first phrase at least includes the possibility of understanding Japanese; however, this first phrase seems to assume that the reader has no ability to solve language misunderstandings.

4 Findings

The most interesting point of these gas company comments is that the documents assume a cooperative environment. They assume knowing others and being a part of a community. These findings are also collaborated by the government publication ‘Life in Akita’, which is designed to introduce immigrants to the resources in Akita Prefecture. ‘Life in Akita’ is bilingual, with both English and Japanese texts on each page. The Japanese contains reading-guide marks, which allow beginning readers of Japanese to read the text more easily. These marks are further indicators of a privileging of the Japanese text, making the Japanese text easier to read because it is apparently more important and more accurate than the English version.

Narrowing this examination to the language of the text itself, the English consists of translated chunks, instead of translating the whole document. As an example of some of the translated chunks, documents from the Consulate General of Japan in Nashville use the phrase 'by mailing services' to refer to mailing documents by post. For example, 'I will not hold the Consulate General of Japan in Nashville liable for any loss or damage of my documents while being transported to or from the Consulate by mailing services.' Another similar construction is 'by data', which is used to refer to email attachments, such as 'Please return the completed form by data.'

Broadening back to the genres of these texts, the English text really has none of the typical indicators of Legal English and is a new genre in itself. Examining the documents that most resemble prototypical Legal English, some of the employment agreements examined use doublets, such as 'entire and sole', but not as extensively as most U.S. legal documents:

> Article 17: GOVERNING LAW: The agreement shall be governed in accordance with Japanese laws. Jurisdiction for all disputes among this Agreement shall be the District Court. This Agreement shall be written in both Japanese and English and the Japanese language of this Agreement is the legal document.
>
> Article 19: ENTIRE AGREEMENT: This Agreement constitutes the entire and sole agreement with respect to the applicable items in the agreement by and between the University and the Employee and supersedes all previous written or oral agreements heretofore made by and between the University and the Employee regarding these matters.
>
> IN WITNESS WHEREOF, this Agreement shall be duplicated in counterpart and each party shall possess one counterpart.

This segment of the employment contract contains words commonly found in legal texts, such as 'governing law' and 'whereof'. The segment also shows the use of legal specific names of the parties involved, such as the capitalized 'Employee' and 'Agreement'. Most of the legal documents examined in this study did not use such phrasings. These are just a few of the examples and the type of language used in these texts. The mechanisms and ideology are even more interesting as they point to the larger textual issues.

5 Linguistic mechanisms

Examining the linguistic mechanisms of Legal Japanese in English, it is devoid of legally-attested English legal terms. This absence makes the texts easy to read; yet difficult to understand. The words are all familiar and common, so reading the text of the documents is not a problem. The frustration arrives when trying to situate these texts among other texts. When a government travel policy states 'a traveler should not be accompanied by a friend unless absolutely necessary.' What is the meaning of 'necessary'? Does this correspond to any legal term found in Legal English? I call these context-clue words.

Like 'preponderous of evidence' or 'reasonable doubt', they tell the reader exactly in what context these phrases should be interpreted. By knowing the framework for which the document is a part, the reader can decide how to interpret and understand the document. The reader can determine if the information is legally required or just legally recommended.

Legal Japanese in English is a telling genre. The sentences are primarily declarative and imperative. 'You need to call the gas company.' Telling corresponds to relating the facts of a case or the facts of the law, so it is a common format in Legal English and contracts. However, the document that we are examining is not a legal document; it is an unofficial legal document. It is an explanation masquerading as a legal contract. This unofficial document needs to reduce its directness and confidence. Stating authoritatively, that is telling, the legal concepts is misleading because this unofficial English version has no authority.

6 Purpose of English

Why is English present at all? There is an ideology that links foreignness with English. Even though the immigrants in Japan are from multiple countries, English is chosen as the language of the documents. No clear identifying features of American Legal English or British Legal English are found, so there is an unknown audience in mind for the translation. International English perhaps? It is doubtful. The documents do not aspire to be legally-binding documents, nor do they seem to aspire to be explanatory documents. The documents are simply a chunk-by-chunk restatement with little attention to acquainting the audience with the context of the Japanese system or relating the words to the background of the immigrants' systems.

These legal documents are part of a general idea document genre; they are not meant to tell specific laws, even though that is what they aspire to do. In actuality, these documents give the general idea of the law without the authority to give binding provisions. By restating these clauses one-by-one, these documents do not adhere to the authoritative nature of the Japanese versions. These documents are conveying the ideas of each sentence without attention to the integrity of the documents. By reading these documents, the audience is given a general idea of what the issue is about, not enough to understand the issues or act without consulting further materials. So these documents are really an outline of the issues. They provide a guide to some of the issues, but they do not have the authority to tell the binding provisions.

7 Suggestions for improvement

By examining Legal English in Japan and determining how it can move away from Legal Japanese in English, we reveal the underlying characteristics of Legal English that are transferable to Englishes in other contexts and cultures. A number of improvements are available to convey Japanese legal concepts in English. First, I would advocate a use of specific English legal clue words. The clue words would let us know some of the legal concepts in Japan, and how these relate to British and American equivalents. Examples of popular literature such as *Japanzine*, which is written by immigrants for immigrants, show the type of language to which these documents should aspire. These magazines aimed at immigrants are able to thrive because they provide contextualized information to their readers. They mix local knowledge of Japan with background of the immigrants' home countries.

Second, I would advocate supplementing the contracts and government documents with an explanation. The supplemental explanations would provide background on the common ways of proceeding with legal disputes. For example, it is common to use arbitration, written contracts are not the norm, and certain driving laws are perniciously enforced. Knowing what is important is as important as what is said. In other words, knowing the rules is useless without knowing what is commonly flaunted with no consequences and what is prosecuted with full consequences.

To make Legal Japanese in English into Legal English in Japan, the translators must explain the cultural background underlying the documents. By restating phrases from Japanese to English, the readers are given a general idea of law, but the context for interpreting these ideas and how these ideas relate to each other is left unsaid. The important Japanese cultural constraints on litigation are not mentioned or explained. As unofficial versions of the law, these documents purport to be authoritative, but because of their vague audience and purpose, they fail to be so.

8 Conclusion

In this article, I examined Legal English in Japan for its features and purpose. I found the features do not fit existing explanations of the legal genre or other known genres. The purpose seems to be translation by restatement, which I call Legal Japanese in English. Putting these legal documents within the context of Japanese society and other immigrant societies, either by using keywords that the audience is familiar with or supplemental explanation sheets, would better serve the purpose of these documents. Only by analyzing the faults of the current variety of English can a better variety be taught.

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Creating a corpus-informed EMP course for medical undergraduates



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Abstract

This paper reviews the year-on-year development of an EMP (English for Medical Purposes) course at a Japanese national university, and investigates the relationship between corpus analysis, word lists and materials development emerging from our research in this field. We describe the development of course content and materials over a period of three years, examining the materials used and detailing the ways in which we have built corpora and used corpus analysis tools in the production of word lists for students. The article includes a report on the students' evaluation of the course.

Keywords: English for Medical Purposes, corpora, word lists, course design, materials development.

1 Introduction

In this article, we report on the evolution of an intensive medical English course at Hiroshima University, Japan, and highlight the ways in which corpora and word lists are playing an integral role in materials development. A number of researchers (Cowan, 1974; Salager 1983, 1985; Baker, 1988; Chung & Nation 2003, 2004) have investigated the types of words contained in medical texts, and more recently, Fraser (2007, 2009), Wang, Liang and Ge (2008), and Hsu (2013) have worked in constructing medical corpora and word lists. However, such studies have, for the most part, taken place independently of course creation. The course described here has developed over a three-year period from an ongoing interaction between corpus analysis, word lists and materials development. We examine the materials used, and detail the ways in which corpus software has helped us produce both corpora and word lists for students. The paper includes an account of student evaluation of the course, and the impressions of the teachers involved.

2 Developing an EMP course

The course was started in 2012 in response to a request from the university's medical faculty for help with developing the English language skills of third-year medical students (see Davies, Fraser, Lauer & Howell, 2013). It was established as a four-day intensive course involving four teachers, each of whom is an experienced teacher–researcher, but without specialized knowledge of the medical field. Course participants are third-year medical undergraduates (approximately 120 in total), with students divided into four classes; all students receive three 90-minute periods of instruction from each teacher. Since its establishment, the structure of the course and the members of the teaching team have remained the same.

The initial request from the medical faculty was to focus on the productive skills of speaking and writing, and the course proceeded on this basis. However, as an ongoing course developing from background research on medicine as a practice and taking into consideration the university's medical curriculum and students' abilities and needs, it has evolved over the three years it has been taught.

2.1 Phases of development

The first year of the course can be described as *exploratory*, the second *as research and piecemeal development*, and the third as *consolidation and syllabus development*.

The exploratory period of the course (see Davies et al., 2013) involved obtaining material from a variety of sources, from encyclopaedia articles to commercially produced teaching CDs and DVDs, and dividing the course into three main strands: doctor–patient medical conversations, discussions on medical ethics, and summary writing on medical topics. To add cohesion to the course, a small corpus comprising the course materials was built; from this, a word list for the students' reference was compiled, with adjustments made according to suggestions within the teaching team. The list was used to produce a vocabulary test, which, along with a summary writing task and classroom performance, provided us with a means of evaluating the students. Student feedback from the course, and for the word list in particular, was positive, and the medical faculty requested that the course continue.

In the research and piecemeal development phase of the course, background research was undertaken in the form of interviews with senior medical professors (Davies, Fraser & Tatsukawa, 2014); in these discussions, anatomy and physiology were highlighted, with anatomy being stressed as a particularly important field. An anatomy corpus was constructed (Fraser, Davies & Tatsukawa, 2014), and basic anatomy materials were produced and trialled (Davies et al., 2014) before being added to the material for the intensive medical course. The addition of these materials was a form of accommodation, in which they were an add-on to the materials used in the previous year.

In the consolidation and syllabus development phase, completely new materials were written for 9 of the 12 classes taught on the intensive course. These integrated anatomy with areas of medical specialization, common diseases and medical conditions, with a focus on speaking and writing tasks. A new word list and accompanying word test were created.

2.2 Interplay between corpus, materials development, and teaching

Given that the students placed a high value on the vocabulary list they received in the first intensive medical course, consideration was given to the development of pedagogical word lists from a medical corpus, with the organization of a syllabus on the basis of the creation of that corpus, and the development of materials through corpus analysis.

Early ideas had focused on materials development following corpus construction and analysis. However, this would be a more time-consuming process than we could afford, and the decision was made to work on building corpora in parallel with the development of teaching materials. Insights and findings in both areas interacted with each other, primarily through discussion within the research team.

3 Corpus construction

3.1 Selection of texts

Our original plan was to build a corpus from 100 medical articles, with a methodological approach similar to that used for Fraser's Pharmacology Corpus and word lists (see Fraser, 2013). Fraser's 360,000-word corpus comprises 100 research articles, and was designed to represent the various areas of pharmacology. Using the criteria of frequency and range, a 2,000-word list and a more manageable 570-word list were created from this corpus with the aim of providing learners with the most important words in the discipline.

To achieve a similarly representative medical corpus, it was necessary to divide the field into a reasonable number of broad areas. This was done by a member of the medical faculty, who suggested the following ten divisions: cardiovascular medicine; digestive medicine; respiratory medicine; neuromusculoskeletal medicine; infectious diseases and immunology; oncology; developmental medicine; nephrology and endocrinology; critical care and anaesthesiology; and sensory organology. However, the strong emphasis placed on anatomy in the background research interviews led to a switch in approach to corpus construction, and we decided to begin by creating a corpus from an anatomy textbook: *Gray's Anatomy for Students*. This is a simplified, clinically-focused version of *Gray's Anatomy*, considered to be one of the most influential works on the subject. The corpus would be used to identify the most commonly used anatomy terms, and also as a resource for creating and checking teaching materials (see Fraser et al., 2014). As the medical faculty interviewees had also suggested a focus on common diseases and symptoms, another well-established medical reference was chosen for subsequent analysis: *Harrison's Principles of Internal Medicine*. However, the importance of being able to read and write scholarly articles at the post-graduate level also emerged from the interviews, and we would still go ahead with the long-term construction of a corpus based on medical research articles.

3.2 Word lists

The word lists used for the intensive medical courses were created using corpus software with the materials that had been chosen for the course. *AntConc* (Anthony, 2011) was used to provide lists of the most frequent words and in creating concordances to provide contextual information. Regarding the first word list (377 words), the terms mainly came from materials prepared for the writing classes, which focused on infectious diseases: two edited encyclopaedia articles, used for summarization tasks, plus some related online material. It was the popularity of this word list that created the impetus for the current project, adding a research dimension to course construction. The second list (567 words) was produced in a similar way to the first, drawing from the current materials used in the course, and focuses on anatomy, diseases, and symptoms (see Figure 1).

A	
abdomen	腹部
abdominal cavity	腹腔
abnormal	異常な
absorb	吸収する
absorption	吸収
acid	酸
acid-fast	抗酸性の
acidic	酸性の
acidosis	アシドーシス 酸性血症
active	活動性の
acute	急性の
adipose tissue	脂肪組織
adrenal glands	アドリナ腺
adverse effects	副作用
agony	激痛
alimentary canal	消化管
alkali	アルカリ性の
alpha cell	アルファ細胞
alveolar duct	肺胞管
alveoli (sg. alveolus)	肺胞　腺胞
anemia/anaemia	貧血
aneurysm	動脈瘤
angina	狭心症
angiotensin	アンジオテンシン（アンギオテンシン）
antibiotic	抗生物質
antibody	抗体
antigen	抗原 アンチゲン
anus	肛門
anxiety	不安　心配
aorta	大動脈
aortic valve	大動脈弁
aphasia	失語症
appetite	食欲
appendicitis	虫垂炎
appendicular skeleton	体肢骨格 四肢骨
appendix	虫垂
arachnoid membrane	くも膜
arterial blood	動脈血
arteriole	細動脈
artery	動脈
arthritis	関節炎
asepsis	無菌状態
atrial	心房の
atrium	心房
axial skeleton	中軸骨格
B	
bacilli (sg. bacillus)	バチルス　桿菌
bacteria (sg. bacterium)	細菌
belly	腹
beta cell	ベータ細胞
bile	胆汁
bile duct	胆管
blackout	意識喪失
blocker (of receptor)	遮断剤（受容体の）
bloodstream	血流 {けつりゅう
blood cell	血球
blood vessel	血管
blurry	ぼんやりした
bone(s)	骨
bowel(s)	腸
brain stem	脳幹
brain tumor/tumour	脳腫瘍
breastbone	胸骨
bronchi (sg. bronchus)	気管支
bronchiole	細気管支
bruise	打撲
C	
calcium	カルシウム
cancer	癌
cancerous	癌の　癌性の
capillary	毛細血管
carbon dioxide	二酸化炭素
carcinogenic	発癌性の
cardiac tamponade	心(臓)タンポナーデ
cardiovascular system	心臓血管系
carrier (e.g. of a virus)	キャリア 保菌者
cartilage	軟骨
caseous necrosis	乾酪壊死
cavity	腔
cecum/caecum	盲腸
cell	細胞
cell division	細胞分裂
cellular	細胞の、細胞性
cell wall	細胞壁
cerebellum	小脳
cerebral cortex	大脳皮質
cerebral infarction	脳梗塞
cerebrospinal fluid	脳脊髄液
cerebrum	大脳
chills	悪寒
cholesterol	コレステロール
chronic	慢性の
chyme	糜粥（びじゅく）
circuit	回路
circulation	循環
circulatory system	循環系
cisterna magna	大槽
clavicle	鎖骨
clinical	臨床上の
colon	結腸　大腸
commit suicide	自殺する
complaint	病訴　不調
complication(s)	合併症

Figure 1: Extract from the 2014 Medical Word List

3.3 Materials development

Over the three years of the courses, the materials have evolved on the basis of an increasing understanding of students' needs, with some key issues beginning to emerge concerning content and context.

In relation to content, the emphasis on anatomy resulted in the creation of anatomy materials (Davies et al., 2013), which were trialled and then used in the research and piecemeal development phase of the intensive course. However, as noted above, these were stand-alone materials that did not connect with the other course content. Regarding context, through informal conversations with medical students, it was clear that they were exposed to and sometimes taught medical anatomy terms in English, but these terms did not appear in an English context: either they were tagged to key terms in Japanese discourse, or they were presented in lists. Similarly, the stand-alone anatomy materials for the intensive course provided learners with minimal exposure to the anatomy words in English discourse.

It was also necessary to consider what students should talk about in English. In the first two years of the course, they were required to undertake some discussion work on medical ethics. For other oral communication skills classes, students were asked to conduct doctor–patient conversations by practising example dialogues and then carrying out role plays. However, one concern was that this was conversation without background content; although students could perform the role plays, they were not, for example, being asked to explain a specific medical condition or how a particular part of the body was being affected. Given that medical professors had highlighted the importance of anatomy, common diseases and symptoms, there was a need to give students exposure to discourse in these areas, and more opportunity to talk about them.

Based on the background research and emerging issues described above, a new set of materials was designed for the third year of the course, connecting anatomy and physiology to medical conditions. A general medical field was chosen and matched to an anatomy area, as shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Matching anatomy to medical field

General Medical Area	Anatomy Area	Medical Problem
1. cardiovascular medicine	1. heart	1. stenosis, infarction, endocarditis, etc.
2. musculoskeletal medicine	2. skeletal system	2. knee problems (arthritis, spinal injury)
3. digestive medicine	3. digestive tract	3. ulcers, tumours, GERD, appendicitis
4. neurosurgery	4. brain	4. strokes and tumours
5. respiratory medicine	5. lungs	5. pulmonary tuberculosis
6. endocrinology	6. pancreas	6. diabetes mellitus

The materials were designed to build from anatomy and physiology to diseases and symptoms, with the anatomy corpus being used as a tool for editing, along with advice and feedback from doctors where possible. The assumption was made that students would be familiar with the contents of the units in Japanese, and that their schematic knowledge in their L1 would be good, which would help them greatly when they encountered difficult words or sentences.

In the first part of each unit of materials, students are asked to match key anatomy words to basic anatomy diagrams. This task is followed by a short reading of approximately 300 words, focusing on anatomy and/or physiology to contextualize the words, along with some comprehension questions. After this, students are required to talk about the anatomy/physiology in pairs (see Appendix).

In the second part of each unit, another set of words is introduced by matching words to definitions. These words are then seen in the context of a longer essay of around 600 words, which contains some historical and background information, and descriptions of four diseases/medical problems, along with comprehension questions. Following this, students practise a doctor–patient conversation and useful questions for such dialogues, followed by role plays in pairs, which involve the four conditions contained in the essay (Table 2).

Table 2: Structure of a unit of material

Anatomy
1. Matching anatomy words to anatomy diagrams
2. Reading a short text on anatomy/physiology with comprehension questions
3. Talking practice on anatomy/physiology
Medical problems and symptoms
1. Discussion of medical field
2. Reading a longer text on diseases with comprehension questions
3. Practising a short doctor–patient medical dialogue
4. Performing doctor–patient role plays

While the structure of the units was originally designed to incorporate speaking activities, it was easily adapted to writing activities, the difference being that, with an orientation towards summarization, the second essay was lengthened to about 1,000 words with accompanying tasks.

4 Student evaluation of the course

Each year of the course, students have been asked to give feedback via a questionnaire. With four of the questions, students have been required to make an evaluation based on a four-point scale (4 = very positive, 3 = positive, 2 = negative, 1 = very negative):

(1) How motivated were you to develop your English skills?

(2) How useful was the course?

(3) How clear were the classes and teaching materials?

(5) How useful was the medical word list?

Two of the questions require *yes/no* answers: (4) *Do you think your English has improved during this course?* and (6) *Was the intensive course a good way to study?*

The findings show a great deal of consistency year-on-year. Each year, approximately 120 students took the course (although not all completed the questionnaire), and 80% or more of them felt that their English had improved (see Table 3). Also, over 75% of the students believed that the intensive course was a good way to study. Interestingly, the major change in materials from 2013 to 2014 did not lead to much change in the responses. One interpretation of this is that the teachers involved in the course and the structure of the intensive course have remained the same over the three years, and the students' perceptions are more affected by these factors than the content of the course itself.

Table 3: Percentages of students giving positive feedback

Question	2012	2013	2014
4. (Improvement)	83% (88/106)	80% (94/118)	80% (91/114)
6. (Intensive course)	78% (83/106)	76% (90/118)	80% (91/114)

Table 4 shows the mean values of the evaluations given by the students on the four-point scale regarding their motivation to study, the usefulness of the course, the clarity of materials and the usefulness of the word list. Of these, the only item showing some variation was the word list, where the result dipped in 2013 to 3.0 (still a positive evaluation, nonetheless). Several factors may account for this. In all three years, word lists were connected with evaluation in the form of a word test. However, in 2012, two lists were produced: a list of 100 items was given to the students, who were informed that they would be tested on these words, and a longer list (377 words) was provided as a general reference. In the second year, the students were only given the longer list and informed that they would be tested on it. Given that most of the words were not overtly taught, and there was a strong orientation towards the writing classes, students may have been less favourably inclined towards the list. In 2013, the students were given a much longer list (567 words), but the words were spread across nine classes and embedded in the materials, which also included vocabulary-building tasks. Consequently, it seems that although the students in 2014 faced a greater learning task, they recognized the relevance of the list and had a very positive view of it.

Table 4: Student feedback mean scores

Question	2012 (106 students)	2013 (118 students)	2014 (114 students)
1. Motivation	2.9	2.8	2.9
2. Usefulness	3.0	2.9	3.0
3. Clarity	3.0	2.9	3.0
5. Word list	3.3	3.0	3.3

From the teacher perspective, three members of the teaching team were involved in using the new materials. In general, the materials were regarded as being more demanding in 2014 than in 2012 and 2013. This had a motivating effect on the teaching side, with considerably more time being dedicated to course preparation, and a greater sense of achievement felt by the teachers. Also, due to the greater focus on content through essays, the vocabulary test was much more challenging; the average score was 70%, considered by all the teachers to be an ideal level of difficulty, with the two best students obtaining 96%. This contrasted with previous years, when large numbers of students scored close to 100%.

5 Conclusion

This article has shown that it is possible for applied linguists, without specialized knowledge of medicine, to successfully develop and teach a set of EMP materials for medical students in Japan. Our corpus-based approach adds richness to the materials taught by improving the materials themselves and creating specialized word lists, helping students with their learning of the most useful medical terms. Importantly, in teaching such material, the aim is not to teach medicine through the medium of English; it is, rather, to provide students with English in contexts with which they are already familiar from their own medical studies. This may be why such high value is given to the medical word lists themselves by the students: of primary importance are terms and how they are used, with the lists acting as key reference documents that the students take with them after a course has finished.

Looking ahead, completion of the textbook-based and article-based corpora will allow for an extensive evaluation of the pedagogic units of material, and the further development and refinement of the course-specific word list. Our hope then is that a review and editing of the specific word list, in conjunction with analysis of the three corpora, will enable us to compile a general word list for medical undergraduates.

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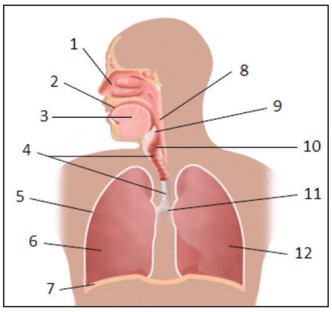
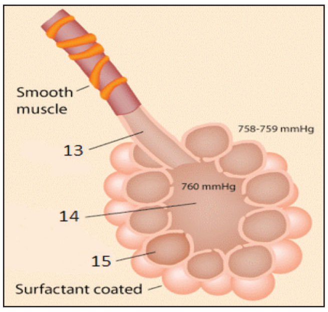
Appendix

Example of Anatomy material for Pulmonary Tuberculosis Unit





epiglottis bronchus/bronchi alveolar sac nasal cavity alveolus/ alveoli tongue trachea alveolar duct
diaphragm left lung oral cavity larynx
pharynx right lung pleura/pleurae

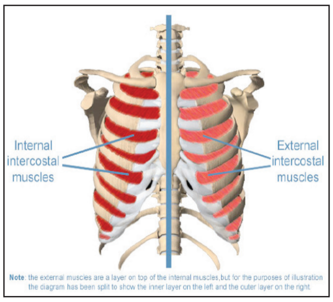
Write the terms in the box next to the correct number for the diagrams.

Word	Word
1.	**9.**
2.	**10.**
3.	**11.**
4.	**12.**
5.	**13.**
6.	**14.**
7.	**15.**
8.	

The Lungs

The lungs are located in the thoracic cavity, which is separated from the abdominal cavity by the diaphragm. Within the lungs of an adult, there are about 300 million alveoli. These create a surface area of 160 square metres, roughly the size of a singles tennis court. There are two pleurae (pleural membranes), one which lines the thoracic cavity and one which covers the outside of the lungs, and these stick to each other.

The diaphragm and intercostal muscles are important for breathing. During inspiration (inhalation), the external intercostal muscles contract, lifting the ribs up and out. The diaphragm also contracts drawing it down. These actions cause the lungs to expand, drawing air into them.



During normal (gentle) expiration, the external intercostal muscles and diaphragm relax. Because of their natural elasticity, the lungs contract, pushing air out of them. During forced (vigorous) expiration the internal intercostal muscles contract, pulling the ribs in and down, and the wall of the abdomen contracts, pushing the stomach and liver upwards. With vigorous breathing in a normal adult, three to five litres of air can be exchanged with each breath. This is known as *vital capacity*. However, 1.2 litres of *residual air* remain in the lungs.

Questions

1. What is the name of the cavity in which the lungs are located?
2. What does the diaphragm do during inspiration?
3. What happens during normal expiration?
4. What happens during forced expiration?
5. What is the *vital capacity* of a normal adult?

Speaking

Work with a partner and do the following activities. Use the words from the boxes to help you.

Breathing

Verbs: contract lift draw relax expand push

Other words: inspiration external/internal intercostal muscles ribs
diaphragm expiration walls abdomen stomach liver

Student A

Talk to Student B. Describe the process of breathing if you are sitting at a desk.

Student B

Talk to Student A. Describe the process of breathing if you are running 800 m.

Passage of Air

larynx nasal cavity alveolar sac bronchi pharynx alveoli
oral cavity trachea bronchioles alveolar duct

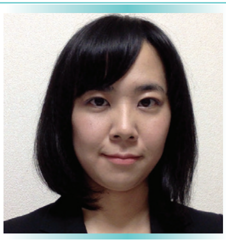
Student A

Talk to Student B. Describe the route that air takes during inspiration, starting at the nasal cavity.

Student B

Talk to Student A. Describe the route that air takes during expiration, starting at the alveoli.

The use of integrated listening, reading, speaking and writing tasks on students' productive skills in a university EAP course



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Abstract

This paper discusses the effects of integrated tasks on developing learners' productive skills in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course at a university in Japan. Integrated tasks are those that elicit productive output (speaking or writing) while involving input (listening, reading, or both). In an academic setting, university students are often required to combine information from textbooks and lectures to develop their own arguments. Aiming at enhancing participants' speaking and writing skills, we implemented four listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks composed of several modules, such as listening to a lecture, reading an accompanying text and making an oral or written summary of both sources. In order to explore the performance of participants at three different proficiency levels, we analyzed the quality of their summaries. The results indicated that most participants succeeded in paraphrasing and organizing ideas regardless of their proficiency, while the middle and low proficiency levels often had difficulties identifying main and supporting ideas, building basic organizations of summaries and using stylistic conventions such as acknowledging sources of information. Pedagogical implications on the use of integrated tasks for university EAP courses including educators' role as a facilitator of the tasks are discussed.

Keywords: integrated tasks, productive skills, summarization, English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

1 Introduction

In an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) setting, university students who have English as their second language (L2) are expected to have a high level of proficiency in their L2. This includes the ability to integrate the four skills (i.e., listening, reading, speaking and writing) for academic coursework. For example, class participation often involves reading a textbook before class, listening to a lecture in class and writing an essay about the topic after class, all in their L2 (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001). Therefore, academic success requires university students not only to develop the four skills independently, but also to become capable of applying these skills in combination.

Previous studies, however, have pointed out a considerable gap between the high demands of EAP and learners' current L2 proficiency (e.g., Berman & Cheng, 2001; Ferris & Tagg, 1996). Ferris and Tagg (1996) reported that, while EAP educators strived for authenticity in their EAP tasks, learners felt the listening and speaking skills required for class participation were too demanding. Thus, when planning EAP tasks, we suggest that educators need to consider the comprehensibility of the tasks in regard to the learners' level.

2 Integrated tasks

Integrated tasks are those that elicit productive output (speaking or writing) while involving input (listening, reading, or both). They have gained much attention in language assessment, as well as classroom practice, because learners can demonstrate L2 comprehension and integration of source materials in an authentic EAP context (Cumming, 2013; Plakans & Gebril, 2013). Previous research on integrated tasks has focused more on integrated writing tasks than integrated speaking tasks (e.g., Cumming, 2013; Li, 2014; Plakans & Gebril, 2013). In our EAP course, we implemented integrated speaking tasks as well as integrated writing tasks to provide learners with an opportunity to train all the four skills during the course. Specifically, our listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks required learners to summarize two sources: a lecture and an accompanying text. In this section, literature on integrated writing tasks is reviewed in order to provide a definition and address the significance of integrated tasks.

Reviewing existing literature on integrated writing tasks including listen-to-write tasks, read-to-write tasks and listen-and-read-to-write tasks, Knoch and Sitajalabhorn (2013) proposed a holistic definition of integrated writing tasks as follows:

(1) mining the source texts for ideas, (2) selecting ideas, (3) synthesising ideas from one or more source texts, (4) transforming the language used in the input, (5) organizing ideas and (6) using stylistic conventions such as connecting ideas and acknowledging sources. (Knoch & Sitajalabhorn, 2013, p. 306)

The first three of the six components concern receptive skills. They require not only basic comprehension, but also the ability to discriminate between main ideas and details. Such analysis of the informational quality of the input is an important sub-skill of academic listening (Richards, 1983). The latter three components concern productive skills. They consider the conventions of making academic arguments such as paraphrasing and referring to the sources of information (Swales & Feak, 2004). Although Knoch and Sitajalabhorn's definition referred to integrated writing tasks, it is also applicable to integrated speaking tasks.

Thus, conducting integrated tasks such as listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks allows learners to demonstrate information decoding and encoding skills in their L2 in a quasi-academic context (Oxford, 2001). To encourage learners' ability to develop logical arguments based on information from textbooks and lectures in English, which is their second language, the present study implemented listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks during an EAP course for first-year university students in Japan.

3 The use of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks for an EAP course

This section describes our implementation of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks for an EAP course at a university in Japan. The EAP course was offered for first-year university students majoring in Pharmacy and Law. The aim of the course was to develop English comprehension and production skills that would benefit students' studies.

3.1 Procedure of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks

The listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks that we utilized for our EAP course basically proceeded as follows: (1) listening to a lecture, (2) making an oral or written summary of the lecture, (3) reading an accompanying text, and (4) making an oral or written summary of the lecture and the text. Table 1 presents the procedure of the listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks. Typically, one set of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks took two weeks to complete. All modules in the procedure were conducted in English, thus learners were expected to demonstrate all of the four skills during the course.

Table 1: Procedure of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks

The first week (90 min)	The second week (90 min)
In class: 1. Pre-learning of the lecture *<face-to-face instruction>* 2. Listening to the lecture *<individual learning>* 3. Comprehension quiz about the lecture *<individual learning>* 4. Making a summary of the lecture (written/oral) *<individual learning>* Homework: 1. Reading the accompanying text *<individual learning>*	In class: 1. Comprehension quiz about the text *<individual learning>* 2. Reading the text *<face-to-face instruction>* 3. Making a lecture note *<individual learning>* 4. Making a summary of the lecture and the text (written/oral) *<individual learning>*

We decided to assign learners to work on a major part of the tasks individually in order to maintain their self-efficacy (Graham, 2011). According to Graham (2011), letting learners feel a sense of control over their own learning can lower their anxiety and thus improve their performance during EAP tasks. Consequently, the lecture videos were distributed to learners' individual iPads and the reading materials were provided as homework in order to allow learners to pace their own learning. We also offered some face-to-face instructions during the class to provide learners with supplemental information such as vocabulary related to the source materials.

3.2 Task materials

The task materials were adapted by the authors for the present course based on lecture videos selected from Yale University's OpenCourseWare and TED Talks. First, four lectures were chosen based on the topic, logical development and language use. Next, one segment of each lecture was selected. These segments were then divided into two parts. One part was used as a listening material, and the other part was adapted into a script as a reading material. In total, four sets of materials were developed: Food environment, Global problems, Decision making, and Fetus learning. The listening materials approximately lasted for 60 to 90 seconds (250 to 300 words), and the length of the reading materials ranged from 400 to 600 words.

Following the conventions of integrated tasks, the content of the two materials concerned a single topic (Plakans & Gebril, 2013). For instance, in the Fetus learning set, the listening part introduced the idea that 'humans start learning before birth', and the reading part presented several research findings that supported this idea.

3.3 Task implementation in an EAP course

Table 2 displays the schedule of our EAP course. Since most participants of the course had no previous experience doing listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks, scaffolding activities were offered to enhance learners' self-efficacy. For the first part of the course, learners were introduced to useful tips for tasks such as note-taking and conventional English rhetorical modes with discourse markers. In addition, in the first week of the integrated writing and speaking tasks (week 5 & 10), shorter and simpler materials were used to familiarize learners with the task formats.

Table 2: Schedule of the EAP course

Classes	Activities
Week 1–2	Introduction, placement test
Week 3	Tips for listening: Note-taking
Week 4	Tips for reading: Rhetorical modes, discourse markers
Week 5	Introduction to integrated writing tasks
Week 6–7	Integrated writing task 1: *Food environment*
Week 8–9	Integrated writing task 2: *Global problems*
Week 10	Introduction to integrated speaking tasks
Week 11–12	Integrated speaking task 3: *Decision making*
Week 13–14	Integrated speaking task 4: *Fetus learning*
Week 15	Wrap-up

4 The study: Learners' performance in the listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks

Learners were divided into three different proficiency levels for the purpose of investigating their performance during the tasks. Learners' summaries produced at the end of each set of tasks were analyzed according to these proficiency levels.

4.1 Participants

Among the participants of the EAP course, 40 learners who completed four sets of listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks were selected to track their performance with the tasks, according to three different proficiency levels. For that purpose, learners were divided into one of the three proficiency groups (high, middle and low groups) based on a placement test conducted in Week 1. The listening section of a TOEFL PBT Practice test (Educational Testing Service, 1997) was adapted as the placement test.

4.2 Summary data

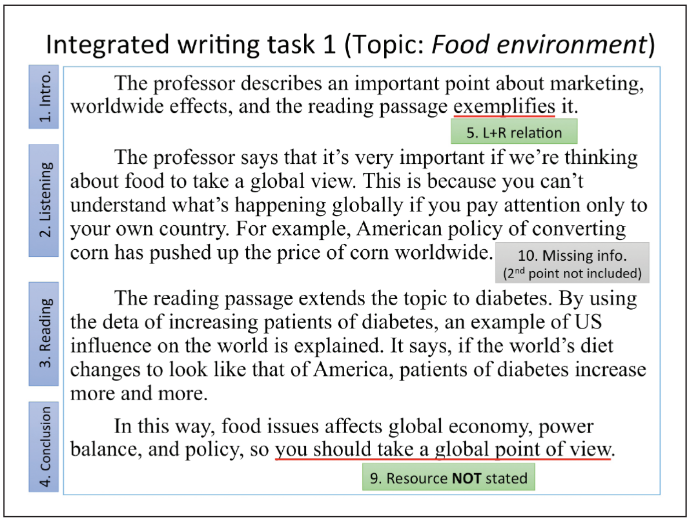
The four sets of summaries that were produced at the final module of the tasks (Module 4 in the second week in Table 1) were analyzed by two raters. After rater training, they judged whether each summary satisfied the 14 evaluation criteria shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Summary evaluation criteria

Basic organizations	
1. Introduction	The summary contains the introduction.
2. Listening	The summary contains detailed information about the listening materials.
3. Reading	The summary contains detailed information about the reading materials.
4. Conclusion	The summary contains the conclusion.
Strong points	
5. L+R relation	The summary describes the relation between the listening and reading materials.
6. Paraphrase	The summary contains many paraphrased expressions.
7. Logical flow	The summary is coherently logical.
8. Discourse markers	The summary uses discourse markers to direct the audience's attention smoothly from one idea to the next.
9. Source stated	The summary specifies the source of the information.
Weak points	
10. Missing information	The summary lacks much necessary information.
11. Redundant information	The summary contains much redundant information.
12. Wrong information	The summary contains much wrong information.
13. Confusing expressions	The summary contains some confusing parts.
14. Grammar/ vocabulary misused	The summary contains many grammatical errors and/or misused words.

The evaluation criteria were determined by the authors to assess whether learners' summaries satisfied the six components of integrated tasks as described in Section 2 (Knoch & Sitajalabhorn, 2013). Items 13 and 14 were included to assess the language use. Inter-rater reliability of the two raters was good to fair (K = .63). The participants were not explicitly taught the six components of integrated tasks, however, the instructor of the EAP course did use the same evaluation criteria above to provide learners with feedback on their summaries throughout class.

Figure 1 presents a sample summary made by a participant in the integrated writing task 1 with the inter-rater's annotations.


Integrated writing task 1 (Topic: *Food environment*)

1. Intro.

The professor describes an important point about marketing, worldwide effects, and the reading passage exemplifies it.

5. L+R relation

2. Listening

The professor says that it's very important if we're thinking about food to take a global view. This is because you can't understand what's happening globally if you pay attention only to your own country. For example, American policy of converting corn has pushed up the price of corn worldwide.

10. Missing info. (2nd point not included)

3. Reading

The reading passage extends the topic to diabetes. By using the deta of increasing patients of diabetes, an example of US influence on the world is explained. It says, if the world's diet changes to look like that of America, patients of diabetes increase more and more.

4. Conclusion

In this way, food issues affects global economy, power balance, and policy, so you should take a global point of view.

9. Resource **NOT** stated

Figure 1: Sample summary produced by a participant with annotation

After analyzing individual summaries, the percentage of the summaries that satisfied each of the 14 evaluation criteria was calculated within proficiency groups. For example, when 17 out of 20 summaries in the middle proficiency group satisfied Item 1 'Introduction', the percentage would be 85 per cent.

Finally, the calculated percentages were depicted in line graphs in order to explore tendencies in learners' performance during the tasks according to their proficiency levels.

5 Findings from the participants' summaries

After briefly describing the participants' English language profile, this section discusses findings from the analysis on the participants' summaries. The results of the analysis are presented here according to the six components of integrated tasks (Knoch & Sitajalabhorn, 2013).

5.1 The participants' language profile

A listening section of a TOEFL PBT Practice test (Educational Testing Service, 1997) was adapted as the placement test. The test consisted of 50 questions regarding short conversations, longer conversations and short talks. One-way ANOVA on the test score indicated significant difference among three groups; F (2, 37) = 3.25, p < .001; high group (n = 10): M = 34.20, SD = 13.07; middle group (n = 20): M = 25.60, SD = 3.73; low group (n = 10): M = 19.50, SD = 4.50. The participants' profiles of their listening proficiencies were as follows: high group = 68–71; middle group = 52–55; low group = 39–42, based on the estimated TOEFL iBT scores.

5.2 Mining the source texts for ideas

To explore participants' performance with the first component of integrated tasks, 'mining the source texts for ideas,' the basic organization of the summaries was analyzed using Item 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the evaluation criteria in Table 3 (Figure 2).

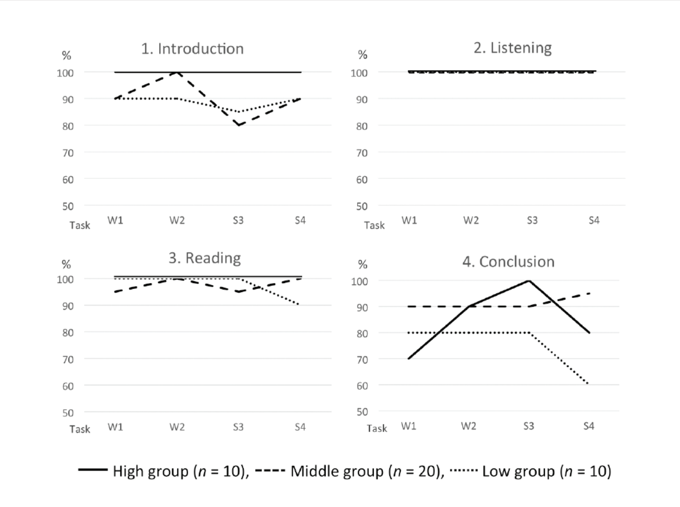


Figure 2: Percentages of summaries containing basic organizations

As shown in Figure 2, 90 per cent or more of all the proficiency groups could include information from both of the listening and reading materials. However, the participants failed to include introductions and conclusions from summaries, regardless of their proficiency levels. Some participants directly started their summaries by describing the arguments from the listening, and others finished their summaries without referring to both sources in their conclusions.

These results suggest the importance of teaching learners the responsibility of the speaker/writer for effective communication in English. John Hinds, a scholar of contrastive rhetoric, proposes the notion of 'speaker and/or writer responsibility' and 'listener and/or reader responsibility' in language (Hinds, 1987). According to him, it is the speaker/writer's role to make a clear and well-organized argument in languages like English, while it is the listener/reader's role to decode and understand the delivered message in other languages like Japanese.

Though the Japanese participants were given brief instructions on the basic organization of summaries, they occasionally failed to include an introduction and a conclusion in their summaries. A more explicit instruction with regard to contrastive rhetoric between English and Japanese language might have been necessary for learners to fully understand why well-organized arguments would be preferred in English.

5.3 Selecting ideas

Items 10, 11 and 12 in Table 3 were used to evaluate the quality of the information presented in the summaries (Figure 3). As listed in Table 3, the items were described to evaluate weak points in the summaries. Consequently, the higher the percentage was, the more problems appeared in the summaries.

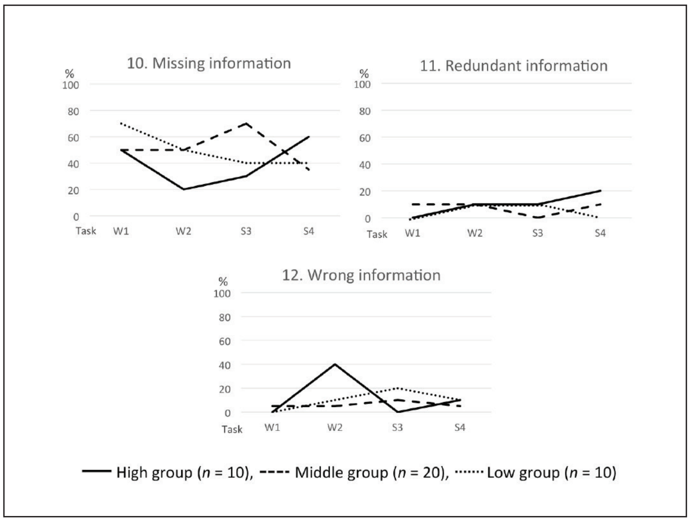


Figure 3: Percentages of summaries with problems in selecting ideas

Regardless of the proficiency levels, the participants tended to omit necessary information rather than to add redundant information throughout the four tasks. Almost half of the total summaries failed to mention the main and supporting ideas of either one or two of the sources (e.g., Figure 1).

This result implies an issue of 'avoidance' in expressing ideas during the tasks. The participants tended to avoid explicitly mentioning ideas with which they lacked confidence in their comprehension.

To deal with the 'avoidance' issue, EAP educators may need to encourage learners to take the challenge of expressing ideas, even when they lack confidence. Further instructions should be given on EAP receptive skills such as identifying a topic and its development (Richards, 1983). More importantly, strategies connecting receptive and productive skills, such as making outlines, may help learners turn what they have comprehended into summaries.

As for wrong information, the participants' summaries generally did not contain much misunderstanding. One significant result was the high occurrence of wrong information in the second task among the high proficiency group. Further investigation of the group's summaries found that they overgeneralized some ideas from the sources or even added their own opinions about the topic discussed in the sources, even though these contents should not have been included in a summary (Hirvela, 2004).

Employability and transferability in EAP and ESP

10th April, 2015: Manchester 10:00 a.m.–5:30 p.m.

Employability is a major focus in almost all government policies all over the world. As a result, all education providers, including vocational and higher education institutions, are expected to ensure that their curricula meets employability skills needs in the industry. However, employability may mean different things in different contexts. In the current global job market, communication skills is considered one of the key employability skills and thus the ability to use English language in employment is a necessity given the global status of the language.

In this context, it is important to explore what role English language proficiency (academic or occupational) plays in employability and how students transfer such proficiency from EAP and ESP to their employment. Addressing this theme of 'Employability and transferability in EAP and ESP', the IATEFL ESP SIG is organizing its next Pre-Conference Event jointly with BALEAP.

The PCE aims to explore some key questions in the field such as: *How important is ESP for new employees, or is more general EFL skills all that employers are looking for? How can universities who need to develop students' EAP help students to transfer their language skills to English for Occupational/Professional Purposes?*

We expect that our PCE theme will bring together a diverse range of researchers and practitioners in professional and academic English to share their views, and practices which are applicable to other EAP and ESP contexts.

Aysen Guven and Prithvi Shrestha

Joint Co-ordinators, IATEFL ESP SIG

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ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

BALEAP
The global forum for EAP professionals

Abstracts

Investigating the world of business office employees: A case study on Vocational ESP

The English language is considered a major qualification for employment purposes globally nowadays. However, with the growing demands of the business world, it is important for candidate employees and, specifically, Vocational school graduates to have competency in the English language skills required by the contemporary labour market, so as to prepare accordingly. Based on this need, the author has examined the English language skills needed for business office employees in the current Greek employment market.

Marianthi Batsila (Directorate of Secondary General and Vocational Education, Ministry of Education, Greece)

Challenges of developing speaking skills in Business English courses at the tertiary level

The presentation will report on challenges Polish teachers face while developing speaking skills during tertiary Business English courses and preparing graduates for entering the labour market. The presentation will also offer some solutions which help bridge a gap between classroom activities and the professional practices of the corporate world.

Agnieszka Dzięiol-Pędich (School of Foreign Languages, University of Białystok, Poland)

Digitising the EAP classroom to develop employability skills

The requirement to prepare learners for today's employment needs has resulted in the decision to introduce more computer-aided language learning (CALL) or networked-based language teaching (NBLT) into the EAP classroom. It is hoped that, alongside the crucial EAP focus, the learners will benefit from developing their digital literacy skills, which will transfer into necessary employability skills.

Zoe Gazeley-Eke (Department of English and Languages, Coventry University, UK)

HE: Preparation for Work?

In this talk, I will present research looking at assignment types at UK universities and the extent to which they have a work-related focus. I will look at quantitative data on assignments types from several UK universities. I will also discuss qualitative data from discussion with lecturers and students on these courses and the value they see in them.

Andy Gillett (UK)

International students and enhancing employability: Bridging the gap with EAP

DUELC and the Careers, Employability and Enterprise Centre have collaborated to produce a number of workshops designed to enhance the ability of international students to navigate the recruitment process in the graduate job market. These sessions draw on our EAP expertise to help students to better access and understand the cultural assumptions and specific language they must master to succeed.

Louise Greener, Clare Carr and Diana Scott (Durham University English Language Centre, Durham, UK)

Positioned as employees: PGT ESAP participant experiences and HE course design

This paper uses interaction sequences from online asynchronous discussions to explore how PGT ESAP participants position themselves and key concepts within HE discourses about employability and transferability. A discourse analysis approach is presented to explore how contested positionings within interactions create potential for change and may enrich the HE learning experience for participants and course designers.

Steven Peters (CELFS, University of Bristol, UK)

Investigating the university–workplace interface: Implications for ESP instruction

The Free University of Bozen/Bolzano is a multilingual university situated in South Tyrol, Italy, where students study subjects taught in German, Italian and English. This talk investigates the English-language needs of a set of companies in South Tyrol and whether our graduates are equipped linguistically for the local workplace after studying in English for three years.

Jemma Prior (Faculty of Economics, Free University of Bozen/Bolzano, Italy)

ESP: Access and workers' rights

This talk will discuss the role of the ESP community in engaging with universities, trade unions and worker education organisations to develop transformational English language programmes that are set within the context of industrial relations and workers' rights. It will present a programme that was delivered in Sierra Leone to address the socio-political needs of the workforce.

Barbara Tully (Northumbria University, UK)

5.4 Synthesizing multiple sources

Item 5 'L+R relation' in Table 3 dealt with the third component of integrated tasks, synthesizing ideas from multiple sources (Figure 4).

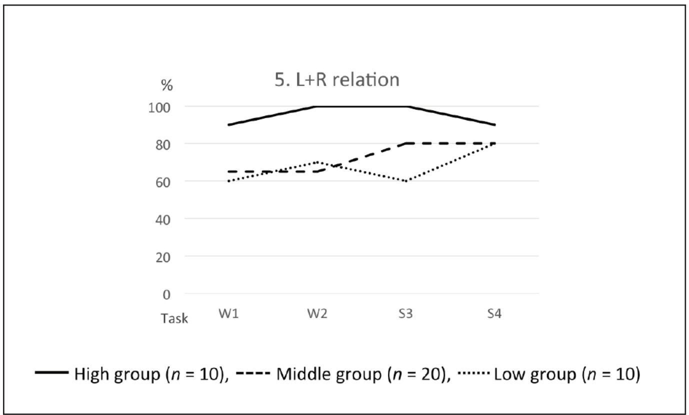

Figure 4: Percentages of summaries synthesizing multiple sources

As shown in Figure 4, while the high proficiency group could successfully synthesize two sources, the middle and low proficiency groups had difficulty in clearly explaining the relationship between the two sources. These groups tended to refer to the sources independently.

This result suggests that 'active' receptive skills necessary for synthesizing multiple sources might have been highly demanding for the participants. Synthesizing information from various sources requires not only comprehending topic development of a single source, but also 'actively' mining the multiple sources to identify their relationship (e.g., cause and effect, or theory and practice). As proposed in Section 5.2, a more focused instruction on ways to outline information from the sources could help learners grasp the relationships between various ideas and better plan what to include in their summaries.

5.5 Transforming the language used in the sources

To investigate whether the participants could transform the language used in the original sources, the summaries were analyzed using Item 6 'Paraphrase' in Table 3 (Figure 5).

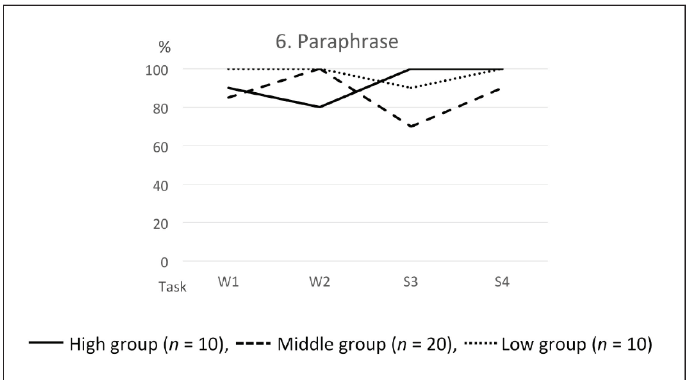

Figure 5: Percentage of summaries using paraphrase

Most summaries successfully paraphrased the original expressions when reporting information from the sources. On average, less than ten per cent of the participants in all proficiency groups copied phrases directly from the sources. Interestingly, it was the middle proficiency group who used least paraphrased expressions among the three groups.

The ability to paraphrase source information in one's own words is one of the essential skills to avoid academic plagiarism (Keck, 2006). During our tasks, the participants did various activities before making a final summary, such as listening, making a summary of the listening, and reading. These activities may have helped learners internalize ideas from the input and thus could have resulted in the frequent use of paraphrased expressions by the high and low groups.

5.6 Organizing ideas

The fifth component of integrated tasks was organizing ideas to make logically consistent summaries. Item 7 'Logical flow' and Item 8 'Discourse markers' in Table 3 were used to assess the participants' performance in organizing ideas (Figure 6).

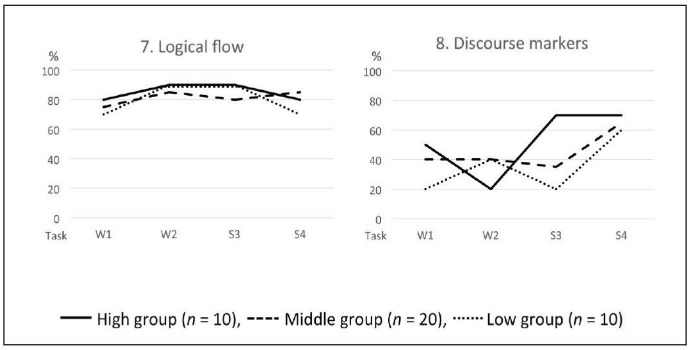

Figure 6: Percentages of summaries with logically consistent structures

The results showed that the summaries of all groups consistently maintained logical flow. However, the participants did not explicitly use discourse markers to direct the audience's attention smoothly from one idea to the next. Less than half of the summaries contained discourse markers, especially in the first two writing tasks.

The above-mentioned results should be carefully discussed. On one hand, less use of discourse markers may mean that the participants failed to take the 'speaker and/or writer responsibility' to develop a well-organized argument in English (Hinds, 1987). On the other hand, it may also imply that the participants could accomplish a high coherence of the summaries with other devices, such as the use of semantic features.

Concerning the fact that the high proficiency group used relatively more discourse markers in the integrated speaking tasks, learners could be advised to use them more explicitly to guide the audience when speaking.

5.7 Using stylistic conventions

Item 9 'Source stated' in Table 3 examined the final component of integrated tasks, the ability to use stylistic conventions, such as connecting ideas and acknowledging sources. This item specifically investigated whether the summaries referred to the sources of information using reporting phrases such as 'the lecturer argues' and 'according to the reading passage'.

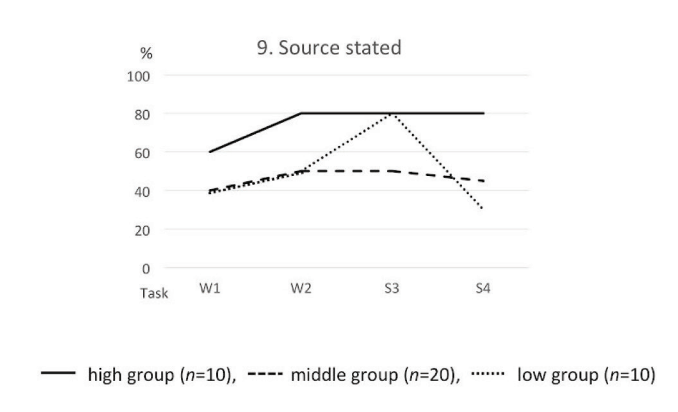

Figure 7: Percentages of summaries following stylistic conventions

As shown in Figure 7, the participants in the middle and low groups, especially, had difficulty in including the sources of information when referring to someone else's idea. One common mistake by such participants was omitting the reporting phrases, like 'the reading passage exemplifies', and stating the idea as if it was their own opinion (e.g., Figure 1). In other cases, the participants referred to the source of information, but failed to change the person of pronoun. For example, 'our research' instead of 'their research,' or 'we' instead of 'they' were used when reporting ideas from the original sources, especially during the speaking tasks.

In an EAP setting, proper acknowledgements of the 'ownership of texts' must be made when developing an argument with support from existing literature without plagiarism (Pennycook, 1996). This 'ownership of texts' may be a new concept for first-year Japanese university students who have no previous experience of academic writing or speaking in high school. Therefore, the concept should be carefully introduced to learners in a university EAP course, with model expressions for acknowledging sources of information.

5.8 Language use

Finally, Item 13 'Confusing expressions' and Item 14 'Grammar/vocabulary misused' in Table 3 evaluated accuracy of language use in the summaries. Similar to Items 10 to 12, the items were described to assess negative aspects of summaries. Consequently, the higher the ratio was, the more problems appeared in summaries.

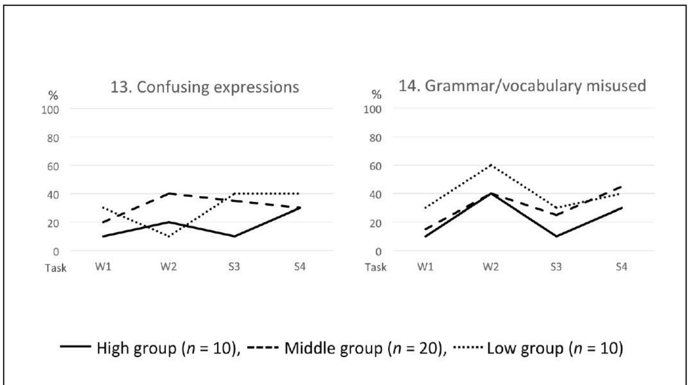

Figure 8: Percentages of summaries with inaccurate language use

As for confusing expressions, the participants in the middle and low groups occasionally produced expressions that were too confusing to be understood. One participant in the low proficiency group made an oral summary of which the discourse markers were not consistent with the actual logical flow. In some other participants' summaries, grammatical errors were so global as to interfere with the successful conveyance of the message. In contrast, there were not many confusing expressions in the high proficiency participants' summaries.

As for grammatical and/or vocabulary errors, the summaries occasionally contained such errors regardless of their proficiency. These errors ranged from pronunciation (e.g., 'conform' for 'confirm,' 'later' for 'latter') to word choice such as 'experiment' for 'expert', which prevented the audience from understanding what the participants intended to explain.

Since the productive skills in our course were concerned with the reconstruction of what was comprehended, we attempted to develop learners' meaning-making skill more than form-making skill. For enhancing form-making skill along with integrated tasks, educators could strengthen learners' vocabulary knowledge with academic word lists such as the AWL by Coxhead (2000).

6 Conclusion

From the case study of an EAP course at a university in Japan, we suggest that integrated tasks such as listen-and-read-to write/speak tasks may develop learners' productive skills. The integrated tasks that we used focused on writing and speaking skills for summarizing information of what learners heard and read. An analysis of their summaries produced at the end of the tasks revealed that most participants succeeded in paraphrasing original expressions and organizing coherent summaries, regardless of their proficiencies. Meanwhile, less proficient participants showed difficulty in selecting ideas from sources or conforming to academic conventions such as acknowledging the sources of ideas.

Based on the results, we can suggest the following two pedagogical implications regarding the implementation of integrated tasks for Japanese university EAP courses. First, among the six components required for integrated tasks, learners may especially need instruction on productive skills to selectively outline information from the input sources. In addition, the importance of EAP conventions, such as 'speaker and/or writer responsibility' and 'ownership of text' should be explicitly introduced to Japanese learners.

For the present paper, we explored the effects of integrated tasks in a classroom-based case study. While the results could reveal tendencies in learners' performance during integrated tasks according to different L2 proficiency levels, future studies will be needed to examine the longitudinal development of learners' productive skills using integrated tasks, and to verify the effects of these tasks using pre/post-tests.

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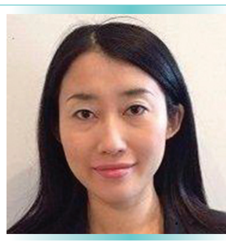
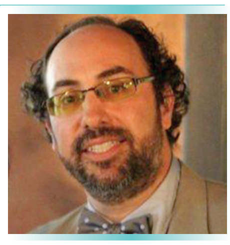
As different as night and day: The ways Japanese adult working learners in an EOP program learn differently from university students





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Abstract

The Ohio State University launched a language training program customized for a Japanese company in May, 2014. This program targets approximately 340 Japanese workers transferred from Japan to Canada, the U.S. and Mexico. Teaching materials are delivered online and we provide digital classrooms so that they could study English wherever they are. In addition to the typical challenge in ESP – matching content with their needs – and the language distance between their L1 Japanese and L2 English, we have many challenges that relate to working adult learners' perceptions of English learning and their learning styles. This article discusses Japanese working adult learners' needs and learner characteristics in comparison with young Japanese undergraduate students without full-time work experience.

Keywords: Japanese undergraduate students, Japanese working adult learners, learning strategies, sentence structure.

1 Introduction

In May 2014, The Ohio State University Combined ESL Programs – in the Department of Teaching and Learning in the College of Education and Human Ecology – launched a new language training program for a large Japanese firm in North America. This program has three objectives – to improve their workplace English, improve their English for everyday communication and improve their Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores. Considering that they are located in 14 plants in the United States, Canada and Mexico, all teaching materials are delivered online, and we provide digital classrooms for live lectures and 1-on-1 interviews. The learners are divided into five proficiency groups based on their TOEIC scores; the advanced and intermediate courses are taught by native English instructors and the introductory levels are taught by a native Japanese instructor. The course contents are developed through needs analyses, interviews with translators, plant observations and other research (see Gishbaugher & Eckhart, 2015, for the details about the program).

Our targeted learners are Japanese employees whose ages range from approximately 30–60. Although the majority are engineers, there is a wide range of their divisions, positions and roles in North America. For example, some learners work in production and quality control, while others work in purchasing and deal with suppliers. The current transfer is their first experience of living and working out of Japan for most of the learners, although there are some people who have lived in North America for more than 10 years or have prior experience working in a different plant in another country. Their L1 is Japanese and they studied English as a foreign language in Japan. More than half of the learners have a bachelor's or master's degree, although many of them graduated many years ago. When they studied English at school, the major teaching method was the grammar-translation method and they seldom had a chance to communicate with others in English. Unfortunately, the majority of learners also report that English was not their favorite subject.

In this article, we first briefly introduce our learners' needs and then describe learners' (a) learning strategies and (b) their understanding of English grammar, especially sentence structures. One of the authors taught an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course in addition to English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for academic purposes (EAP) at a management school at a private Japanese university, where the curriculum targeted young undergraduate students without full-time work experience. Therefore, this article compares Japanese adult learners working full-time with Japanese university students who have not started to work full-time in the industry.

2 Profiles of learners' needs

Learners' perceptions towards learning English and their learning strategies relate to their needs. Although both university students and working adult learners have specific needs for studying English, their needs vary in many ways. In this section, we compare the two learners' groups – Japanese university students without full-time work experiences (henceforth, 'Japanese university students') and working adult learners in our program.

2.1 University students

When Japanese university students start their studies at the university, their perceptions of learning English and their learning styles are strongly affected by their learning styles in high school and entrance examinations. English is an important subject in order to enter a Japanese university. National universities require two kinds of entrance examinations – (1) National Center Test for University Admissions, which approximately 600,000 students take at the same time, and (2) secondary examinations, which are developed and administrated by individual universities. Many highly-ranked universities require high scores from these English exams, and their test format affects English education in high school. However, as it is controversial in Japan, speaking has not been included in entrance examinations. From the practical aspect, it is quite difficult to conduct a speaking assessment every year in order to screen students. Listening was introduced to the National Center Test for University Admissions in 2006, so this skill has become more emphasized than before. Some universities have writing exams, but they are not common yet because they require universities to make immediate judgments following the exam and subjective evaluations should be avoided when making enrollment decisions. Therefore, most university entrance examinations rely heavily on reading tests. Consequently, high school students read English passages in order to answer the questions, not to find information or for pleasure. They are not familiar with methods such as skimming or scanning, which are required for TOEIC and other practical uses. They tend to think that they need to understand every word of every sentence.

Even after gaining admission into a university, students tend to regard English as a tool to graduate from university and to get a job, rather than for communication. In many universities, English has been a compulsory course, regardless of students' majors. In other words, students need to complete a certain number of English credits and pass the exams. Furthermore, companies today often require a TOEIC score for new hires. International internships and studying abroad experiences are also becoming beneficial to get a coveted job. Thus, some students wish to study abroad because it would be beneficial to find a job, but are not so interested in foreign culture and improving their language proficiency. In that case, their objective to study English is to get high scores from TOEIC, and they believe the best way to study English is to repeat practice books.

With the trend toward globalization, content-language integrated learning (CLIL) has become increasingly popular (e.g., Arnó-Macià & Mancho-Barés, 2015). Although there is some variation, the original definition of CLIL is that 'it is a pedagogical approach with a dual focus, involving the integration of language study with the study of a subject domain as aims of instruction' (Greere & Räsänen, 2008). At a university where one of the authors worked, there were several attempts, including having overseas partner schools so that students would study their academic courses in English; welcoming faculty from a foreign university and asking them to teach intensive courses; and having seminars in English. However, there were several difficulties. First, it was always challenging to compromise the balance between content and students' English proficiency. Even if a faculty member gives lectures about their specialties (e.g., marketing), students could not fully understand it nor participate in discussion due to their lack of listening and speaking skills. Second, developing a partnership between a content area faculty member and a language teacher was not always easy. As Wu and Badger (2009) described, language teachers tend to face an in-class subject knowledge dilemma; it is hard for language teachers to understand the content of learners' specialties. In contrast, content lecturers have no language education background. This creates situations in which it was not clear who would do what. Third, young university students have never worked in an industry, so it is not clear what kind of job students will find. The management school to which one of the authors belonged offers five majors: business management, management science, information for management, accounting and policy science. Graduates work in a various fields as bankers, consultants, system engineers, accountants and so on. Considering these factors, it is common to focus on skill-based EGP courses, although the number of Japanese universities offering ESP courses has been increasing.

2.2 Working adult learners

Not many Japanese company-based language training programs have been provided in such a way that they could make good use of the current ESP theory. One exception is Cowling (2007), who conducted a needs analysis and developed a curriculum and syllabus for intensive English language courses. Many companies purchase e-learning courses or widely published textbooks, or have on-site group lessons that target EGP and business English. Through these courses, learners can study business English in general and English for daily life; they can also practise for the TOEIC test. However, such content does not necessarily match learners' specific needs at their workplace.

What makes the largest difference from Japanese university settings is learners' specific needs. Learners in our program are quite busy with their own work. Although English is essential for their work, it is very hard for them to set aside time to study English. Therefore, it is crucial to provide realistic and practical language training. Despite the numerous business English textbooks that have been published, our learners require more specific contexts, such as purchasing and budgets for their products. Furthermore, as most of them are engineers, they also need to study English related to manufacturing, such as troubleshooting equipment and quality issues. Existing ESP textbooks provide comprehensive lists of technical terms, but they fail to include authentic dialogues in which our learners would use such terms. Finally, our university library has many resources, but academic course books do not provide good conversation samples that would benefit our learners.

In order to meet our learners' needs, we developed our curriculum based on program-specific research. Our team participated in a plant tour so that we could understand how the products are made. We also met with translators in order to ask what kind of language breakdowns our learners often face. Furthermore, we conducted semi-structured interviews in order to discover how Japanese workers usually communicate with their partners. These interviews were conducted in Japanese, transcribed and translated into English to enable us to develop our teaching materials. We cannot describe the detailed process of the curriculum development here due to space limitations, but we are confident that what we are providing meets our learners' specific needs at their workplace. Let us emphasize again that this process is different from ESP courses at universities. We do not need a collaboration between a content lecturer and a language teacher, nor CLIL; instead, we learn the most relevant content from our learners.

Our learners' needs are not limited to their workplace English. Since they live in North America, they have to use English when they rent a house or an apartment, see a doctor and dine out. Many people claim that communication outside work is harder for them. Why is English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) easier for them despite its difficult content? There are several reasons. First, both Japanese and American workers know technical terms, which makes communication much smoother. Second, since this company is a Japanese company, local employees also have cultural training. Some local workers speak easy Japanese; moreover, those who are accustomed to Japanese employees adjust their speed and simplify words and sentence structures when they talk with Japanese people. Some learners call this language 'Janglish', which combines Japanese and English.

As a result, English within the company has become different from authentic English outside the workplace. This is why many Japanese learners get confused outside their workplace, where the speaking rate is too fast, vocabulary is too difficult and speakers use many idioms that Japanese people are not familiar with. Therefore, we are also supporting their development of these skills.

3 Learners' learning strategies and their understanding of English grammar

We have engaged in communication with our learners through question-and-answer sessions during live lectures, 1-on-1 interviews and emails. We found that some working adult learners use the same language learning strategies, which are not commonly used among university students. In this section, we introduce two major differences between university students and working adult learners: (1) the extent to which adult learners require Japanese translations and (2) their understanding of English grammar, especially sentence structures.

3.1 Japanese translations

It is relatively easy to change the perceptions of university students towards learning English. Some students require Japanese translations in order to understand English passages, especially in the first year at university; many students believe that English is something always accompanied by test questions. They are not familiar with reading in English for pleasure or watching movies without Japanese subtitles and they do not have a clear vision about giving a presentation in English. However, even if at first they feel uncomfortable not looking up an unfamiliar word in a dictionary, grasping the gist and summarizing what they understand in their own words, many of them tend to accept the learning methods that language teachers recommend once the teachers explain why each method is useful for them.

As we expected, working adult learners do require Japanese translations. Some learners asked how they should translate a section even though our teaching materials never required learners to translate each sentence. It is out of the scope of this article whether translations should be used or excluded completely; indeed, the point here is not that the learner requested the use of Japanese, but that the word groups he requested for Japanese were not meaningful chunks. We have to keep in mind that Japanese learners should not overly rely on Japanese translations.

The failure to grasp meaningful chunks makes it more difficult to understand the meaning of the entire sentence. Humans have constraints in their working memory; if our cognitive resources are dominated by processing, we cannot retain the information (Baddeley, 2000). Verb information helps form chunks, as do learning idioms and formulae. In Japanese, the verb comes at the end of a sentence, resulting in a subject–object–verb (SOV) structure. In contrast, English follows a subject–verb–object (SVO) structure. If Japanese learners try to apply the Japanese sentence structure to English, it will cause cognitive burdens in processing the information. Therefore, Japanese learners need to follow the English sentence structure when processing English as they listen and read. Processing the speech streams in chunks can reduce the cognitive burden. Thus, regardless of whether the learner is a university student or an adult learner, chunking is significant.

3.2 Understanding of English sentence structures

The structural difference between Japanese and English causes learning difficulties for both university students and working adult learners. In addition to the basic difference between Japanese and English sentence structures mentioned in the previous section, the Japanese language allows word scrambling. In addition, subjects and objects are frequently dropped in Japanese sentences. However, if Japanese learners arrange English words randomly by excessively omitting subjects and objects, they cannot make themselves understood. Therefore, our teaching materials sometimes include rearrangement questions (e.g., study/I/like/to/English → I like to study English) in order to familiarize learners with key sentence structures. Japanese university students are familiar with this activity because they experienced it on entrance examinations. If they cannot find the correct answer immediately, they skip the question or simply rearrange the words without thinking deeply.

What surprised our fellow teachers and us was that some learners create a matrix to answer the rearrangement questions. If they understand the basic sentence structure (e.g., SVO), they should be able to find the correct answer. Indeed, we provide models and explicit explanations before they tackle the question. However, since our learners left school many years ago, learners in introductory courses tend to tackle the rearrangement question as a probability question. At first, we were confused why they made a matrix in the language class. They then explained that if there are four words (e.g., *We study English hard*) to rearrange, then there are 24 (i.e., 4 x 3 x 2 x 1) possible patterns. We encouraged our learners to think about the positions of the subject and verb in a sentence, but just because they are engineers who tend to think about things mathematically or because they do not have easy access to model sentences when studying online compared with a book, they started making a matrix and thinking about patterns of position. They understood that this strategy would not guarantee future success in language learning, and that making a matrix requires more time than thinking about English itself. Since English and Japanese have substantially different structures (i.e., SVO in English and SOV in Japanese), one of our challenges is helping our learners understand English sentence structures.

4 Conclusion

In this article, we compared Japanese adult learners working full-time with Japanese university students who have not started to work full-time in the industry, focusing on learners' needs, their learning strategies and understanding of English grammar. We described the different needs between the ESP courses at a Japanese university and our EOP course customized for a leading Japanese firm. Even though the learners share Japanese as their L1, working adult learners have different needs which require the development of new approaches to help them learn. Even though working adult learners share some difficulties with university students, caused by the linguistic difference between L1 and L2, they also have different kinds of difficulty. Thus, we attempted to develop our curriculum by conducting needs analysis and other research. We are developing our EOP course by referring to ESP theories, taking into consideration the differences between Japanese and English linguistic features, and the second language learning strategies of adult language learners who have been out of school for so long. It is important to factor in all these components when designing a customized EOP course, but this is the advantage of creating a unique, firm-specific program.

Acknowledgment

We would like to thank Jackie Gishbaugher for her valuable comments.

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Reports

Report 1

ESP and Learning Technologies: What can we learn?

The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) SIG PCE, Harrogate, UK, 1st April, 2014

This interesting day saw teachers from around the world discussing how to meet the academic and professional linguistic needs of their students, sometimes with limited resources.

The day was opened by the SIG coordinators, Prithvi Shrestha, Open University, UK, and Aysen Guven, Bilkent University, Ankara.

The opening plenary was by Agnes Kulkuska Hulme, The Open University, UK: 'Mobile pedagogy: A contradiction in terms?' Agnes argued that the widespread use of mobile devices has far-reaching consequences for the design of learning materials and supporting learning. There is, therefore, a need to understand good mobile application design features to facilitate learning. She reviewed the growing range of applications that address the needs of learners using English for specific purposes. An interesting point was that students need guidance and retraining in the use of mobile technology for learning, as 'digital natives' still need to learn how to develop their native digital skills and knowledge for use in a new learning situation.

The next talk was by Paschalis Chliaras, IST College, Athens: 'Implementing new technologies as instructional models into ESP classes'. This was a good follow up to Agnes's plenary, as Paschalis used his talk to give examples of a range of new technologies that could be implemented into academic and study skills courses. ESP teachers worldwide now need to put these technologies to use.

This was followed by Eduardo Garby Savigne and Isora Enríquez O'Farrill: 'ESP for all by television: Sharing the Cuban experience'. This was an overview of the Cuban ESP television course 'Communicating Professionally in English'. Eduardo commented on the developments, the design and the outcomes of this course. Particularly interesting was the discussion of his experience of working with Cuban doctors who intend to practise outside Cuba.

Next was Ayşegül Liman Kaban, Gedik University, Istanbul: 'Homemade projects for social sciences students'. Ayşegül shared her concerns as a teacher about designing and accomplishing a dynamic lesson. Teaching integrated language skills through mechanical exercises and traditional fill-in-the-blank, error correction and multiple choice assessments does not interest students, but modern digital media has allowed anyone to become a producer, and people can share their videos on YouTube. One result of this is an explosion of high quality teaching videos. She showed how she had exploited this in her teaching, another example of how EAP teachers can make use of their students' everyday practices.

Nevfel Baytar, Ipek University, opened his talk 'A clash of digital and online dictionaries in ESP classrooms?' by saying that with the advent of digital and online dictionaries in ESP classrooms as a part of language learning, the question as to which one(s) should be preferred in our classrooms has to be addressed with a wary eye. Here there were more interesting ideas about how we can help our students with their specific vocabulary learning needs.

And finally, Kader Dimirci and Ozan Varli, Koç University, Istanbul: 'Talk using Moodle to reinforce EAP vocabulary: A technology-enhanced, social constructivist perspective'. Although there is a wide variety of online tools and resources available to help learners improve their vocabulary, few offer learners tasks which allow full engagement in the learning process, especially in the context of ESP. Kader and Ozan demonstrated how Moodle provides a collection of tools at both receptive and productive levels, and, therefore, promotes interaction and co-construction among learners. They showed how their students had produced a shared glossary for their specific subjects.

The day finished with a panel discussion and group work organised by Prithvi and Aysen.

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Report 2

English for Academic and Specific Purposes Conference

Hosted by the English Department, Karl-Franzens University of Graz, Austria, 8th November, 2014. Sponsored by Oxford University Press & the British Council.

This one-day international conference hosted by the English Department at the University of Graz, Austria, brought together teachers, researchers and educators in EAP. The programme was divided into four plenary talks and two sessions with parallel workshops. The plenary talks were held by Louis Rogers (twice), Julia Warner and Clare Furneaux, while workshop presenters included Marjorie Rosenberg, Petra Kletzenbauer and Ulla Fürstenberg, Pia Resnik and Milena Insam, as well as Rachel Pole, Ursula Potratschnig and Gregor Chudoba.

In his first plenary talk 'How specific should we be?', Rogers discussed one of the central concerns in EAP: the question of whether teachers should aim for specificity or the transferability of skills in their courses. He presented a rather balanced view of the English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) and English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) controversy, but managed to provoke an interesting discussion with the audience in the question-and-answer session. In her workshop, Rosenberg similarly focused on the differences between teaching business and general English, while Kletzenbauer and Fürstenberg called for context-sensitive teaching in EAP.

The second plenary talk by Warner was entitled 'How higher education is becoming internationalised through English as the medium of instruction' (EMI). With EMI lecturers in mind, she touched upon issues of methodology, teaching style, lecturer support and language assessment. Some critical comments from the audience questioned whether EMI was a feasible way forward in English as a foreign/second language settings.

Opening the afternoon sessions, Furneaux talked about 'Developing academic writing skills' in the light of new technologies and media as a chance to attract students' interest in academic writing. Her presentation tied in neatly with the next parallel workshops on learners' and teachers' views on academic writing by Resnik and Insam, as well as on students' interaction with a broader audience through the creation of podcasts. This idea by Pole, Potratschnig and Chudoba was especially interesting, as the presenters described the use of student podcasts for the purpose of fostering learner autonomy and maintaining language learning continuity throughout a study programme.

The whole day was rounded off by Rogers, who gave a closing plenary on 'Authentic materials in reading and listening: Challenges for students and EAP practitioners'. All in all, this was a thought-provoking event that touched upon current trends and controversies in EAP. At the same time, it offered participants the chance to indulge in academic discussion and revisit practical implications of EAP theory.

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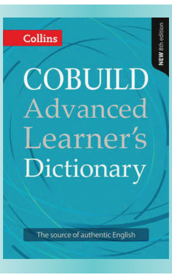
Book Reviews



Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary

John Sinclair
HarperCollins: 2014
ISBN: 978-0-00-758058-3
Reviewed by: Gift Mheta, Writing Centre, Durban University of Technology, South Africa

Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary is a new publication by HarperCollins. It is a corpus-based reference book designed to help high school, college and university students speak and write accurate and up-to-date English. This advanced dictionary is based on the Collins Birmingham University International Language Database (COBUILD), which is an electronic database built in the 1980s by Collins and Birmingham University under the leadership of the outstanding linguist John Sinclair. The COBUILD corpus is the largest collection of English data in the world that provides concrete examples of how people really use words in different contexts. The dictionary therefore draws on various word contexts and is rich in diverse word meanings.

As indicated on the blurb, *the Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary* is intended for upper-intermediate and advanced learners of English who want to study more effectively and prepare for a career. It can also be used by writers, scholars and other professionals who work intensively in English. The dictionary explains words used in today's English in clear and full sentences, and uses authentic examples from the COBUILD corpus. It helps students expand their English vocabulary.

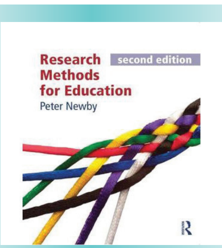
The Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary comprises 1,914 pages. It has a front matter section that informs users about how this dictionary was compiled using the COBUILD corpus. The front matter explains how the headwords are presented and defined in the dictionary. In addition, it provides abbreviations for grammatical terms; furthermore, grammatical terms are explained clearly. In the same section, phonetic symbols are presented, explained and adequately exemplified. This is concluded by brain-teasing activities on varying topics, which help users improve their vocabulary, grammar and logical thinking.

The front matter is followed by an A to Z dictionary section in which headwords are presented in blue. Notably, each headword's morphological composition is illustrated using straight slashes. For example, the word *acknowledge* is presented as *ac|knowl|edge*. Each headword is followed by a phonetic transcription, which helps the reader with accurate pronunciation. This is particularly helpful to ESL students who need guidance for them to be able to pronounce English words correctly. Next to the phonetic transcription is the grammatical category to which the headword belongs. For example, the word *against* is marked *PREP*, an abbreviation for *preposition*. The abbreviation for the word class is followed by a clear and concise definition, which is further illuminated by a concrete example drawn from the COBUILD corpus.

The dictionary has a rich endmatter section that comes after the A to Z section. This section consists of an adequately explained and well-illustrated grammar sub-section, a neatly summarised writer's handbook that assists writers with spelling, grammar and punctuation tips. It goes further to include essential information on business letter formats and curriculum vitaes. In addition, it provides symbols that are very handy for proofreading. The endmatter section also includes a detailed speaker's handbook, which covers a wide range of topics that include greetings, having a conversation, using a telephone, interviewing for a job, how to make effective presentations, agree or disagree, interrupt, clarify, check for understanding, apologise, suggest advice and describe feelings. This is followed by a list of the 3,000 most frequent words in the COBUILD corpus and the most frequent academic words. The dictionary is concluded by a visual thesaurus which focuses on the 50 most overused words in English. The thesaurus gives alternatives to help the reader develop fluency and creativity in the use of English.

The whole dictionary is a marvel to use. I particularly appreciate the inclusion of word web textboxes, which provide detailed definitions for words. Such detailed information is rare in other linguistic dictionaries. It is such detailed information on diverse topics that include biology, geography, agriculture, science and technology that gives this dictionary an edge over other advanced linguistic dictionaries. The different topics covered in this dictionary make it an excellent reference resource for advanced learners in different fields and professions.

Overall, this dictionary achieves its aims and successfully covers the main aspects of the English language. It is structured in a way that makes it usable in all fields. The dictionary contains detailed information that the advanced reader seeking to hone their linguistic skills finds helpful. All words are adequately explained. With the help of this dictionary, a reader can improve their proficiency in English; their oral and written competence will be enhanced. However, students who want to learn the basics of English – in particular, primary school children – need to look elsewhere.



Research Methods for Education (Second Edition)

Peter Newby
Routledge: 2014
ISBN: 978-0273775102
Reviewed by Thengani H. Ngwenya, Centre for Excellence in Learning and Teaching, Durban University of Technology, South Africa.

The second edition of Newby's *Research Methods for Education* is an eminently accessible and practical text on educational research, which is likely to appeal to a variety of students and educational research practitioners in diverse contexts. The book takes the form of a comprehensive and detailed guidebook that will appeal to novice and expert researchers in education. In this revised and significantly improved edition, the author provides the necessary guidance through the complex and challenging journey of researching educational issues. The book is not simply about methods, as its title suggests, but tackles all facets of educational research.

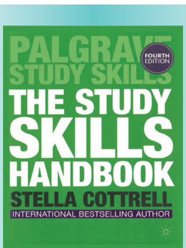
Newby begins by acknowledging that educational research is inherently 'messy' and, therefore, requires a thorough understanding of the underlying approaches, principles and procedures. The book provides an appropriately sequenced outline of the research process that is divided into three parts:

- The Context of Research;
- The Process of Data Collection; and
- The Process of Data Analysis.

Each of the three sections is further divided into thematically-focused chapters, in which the author provides clear and concise explanations of what researchers need to know and do in a variety of contexts. Each chapter concludes with a synoptic overview of the issues tackled, a list of recommended readings and a list of references. Like the first edition, the structure of the book makes it exceptionally user-friendly not only for students, but also for researchers and academics who teach research methodology to undergraduate and postgraduate students. Readers are referred to the *Research Methods in Education* companion website where they can find valuable learning material, including a glossary, exercises, quizzes and further explanatory notes.

What distinguishes this book from similar texts is the author's attentiveness to detail and meticulous explanations of concepts, methods and approaches. All chapters contain relevant illustrations of conceptual and methodological issues which require practical elucidation for students and researchers facing new challenging research contexts or wishing to make use of methods that they may not be familiar with.

Newby's book is arguably the most accessible and user-friendly text dealing with theoretical, conceptual and methodological issues in educational research. Its structure and layout promote self-regulated learning, as the user effectively has access to all the information that may be required in any context of educational research.



The Study Skills Handbook (Fourth Edition)

Stella Cottrell
Palgrave Macmillan: 2013
ISBN: 978 1 137 28925 4
Reviewed by Junia L. Ngoepe, University of Limpopo, South Africa

Study skills needed for Higher Education (HE) are ultimately gained only through studying at that level. These skills evolve and mature through practice, reflection, trial and error, as well as feedback from others as a student moves through different stages of their course. The rationale is that there are many avenues to successful study. Students are at liberty to experiment, explore and be creative. Thus, what suits them best could be found in this handbook.

Reports and dissertations are discussed in terms of structure and content, dealing with the body of the report, conclusion, recommendations and abstracts, as well as layout, presentation and style. A relevant checklist for this section is also provided. Further, revision as well as exam strategies are discussed; this involves a seven-point revision action plan and some evaluation of achievement.

The handbook offers both deeper learning and quick tips approaches. Deeper learning is a reflective, active, self-evaluating approach to learning which is aimed at developing deeper understanding, in the long term. On the other hand, quick tips are also invaluable to students, especially in emergencies. A student can move flexibly between the two approaches to meet his or her immediate and long-term study needs.

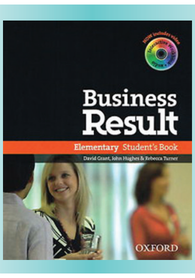
Critical analysis is an essential skill for reading and listening in HE because the critical eye/'ear' is needed in selecting and interpreting information. Students are expected to demonstrate this in their written assignments. In addition, many courses expect a basic understanding of, as well as confidence in, manipulating numbers.

Students need to understand how to work alongside others, to give and receive support and share ideas, while maintaining the academic integrity of their own work because academic work in HE is developed within a learning community. These people skills include being able to give and receive criticism.

Task management skills pertain to written assignments which tend to consist primarily of essays, reports, case studies or exam answers in the earlier years, or dissertations in the final year. Basic academic writing skills have to be combined with an understanding of the relevant writing conventions for such assignments to be completed.

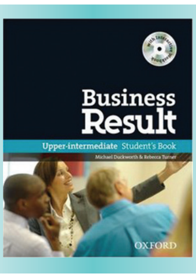
The three appendices in the handbook are ‘Quick multiplier’, ‘Online research tools’ and ‘Further resources on managing and studying as a student’. Students are also provided with ‘Answers to activities’, ‘References’, ‘Index’ and blank pages for notes.

The author illustrates that the academic performance of a student who has had occasion to develop his or her study skills will have developed substantially.



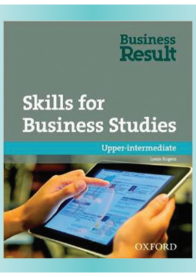
Business Result Elementary Student’s Book

Kate Baade, Michael Duckworth, David Grant, Christopher Holloway, Jane Hudson, John Hughes, Jon Naunton, Jim Scrivener, Rebecca Turner and Penny McLarty
Oxford University Press: 2012
ISBN: 978-0-19-473937-5



Business Result Upper Intermediate Student’s Book

Kate Baade, Michael Duckworth, David Grant, Christopher Holloway, Jane Hudson, John Hughes, Jon Naunton, Jim Scrivener, Rebecca Turner and Penny McLarty
Oxford University Press: 2012
ISBN: 978-0194739405



Skills for Business Studies Upper Intermediate

Louis Rogers and Jon Naunton
Oxford University Press: 2012
ISBN: 978-0-19-473948-1
Reviewed by Andy Gillett

According to the OUP catalogue, *Business Result* is a multi-level course for people who have an immediate need for English in their work. The syllabus provides pick-up-and-use business skills and the Interactive Workbook on CD-ROM offers flexibility and self-study options.

Business Result is a six-level Business English course (Starter, Elementary, Pre-intermediate, Intermediate, Upper-intermediate and Advanced) that claims to help those who need to communicate better in English at work, by teaching a range of business communication skills.

At each level (except where noted), there is a Student’s Book with Interactive Workbook, a *Skills for Business Studies* book (Intermediate, Upper-intermediate, Advanced only), a Teacher’s Book Pack with Teacher Training DVD & Class DVD (Teacher Training DVD not available at Starter level) and Class Audio CDs.

The Interactive Workbook features video clips for every unit, including documentary clips, authentic interviews and dramatised scenarios showcasing business communication skills. It is available on DVD-ROM and online.

The *Skills for Business Studies* companion can be added to the *Business Result* package, and provides academic skills practice for Business Studies students. It is available at Intermediate, Upper-intermediate and Advanced levels.

In addition, there is a wide range of downloadable resources: additional writing and reading materials, vocabulary cards, placement tests and a teacher’s DVD.

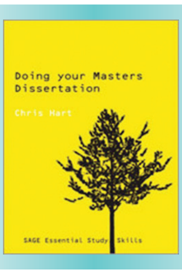
I received *Business Result Elementary* and *Upper Intermediate* Student’s Books, Teacher’s Books & Class CDs, and *Skills for Business Studies: Upper Intermediate*.

Business Result: Elementary and Upper Intermediate are very well thought out and comprehensive course books, aiming to prepare students for the communication skills they need at work by providing a range of pick-up-and-use business skills. *Business Result: Elementary* consists of an introduction and 12 teaching units (77 pages) and deals with a wide range of topics, from jobs to communication, teamwork and travel. This is followed by 12 double-page practice units, a list of irregular verbs and information files to support the activities in the units. The student’s book ends with the audioscripts from the units. Each unit includes an introduction to the unit, a vocabulary section based on reading and listening texts, a grammar section organised traditionally (present simple to present perfect), a practical speaking and business communication section of useful words and phrases, and, finally, a case study and activity. The teacher's book gives information on the course and includes teaching support and answer keys for the tasks. It also includes progress tests, and teacher-training DVD worksheets and answers.

Business Result: Upper Intermediate contains an introduction and 16 teaching units (101 pages). It deals with a similarly wide range of business topics, from motivation and business ethics to outsourcing and staff appraisal. As in the elementary book, this is followed by 16 double-page practice units, a list of useful phrases, and information files to support the activities in the units. The student's book ends with the audioscripts from the units. Each unit is organised in the same way as the elementary text, with an introduction, a vocabulary section based on reading and listening texts, a grammar section organised traditionally (present tense to *~ing* form and infinitive), a practical speaking and business communication section of useful words and phrases, and, finally, a case study and activity. As before, the teacher's book gives information on the course and includes teaching support and answer keys for the tasks. It also includes progress tests, and teacher training DVD worksheets and answers.

This is a well-produced comprehensive series of course books, well supported with teacher guides, workbooks and online resources. The materials provide a very wide range of interesting topics and many interesting activities.

However, it is not always clear what the activities are trying to teach. The course is supposed to prepare learners for the world of work, and it promises to provide pick-up-and-use language and skills. It was difficult to find these. There is a wide range of texts, but it is not clear where they are from or why a business person would want to read them. In this regard, this is not what would normally be called an ESP course. It is a general English course with business content. Similarly, it is not clear how useful it would be for people already in business, who have clear immediate needs. From a teacher's point of view, if this was the only course that students were doing, teachers would need to select very carefully, and supplement the course with more appropriate texts and exercises to help students deal with authentic business texts and the real world of business. OUP obviously want to promote this series to as wide a market as possible, and while there is much of interest to any business person, it will suit some classes better than others. Therefore, overall, this series would be useful for general English students with an interest in business.



Doing your Masters Dissertation

Chris Hart
Sage Publications Ltd: 2005, Reprinted 2009, 2011, 2012
ISBN: 978-0-7619-4217-7
Reviewed by Clare Anderson, Cambridge Arts and Sciences, Cambridge, UK.

This book forms part of the Sage *Essential Study Skills* series and, along with two companion volumes on literature searches (Hart, 2001) and literature review preparation (Hart, 1998), is aimed at postgraduate-level researchers. Although the title of the latest in the series specifies master's level, much of it will be relevant to PhD students, as the author makes clear. Hart, rather than providing 'yet another book on research methods' aims to activate the higher-level skills that lie at the heart of higher degree work, while giving a clear indication of the standards expected and how to maintain them. It is rigour rather than the 'bite-size approach' he is interested in. He bases the book on his own experience, with a particular understanding of the context of new researchers in a young institution.

There are 12 chapters divided into three parts, 473 pages overall, covering preparation, research design and methodology, and writing up. The preparation section includes fundamentals such as 'Managing your transition to Masters' and 'imagining your dissertation', helpful in dealing with issues of confidence and writer's block, as well as the essentials of a higher degree level approach. A summary and further reading is offered at the end of each chapter. There are appendices on the skills, attitudes and qualities relevant to master's level work.

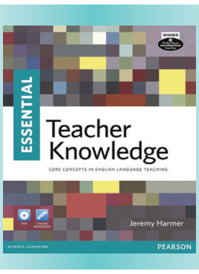
However, the research design and writing-up sections use sociology-based examples, Part Two in particular. Offering this level of detail, the higher-level skills activation aimed for may well be achieved, but I would suggest that an Applied Linguistics student would save time by consulting either a more generic (and shorter) source, or by seeking out examples from their field. The intended audience for this book is evidently the sociologist, and while the author mentions this (Origins of this book) the cover information does not. The companion volumes too are revealed as social science focused (p. 190) where complete titles are given.

By the 2012 reprint, some updating could have been done regarding IT. For example 'floppy disks' (p. 42) and comments such as 'it may be that you have a personal computer' (ibid.) are surely a little out of date? Hart points out the importance of backing up work (p. 46–48); a mention of cloud-based options would be desirable. Similarly, when discussing the importance of note-taking, it would be worth considering whether students do all take paper-based notes in preference to electronic methods. The temptation to cut and paste from online sources when taking digital notes may be an area more relevant to undergraduates.

To sum up, Part One would support a less experienced research student well. An alternative title might be 'Should you tackle a higher degree?' This book is an accessible read, both encouraging in tone and hand-holding in effect.

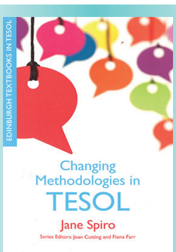
Recent ELT titles with ESP or EAP input

Reviewed by: Mark Krzanowski (University of Westminster; IATEFL ESP SIG Journal Editor-in Chief)



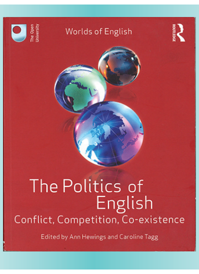
Essential: Teacher Knowledge Book and DVD Pack

Jeremy Harmer
Pearson: 2012
ISBN: 978 1 40826 804 9



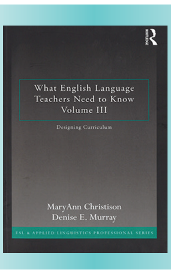
Changing Methodologies in TESOL

Jane Spiro
Edinburgh University Press: 2013
ISBN: 978 0 74864 619 7 (pbk)



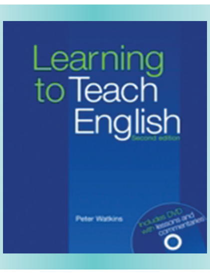
The Politics of English: Conflict, Competition, Co-existence

Anne Hewings and Caroline Tagg (Eds.)
Routledge: 2012
ISBN: 978 0 41567 424 97 (pbk)



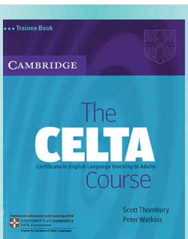
Essential: What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volume III: Designing Curriculum

MaryAnn Christison and Denise E. Murray
Routledge: 2014
ISBN: 978 0 41566 255 0



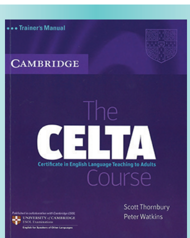
Learning to Teach English (2nd ed)

Peter Watkins
DELTA Publishing/Cengage: 2014
ISBN: 978 1 90508 593 4



The CELTA Course

Scott Thornbury and Peter Watkins
Cambridge University Press: 2008 (3rd printing)
ISBN: 978 0 52169 207 6 Trainer's Manual
ISBN: 978 0 52169 206 9 Trainee Book



Essential: Teacher Knowledge Book and DVD Pack is primarily a General English teacher-training publication. However, it does contain a comprehensive chapter (Unit G) on how to teach Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), which forms part of ESP. The sub-sections (102–110) focus on the subject matter, the language involved, genres, using visual organisers, materials and resources, suggested teaching methodologies, activities, planning and assessment. Current and future CLIL teachers will find this information invaluable.

Changing Methodologies in TESOL contains a very interesting and informative section on 'Multiple Literacies: Professional, Academic and Web Literacies in Methods' (Chapter 8, pp. 171–188). Prominent in this chapter is a case study of 'academic literacies' for learners who need to make a transition between two different academic cultures. The authors offer some insightful ideas on the use of academic phrasebanks and corpora of academic writing. The sub-section on 'teaching for web literacies' will be of interest to tutors and lecturers who wish to help their students in the journey on the 'digital immigrant–digital native' continuum.

The Politics of English: Conflict, Competition, Co-existence in turn discusses the role of English in higher education and for academic purposes in Chapter 3 (pp. 109–119). The authors make some revealing comments about the demands posed on academics teaching at English-medium 'foreign' universities and on international non-native speaker (NNS) researchers being expected to write their articles in English. Through awareness-raising activities, the authors draw the readers' attention to important features of 'academic' English and who might benefit from being taught EAP.

Essential: What English Language Teachers Need to Know Volume III: Designing Curriculum is a very welcome addition to the well-established two-volume series which has become a staple teacher-training resource for teachers of General English.

In Volume III, the authors make an attempt to cover certain aspects of EAP: Chapter 10 (pp. 109–122) concentrates on 'Academic Language' while Chapter 11 makes a brief mention of English for Specific Purposes (p. 125). The former provides sufficient introductory digest of EAP issues to a General English teacher and is likely to get them interested in exploring EAP further. The latter seems somewhat brief, and it would benefit from a more comprehensive coverage, given that the 21st-century realities inevitably lead many GE teachers onto an ESP path at some point in their career.

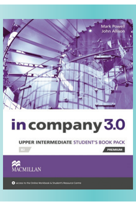
Learning to Teach English (2nd ed) appears to be a much-enhanced offering compared to its 1st edition, which focused almost exclusively on teaching General English. Teachers of GE will welcome in particular the content of Chapter 15 (Teaching in different contexts; pp. 108–117) which offers succinct yet ample brief introductory advice on how to prepare for teaching, inter alia: EAP, business English, one-to-one, young learners and ESOL. This input will be appreciated by most GE teachers wishing to make a gradual transition into EAP or ESP.

Finally, yet importantly, while the Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (*The CELTA Course*), essentially aims at the initial training of teachers of English for general purposes, it does contain a chapter on English for Specific Purposes (Chapter 22, pp. 97–100; Trainee's Book). At this stage of the book, the authors make their trainees aware of how ESP differs from GE, and the role of needs analysis, text analysis and materials. It seems appropriate to have such an inclusion in a GE teacher-training book, since trainees need to be cognisant of what GE can evolve into in one's continuous professional development.

All the titles mentioned above are particularly useful for teachers, tutors, lecturers and students who have embarked on an ELT career and who wish to make a gradual transition into ESP and/or EAP.

in company 3.0 Intermediate Student's Book Pack (B1+ level)

Mark Powell
Macmillan: 2014
ISBN: 978 0 230 45523 8



in company 3.0 Upper Intermediate Student's Book Pack (B2 level)

John Allison & Mark Powell
Macmillan: 2014
ISBN: 978 0 230 45535 1
Reviewed by Desmond Carolan

The *in company 3.0 Intermediate* and *Upper Intermediate* Student Book Pack are part of the new five-level edition of Macmillan's flagship business course. This third (2014) edition has been completely updated and expanded.

The most salient feature of *in company 3.0* is its use of what is generally known as *blended learning*. This type of learning occurs when part of a formal course (instruction and content) is delivered by digital and online media. It is a type of learning that adds to student autonomy as it gives students a degree of control over the time and pace of learning. Online learning activities are not new to English language teaching and many courses have them. However, they tend to be add-ons or supplementary material to textbook-based courses. What is different with *in-company 3.0* is that online learning is an essential and integral part of the course.

Students can gain access to online components of the course by using the code in their *in company 3.0* Student Books to set up an account that will allow them log on to the *in company 3.0* website. Once they are logged in, they will have access to a comprehensive online workbook with range of grammar, reading, vocabulary, writing and listening exercises based around each unit in the Student Book. They can also access and download all course video and listening material to watch or listen to on their laptops, tablets or smartphones. Students can also access word lists, phrase banks and glossaries based on units in the student textbook.

Teachers too have access to their own *in company 3.0* resources. The most helpful one, in my view, is the Gradebook facility. Once this is set up, teachers can monitor their classes' progress with the workbook exercises. Gradebook also enables teachers to identify student problems quickly and take remedial action if necessary. Teachers will also find the downloadable case studies and photocopiable worksheets useful for classroom-based tasks.

Both *in company 3.0* intermediate and upper-intermediate student texts are organized into business communication units, each one of which focuses on a contemporary aspect of business. In this context, students are given the opportunity to practise and develop their speaking, listening, reading and writing skills in what are generally very engaging and well-designed tasks. One of the new features of *in company 3.0* is the introduction of realistic case studies involving not only language skills, but also problem-solving and people skills (Business Scenarios) that students will find both challenging and stimulating. In fact, I used two of these scenarios (one on coaching and giving feedback, and the other on pitching and persuading) from the upper-intermediate student text with a group of German sales managers. They clearly enjoyed both scenarios which gave them an opportunity to generate and to use a wide range of language in contexts that they were familiar with from their work. They drew upon their existing professional skills to engage with and occasionally critique some aspects of the case studies which they found somewhat unrealistic. This should not distract from the fact that, overall, they found the case studies intellectually stimulating, as well as being effective vehicles for developing language skills. I was also somewhat (happily) surprised by the amount of vocabulary generated during the case studies. Given the 'lexical' nature of the texts being reviewed, this might have been expected.

Both the *in company 3.0* intermediate and upper-intermediate student texts have a clear emphasis on lexis development. Mark Powell wrote the intermediate text and co-authored (with John Allison) the upper-intermediate text. He is also the author of *Business Matters: The Business Course with a Lexical Approach* which was first published in 1996. This was the first attempt to base a Business English course on this approach.

In brief, the lexical approach is based on the idea that language is essentially its lexicon. According to Michael Lewis (1997, p. 34) 'Language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar'. Much of this consists of prefabricated items or chunks of language. To achieve fluency in any language, we need to learn a large number of these. One clear implication of this for teachers is that more time should be spent on learning lexical chunks than grammar rules. Both intermediate and upper-intermediate *in company 3.0* student texts allocate considerably more space to lexis than they do to grammar.

The lexical approach also tends to see successful communication as being more important than grammatical accuracy. I would think that for most business professionals too, language accuracy is probably not as important as being able to communicate successfully.

In conclusion, Macmillan's *in company 3.0* at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels provide business professionals with the English language skills they need to succeed in the international business world. From my experience using *in company 3.0* with executive groups along with overwhelmingly positive feedback I received from them, I would have no hesitation in recommending *in company 3.0* for either executive group classes or one-to-one classes. In my view, it is the best Business English course on the market now and also the one that gives most value for its price when you take into account web access to all the blended learning resources.

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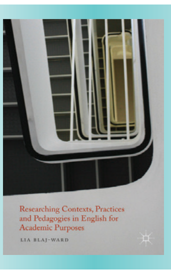
Powell, M, (1996). *Business Matters: The Business Course with a Lexical Approach*. Hove: Language Teaching Publications



Researching Contexts, Practices and Pedagogies in English for Academic Purposes

Lia Blaj-Ward
Palgrave Macmillan: 2014
ISBN 978-1-137-33186-1
Reviewed by Andy Gillett

According to Amy Tsui (2009), drawing on work by Bereiter & Scardamalia (1993), if, as language teaching practitioners, we do not engage in research or scholarly activity, then we cannot be considered to be experts, we just continue to be experienced non-experts. English for Specific Purposes practitioners, therefore, need to engage in scholarly activity. *Researching Contexts, Practices and Pedagogies in English for Academic Purposes* helps us to do this. It uses recent knowledge and research into ES/AP, as well as current professional thinking in order to encourage further research and scholarly activity in EAP. The publication offers tools for practitioners and decision makers to explore answers to EAP questions and draw conclusions informed by reliable research evidence.

The book is organised very much in the same way as Tight (2003). It consists of an introduction, five main chapters and a conclusion. The introduction summarises thinking about current practice and research into EAP and gives an overview of the content of the book. The chapter finishes with a very useful annotated bibliography of general research methodology texts that the book builds on. In order to exemplify the issues discussed in the book, it makes use of vignettes of three categories of fictional EAP researchers. The individual chapters of the book draw together existing research and accompany this with guidance given to the fictional researchers. All chapters finish with suggestions for further investigation.

Chapter 2 opens the main body of the book by looking at the wider educational context in which EAP takes place, without which useful EAP teaching or research cannot take place. The two main aspects discussed in this chapter are academic writing and assessment, especially with regard to the use of technology.

Chapters 3, 4 and 5 focus on providing for learning and teaching in pre-sessional and in-sessional EAP contexts. Chapter 3 examines research into course design, making use of target situation needs analysis and Chapter 4 puts learners back at the centre of the learning process by examining research that focuses on the learners themselves and present situation analysis. Chapter 5 continues this focus on the provision by focusing on the role of the lecturer/teacher in the EAP process.

Chapter 6, then, looks at quality in EAP and the evaluation of EAP programmes. Finally, in the last chapter, Blaj-Ward considers the range of data used in EAP research and the dissemination of research findings.

The book contains a comprehensive overview of research into EAP and a wide range of suggestions as to how EAP practitioners can carry out their own research. It will, therefore, certainly be of interest to any EAP teacher who wants to maintain their expert status.

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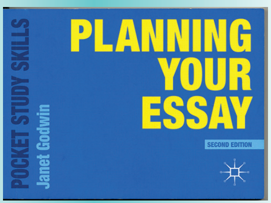
Tsui, A. B. M. (2009). Distinctive qualities of expert teachers. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice*, *15*, 421–439.

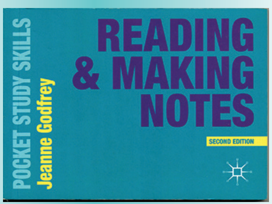
Pocket Study Skills: Posters and presentations

Emily Bethell and Clare Milson
Palgrave Macmillan: 2014
ISBN: 978-1-137-35708-3



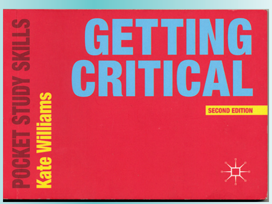
Pocket Study Skills: Planning your essay (Second edition)

Janet Godwin
Palgrave Macmillan, 2014



Pocket Study Skills: Reading and making notes (Second edition)

Pocket Study Skills: Reading and making notes (Second edition)
Jeanne Godfrey
Palgrave Macmillan : 2014
ISBN: 978-1-137-40258-5



Pocket Study Skills: Getting critical (Second edition)

Kate William
Palgrave Macmillan: 2014
ISBN: 978-1-137-40251-6
Reviewed by Marcos Koffi N'Goran, Ministry of Vocational Training, Ivory Coast – President of CIATEFL (Cote D'Ivoire Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language)

Palgrave Macmillan's new *Pocket Study Skills* series is another masterpiece. According to the introductory pages, *Pocket Study Skills* packs a lot of advice into little books for 'time pushed students'. Each focuses on a single crucial aspect of study and provides learners with step-by-step guidance, handy tips and clear advice on how to tackle important areas which will continually be at the core of their studies. Books in this series include *Days to Exam Success; Blogs, Wikis, Podcasts and More; Brilliant Writing Tips for Students; Completing your PhD; Doing Research; Getting Critical (2nd ed); Planning Your PhD; Reading and Making Notes (2nd ed); Referencing and Understanding Plagiarism; Reflective Writing; Science Study Skills; Studying with Dyslexia; Success in Groupwork; Time Management; Writing for University; and Posters and Presentations.*

Each of the four books reviewed here addresses key points of academic study. With communicative illustrations and activities based on authentic material, the books look at issues such as 'Posters and presentations', 'Reading and making notes', 'Essay planning' and 'Getting critical'.

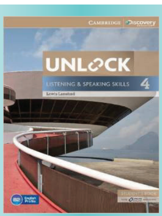
Posters and presentations is mapped into four interrelated parts, and according to the authors, it aims to give students from all backgrounds the tools to communicate their ideas creatively and visually to achieve best results. For this reason, they gradually drive readers through the four key stages (thinking, planning, doing and reflecting) for effective posters and presentations. The book's 'looking ahead' part is another interesting feature; it gives students useful tips on how to apply the acquired skills to higher education context, conferences and the workplace. The writers conclude with an appendix comprising useful sources for further reflection on the theme covered.

As for *Reading and making notes* (2nd Edition), it is composed of seven parts and designed to facilitate students' understanding of essential points related to 'reading and making notes' activities at university. The book may be more appropriate for a 'fresher' as it provides students with real university marking criteria, assignments, reading list and texts, examples of pitfalls to avoid when using notes in an assignment, and much more. I appreciate the pieces of advice to protect students from the preconceived ideas (10 myths about reading and making notes at university); these tips create a stress-free atmosphere for learners accustomed to school and college environment.

Planning your essay' (2nd edition) highlights, according to the back cover, practical guidance on what tutors are looking for, and how to achieve this through essay planning. The book is suitable for beginners as well as advanced students to refresh their essay writing skills. While each of the 13 chapters can be used independently, the author genuinely links them by referring the readers to other chapters for additional information. Furthermore, she discloses tips on how to be critical in one's writing (Ch. 10), and how to reference, use appendices and take advantage of ones tutor's feedback (Ch. 11).

With reference to the back cover, Getting critical aims to unveil what 'being critical' means and how to achieve that 'critical approach for a higher grade'. It is ideal for students starting their studies at university and anyone willing to deepen their knowledge of 'getting critical'. The book is composed of four parts, each addressing a specific area of how to 'get critical'. Right from the introductory pages, the author used four scenarios to give a comprehensive insight into what 'getting critical' is before taking readers into 'deeper waters'. Part 1, for example, tackles 'getting a critical mindset'; Part 2 refers to 'getting critical in research and reading'; Part 3 addresses 'getting critical in writing' and Part 4 takes a look at 'critical steps'. One important aspect is the coherence in the way that the author conveys her message throughout the book; in Part 1, for example, she prepares students before they 'dive into a course' and closes the book with steps to develop and use the skills of analyses for readers to bear in mind the core message(s): what critical thinking is, and how to develop and use it effectively in all kind of situations (Part 4).

All in all, these inspiring and comprehensive books are attractively presented and user-friendly. They achieve their aims of guiding and counselling students on 'how to approach the important areas which will be at the core of their studies'. And though the books are mainly designed to prepare students for university life, they can be an informed source for advanced learners and English language teachers from countries of speakers of other languages. These books are certainly worth students' and tutors' investment.



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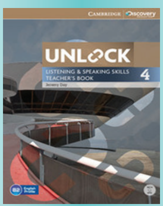

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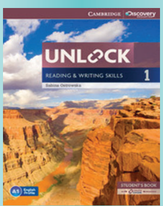

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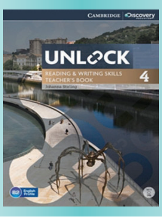

UNLOCK: Reading and Writing Skills (4) (Teacher's Book)

Johanna Sterling
Cambridge University Press: 2014
ISBN: 978 1 107 61409 3
Reviewed by: Mark Krzanowski, University of Westminster London

The *UNLOCK* series is a new publication from CUP. The series follow a semi-discrete skills approach, whereby listening and speaking are combined in one book while reading and writing are paired in the other book. However, the two books are still 'integrated' in the sense that a theme which constitutes the contents of each chapter is in fact the same in both books. For example, Chapter 1 in both books is devoted to 'Globalisation', and this theme is a basis of relevant activities in both books.

On closer inspection, it becomes apparent that the series would be best used on pre-sessional and in-sessional or Foundation EAP courses catering for groups of students in a multi-disciplinary university. There is no subject-specific focus here, as the assumption here is that the lowest common denominator for the learners would be progression onto, or already attending, an academic university course. As such, the series falls into the umbrella term of English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP).

The range of topics included in the publication includes globalization, education, medicine, risk, manufacturing, environment, architecture, energy, art and design, and ageing. It is reassuring to see that Unit 9 covers 'Art and design', since most EAP books focus exclusively on text-based disciplines while paying insufficient attention to the needs of students from non-text-based disciplines.

Here is a simple brief analysis of how a single unit is approached. Unit 7 deals with 'Architecture'. The learners are provided with two listening passages, and each listening passage is exploited twice through varied exercises. While grammar is not taught explicitly in most EAP books, there is a language development section in this unit (and in all other units). An academic perspective is brought out by inclusion of an entry on critical thinking. The unit culminates in a relevant fluency-oriented speaking task. The unit closes with a summary of important vocabulary learned in all the exercises and tasks. The corresponding Unit 9 in the reading and writing book presents learners with a relevant reading task which is exploited through pre-, whilst- and post-reading activities. The language development section concentrates on grammar and academic word families (via a word formation exercise). Like in the listening and speaking book, there is an entry on critical thinking, too. Finally, the learners are required to write a persuasive essay. The unit ends with a review of the vocabulary from the unit. Both books are accompanied by DVDs, and each DVD contains mp4 recordings to support the content of each individual chapter.

Both books are accompanied by very comprehensive teacher's books. These books contain instructions for execution of the units in the books and, most importantly, ample methodological and pedagogic advice for teachers. With such extensive teacher support, even novice EAP tutors will be able to understand the rationale of the publication and deliver the content successfully. The review has focused on Level 4 (CEFR level: B2), but the entire series covers also Levels 1 (CEFR: A1), 2 (CEFR: A2) and 3 (CEFR B1).

In summary, the new CUP series is an excellent new addition to global EGAP resources, and can be recommended for any university or college catering for international students planning to embark on an English course delivered through the medium of English. This multi-level series can be judiciously used to cater for groups of learners of different levels of linguistic ability.

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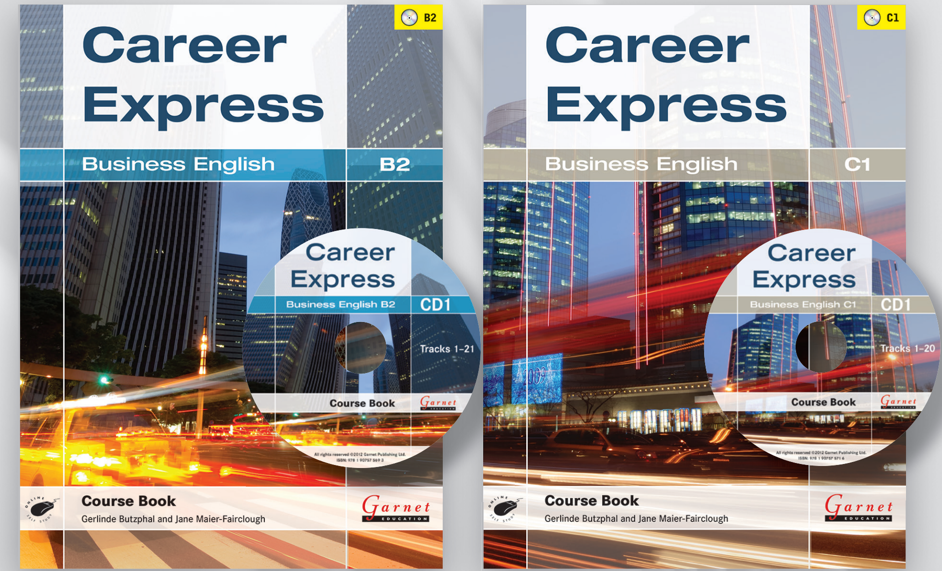

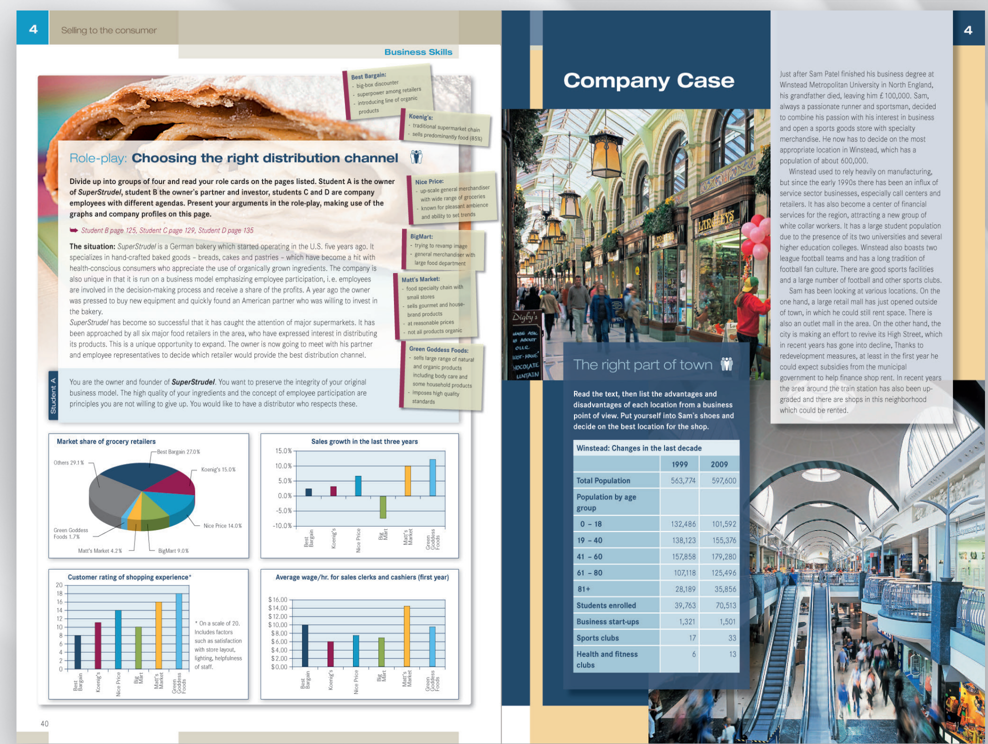

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English for Academic Study: Grammar for Writing

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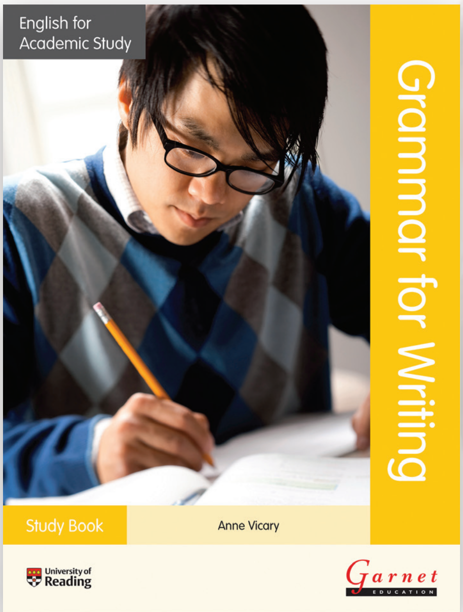
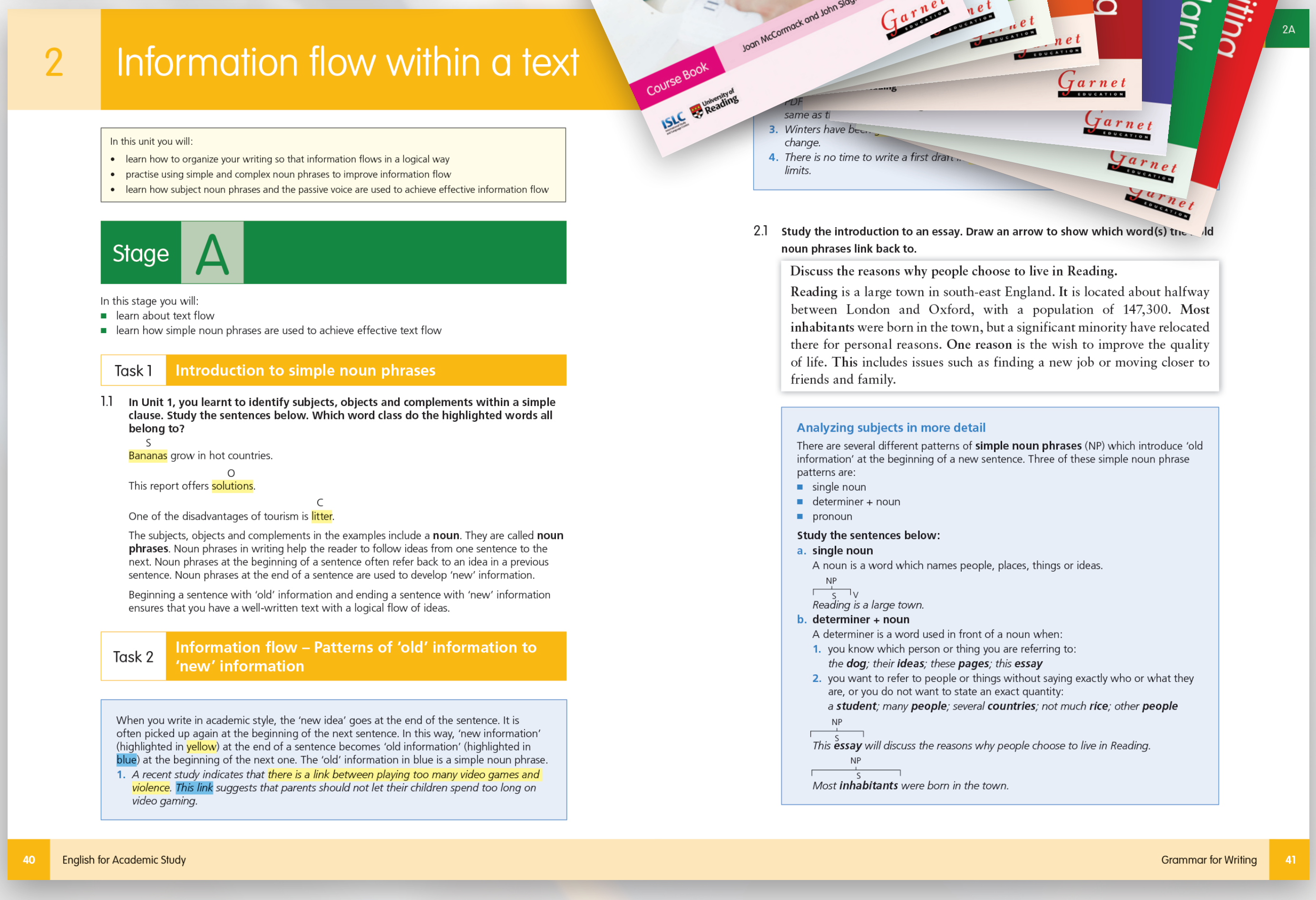


English for Academic Study: Grammar for Writing is primarily a graded self-study course, but could also be used effectively in the classroom. It will build students' confidence in understanding and using grammar for written assignments, so they can write accurate English and communicate more effectively in academic contexts.



2 Information flow within a text

In this unit you will:
- learn how to organize your writing so that information flows in a logical way
- practise using simple and complex noun phrases to improve information flow
- learn how subject noun phrases and the passive voice are used to achieve effective information flow

Stage A

In this stage you will:
- learn about text flow
- learn how simple noun phrases are used to achieve effective text flow

Task 1 Introduction to simple noun phrases

1.1 **In Unit 1, you learnt to identify subjects, objects and complements within a simple clause. Study the sentences below. Which word class do the highlighted words all belong to?**

Bananas grow in hot countries.

This report offers solutions.

One of the disadvantages of tourism is litter.

The subjects, objects and complements in the examples include a **noun**. They are called **noun phrases**. Noun phrases in writing help the reader to follow ideas from one sentence to the next. Noun phrases at the beginning of a sentence often refer back to an idea in a previous sentence. Noun phrases at the end of a sentence are used to develop 'new' information.

Beginning a sentence with 'old' information and ending a sentence with 'new' information ensures that you have a well-written text with a logical flow of ideas.

Task 2 Information flow – Patterns of 'old' information to 'new' information

When you write in academic style, the 'new idea' goes at the end of the sentence. It is often picked up again at the beginning of the next sentence. In this way, 'new information' (highlighted in yellow) at the end of a sentence becomes 'old information' (highlighted in blue) at the beginning of the next one. The 'old' information in blue is a simple noun phrase.

1. *A recent study indicates that there is a link between playing too many video games and violence. This link suggests that parents should not let their children spend too long on video gaming.*

2A

3. *Winters have bee... change.*
4. *There is no time to write a first dra... limits.*

2.1 **Study the introduction to an essay. Draw an arrow to show which word(s) th... noun phrases link back to.**

Discuss the reasons why people choose to live in Reading.

Reading is a large town in south-east England. **It** is located about halfway between London and Oxford, with a population of 147,300. **Most inhabitants** were born in the town, but a significant minority have relocated there for personal reasons. **One reason** is the wish to improve the quality of life. **This** includes issues such as finding a new job or moving closer to friends and family.

Analyzing subjects in more detail

There are several different patterns of **simple noun phrases** (NP) which introduce 'old information' at the beginning of a new sentence. Three of these simple noun phrase patterns are:
- single noun
- determiner + noun
- pronoun

Study the sentences below:

a. **single noun**
A noun is a word which names people, places, things or ideas.
Reading is a large town.

b. **determiner + noun**
A determiner is a word used in front of a noun when:
1. you know which person or thing you are referring to:
*the **dog**; their **ideas**; these **pages**; this **essay***
2. you want to refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are, or you do not want to state an exact quantity:
*a **student**; many **people**; several **countries**; not much **rice**; other **people***

*This **essay** will discuss the reasons why people choose to live in Reading.*

*Most **inhabitants** were born in the town.*

40 English for Academic Study | Grammar for Writing 41

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