

EDITORIAL

Maritime English (ME) is a division of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and an umbrella term that encompasses five subvarieties: English for Navigation and Maritime Communications or Nautical English, English for Maritime Commerce, English for Maritime Law, English for Marine Engineering, and English for Shipbuilding (Bocanegra-Valle 2013).

Just like any other language for specific purposes it is meant to be appropriate for the discipline it serves, in this case the speakers within the maritime community, including shore-based parties (Trenkner, 2000). What makes ME different from the majority of other ESPs, is the world of international conventions and regulations that it is an integrated part of. The product of ME teaching is prescribed by the STCW Convention (IMO, 2010) while the recommended process of teaching is described in detail in Model Course 3.17 for Maritime English (IMO, 2015).

This issue of *Scripta Manent* brings two papers that focus on a subvariety of ME that has to a large extent been under-researched so far, and this is English for Marine Engineering.

In the first article, *Collocations in Marine Engineering English*, Mirjana Borucinsky and Jana Kegalj determined the most relevant collocations in a corpus of business e-mails, written by Chief Engineers to the technical office or to the shipping company. Based on the findings, the article suggests which collocations to focus on and how to implement them in the language classroom for marine engineers to improve their collocational competence.

In *Standardising Maritime English Training and Assessment through International Coordination of Content-based Instruction*, Annamaria Gabrielli highlights the need for the standardization of assessment of ME and suggests that content-based learning might be a potential step to make in order to coordinate ME assessment and training at maritime education and training institutions across the globe.

Finally, after the adoption of the Manila Amendments to the STCW Convention in 2010, several model courses have been revised, including Model Course 3.17 for Maritime English. In her review of this model course, Jurkovič provides a comprehensive analysis of its structure, numerous strengths, and some points for potential improvement.

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Editor

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COLLOCATIONS IN MARINE ENGINEERING ENGLISH

Abstract

Collocations are very frequent in the English language (Hill, 2000), and they are probably the most common and most representative of English multi-word expressions (Lewis, 2000). Furthermore, as a subset of formulaic sequences, collocations are considered to be a central aspect of communicative competence (Nation, 2001). Hence, the importance of teaching collocations in General English (GE) as well as in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is undeniable. Understanding and determining the relevant collocations and their mastery are of “utmost importance to a ME instructor” (Cole et al., 2007, p. 137), and collocations are one of the most productive ways of enriching vocabulary and terminology in modern ME.

Vişan & Georgescu (2011) have undertaken a relevant study on collocations and “collocational competence” on board ships, including mostly nautical terminology. However, no substantial work on collocations in Marine Engineering English as a sub-register of ME has been carried out. Hence, this paper tries to determine the most important collocations in Marine Engineering English, based on a small corpus of collected e-mails. After determining the most relevant collocations, we suggest how to implement these in the language classroom and how to improve the collocational competence of marine engineering students.

Keywords: collocations, collocational competence, Marine Engineering English, corpus-based study

1. Introduction

Collocations are specific multi-word units (or multi-word expressions) that have received “only marginal attention in most mainstream linguistic paradigms” (Bartsch, 2004, p. 40). Due to their idiosyncratic nature, they had been of little interest to theories of the language system. However, it seems that more recently, and especially as a result of their diversity and idiosyncratic nature, collocations are becoming a much debated topic in theories that study language usage, in applied linguistics (lexical and translation studies), and language teaching studies.

Hill (2000) has shown that collocations are very frequent in the English language, and they are, according to Lewis (2000), probably the most common and most representative of English multi-word expressions. In recent theories, collocations, as a subset of formulaic sequences, are considered to be a central aspect of communicative competence (Nation, 2001) while the importance of teaching collocations in General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has also been recognized (e.g., Channel, 1981; Gledhill, 2000).

Cole et al. (2007) argue that a competent instructor of Maritime English (ME) has to possess knowledge of the linguistic features of the English language appropriate to maritime discourse and communication. Among these features are collocations, especially of the verb + object noun type, which are, according to the authors, one of the most productive ways of enriching vocabulary and terminology in modern ME. Hence, understanding and determining the relevant collocations and their mastery are of “utmost importance to a ME instructor” (Cole et al., 2007, p. 137).

Vişan & Georgescu (2011) have undertaken a relevant study of collocations and “collocational competence”¹ on board ships, including mainly nautical terminology. However, no substantial work on collocations in Marine Engineering English, as a sub-register of ME, has been carried out. Hence, this paper tries to determine the most important (verb + noun, adjective + noun, noun + noun²) collocations for Marine Engineering correspondence, based on a small corpus of collected e-mails.

After determining the most relevant collocations, we suggest classroom activities which will help students understand and master those collocations which are important for written communication in Marine Engineering.

2. Theoretical background

Defining collocations has proven to be a challenging task for linguists, as there exist as many definitions as there are many theories or approaches. Thus, we can analyse and define collocations from the linguistic (or more specifically from the morpho-syntactic, semantic,

¹ The term “collocational competence” was coined by Hill (1999).

² The original version of the manuscript included noun + noun collocations as well. However, in the process of reviewing the manuscript, we have noticed that distinguishing between collocations on the one hand and nominal compounds and free syntactic combinations on the other is very complex and exceeds the scope of the present paper, but most certainly merits further investigation.

lexical, cognitive, lexicographic) point of view, from the statistical point of view, and the perspective of natural language processing.

Within the linguistic paradigm there are two main approaches to understanding collocations, which can be loosely termed as the *German* and the *British* approach. The most prominent representative of the former is Hausmann (1985), whereas the advocates of the latter are Firth (1957), Halliday (1961), and Sinclair (1991), among others. The latter approach arises within British contextualism, a term reflecting the context-dependent nature of language. Firth (1957) classified collocations as general or usual collocations, and more restricted technical or personal collocations. According to Lehr (1996), Firth's (1957) understanding of collocation is rather broad and implies any co-occurrence of lexical units at syntagmatic level. Firth's notion of collocations has been further elaborated by his successors, the so called Neo-Firthians (e.g., Halliday, Sinclair). Halliday (1961, p. 276) distinguishes between a grammatical and lexical level of collocations and defines collocation as

"the syntagmatic association of lexical items, quantifiable, textually, as the probability that there will occur at n removes (a distance of n lexical items) from an item x, the items a, b, c ... Any given item thus enters into a range of collocation, the items with which it is collocated being ranged from more to less probable."

The development of corpus linguistics and corpus linguistics tools, which enabled linguists to analyse vast amounts of information, had a great impact on the research of collocations. Hence, findings and conclusions were primarily based on the frequency of co-occurrence and statistical analysis. The greatest disadvantage of this approach is that every frequent co-occurrence can be considered a collocation and this does not necessarily take into account some typical collocations.

In addition to frequency of co-occurrence (or recurrence of word combinations), definitions of collocations are commonly built around the following criteria: multilexicality, idiomaticity, constrained lexical selection, semantic transparency or opacity, syntactic relations between constituents, arbitrariness, fixedness, stability, and lexicalized reproduction and storage in the mental lexicon.

Attempts to generate definitions of collocations have been made by several linguists, for instance Clear (1993), and Hunston (2002). However, a very interesting view is offered by Lewis & Hill (1998) who see collocations as predictable combinations of words. Their predictability is one of the key features that help us identify word combinations as collocations. Nation (2001) outlines ten different scalar criteria for identifying collocations. These are: frequency of co-occurrence, adjacency, grammatical connectedness, grammatical structure, grammatical uniqueness, grammatical fossilization, collocational specialization, lexical fossilization, semantic opaqueness, and uniqueness of meaning.

As can be seen from this brief review, there is much debate in linguistics on what collocations are and how to distinguish them from free combinations, compounds, idioms, and other multi-word units. As Schmitt & Carter (2004) point out, formulaic sequences or multi-word lexical units seem to exist in so many forms that it is difficult to develop a comprehensive definition of the phenomenon. It is this lack of clear definition that still remains one of the foremost problems in the area.

A simple definition of the concept of collocation is offered by Henriksen (2013, p. 29):

“Collocations are frequently recurring two-to-three word syntagmatic units which can include both lexical and grammatical words, e.g., verb + noun (*pay tribute*), adjective + noun (*hot spice*), preposition + noun (*on guard*) and adjective + preposition (*immune to*)”.

In addition, it can be said that collocations are a type of formulaic sequences, and some are grammatical³, while others are lexical (Gyllstad, 2007). They may differ in the degree of fixedness, transparency, and arbitrariness. Henriksen (2013, p. 33) states that we can distinguish between different types of collocations using the “central variable” or the degree of semantic transparency. Hence, “if the learner knows the meaning of the two lexical items included, the collocation *major catastrophe* is fully transparent, and can therefore be understood through a process of decoding the two lexical elements in their literal sense”.

Although it is difficult to distinguish between idioms and collocations, we find that in specialized discourse (especially in Marine Engineering) it is more difficult to distinguish collocations from compounds. Both are a feature of specialized (maritime) discourse and differ in the degree of fixedness (Pritchard, 2015). However, it is very difficult to determine the degree at which a multi-word lexical unit is no longer considered a free combination or a compound and when it becomes a collocation. Since this is a topic that needs further consideration, it will not be dealt with in this paper.

In conclusion it can be stated that various criteria can be used for identifying collocations and for distinguishing them from other multi-word lexical units. Since the approach adopted in this paper is corpus-based, we believe that the frequency of co-occurrence is one of the key criteria for determining whether a certain combination of words will be classified as a collocation. The assumption behind this statement is that if a sequence is frequent in a corpus, this indicates that it is conventionalised by the speech community, at least to some extent (Schmitt & Carter, 2004). We understand language as context-dependent production of structures and analyse it in specific situations. Finally, we believe that the frequency of occurrence is a more objective criterion than relying on the linguist’s/native speaker’s intuition when deciding what is to be considered a collocation.

3. Collocations and language teaching

Many linguists (e.g., Boers & Lindstromberg, 2009; Durrant, 2008) agree that collocational competence is very important for language production and reception. Collocations, as ready-made semantic sets or formulae drawn from native speakers’ minds without much effort, represent associations between words. According to Construction Grammar (Goldberg, 1995), the knowledge of such language structures, used repetitively in similar situations, is defined as the knowledge of the language. Or, as Ellis & O'Donnell (2014, p. 72) put it:

³ Grammatical collocation is commonly referred to as colligation.

“Constructions as form-meaning/function mappings are the units of language, hence language acquisition involves inducing these associations from experience of language usage.”

The more frequent a particular construction (e.g., *to complete a checklist*) is, the more it becomes associated in the learner's mind.

In foreign language teaching, these routine constructions are offered to beginners in the form of situational phrases, chunks or units, to help them in speaking interaction. As prefabricated linguistic sets, they facilitate communication for learners, especially beginners, and provide them with time for planning further communication. As native speakers largely make use of collocations in their everyday interaction, by using such structures EFL learners tend to sound more natural, exhibiting a more native-like command of the foreign language. By mastering collocations of a given language, by automating their use in recurring situations, the foreign language learner can create structures acceptable to native speakers, which is one of the main reasons why high-frequency collocations represent good targets for learning (Durrant, 2008). Furthermore, using collocations (as part of formulaic sequences) in speech and writing promotes language fluency.

Collocations are thus specific multi-word units or formulaic sequences which form an important part of students' communicative competence and are generally believed to be one of the difficult areas for L2 learners. This is why we consider it important to determine the specific collocations for each register (in this case Marine Engineering English), to analyse them, to master them, and finally to instruct them explicitly. Explicit teaching of collocations can help students develop their productive knowledge, and learning collocations is likely to have a positive effect on students' motivation as their communicative competence will increase with their collocational competence (Hill, 2000).

Shin & Nation (2012) state that collocations help learner's language use, both with the development of fluency and native-like selection. They also used frequency as a criterion for determining the most relevant collocations in spoken English for second language learners.

Furthermore, the importance of teaching collocations is attested in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR; Council of Europe, 2001). In this document collocations are described as belonging to learners' lexical competence and considered fixed expressions (e.g., *to make a speech/mistake*), which are used and learnt as wholes.

3.1. Collocations in Maritime English

When it comes to collocations in ME, we find the study carried out by Vişan & Georgescu (2011, p. 321) to be relevant, and in their paper they conclude that:

“Collocational competence is an essential prerequisite for the overall mastery of Maritime English, perhaps one of the highest levels of linguistic proficiency that future maritime officers can attain.”

They also point out that maritime collocations have generally not been integrated into the teaching materials and as a consequence have not been given serious importance in the ME

classroom. They further state that no research has been carried out so far on how collocations are used by ME learners.

As already recognized by Halliday (1961), collocations fall between lexis and grammar. This is in line with the prevailing view that ME competence is to be described as an interactional process between lexis and grammar. By focusing on this interaction and by giving more attention to collocations, we can develop and enhance language learners' performance in general (Vişan & Georgescu, 2011).

The advocates of the lexical approach, which is adopted in this paper, do not agree on how collocations should be selected and taught as some of them (e.g., Sinclair, 1991) believe that the frequency (i.e., the most common collocations) is the main criterion for determining collocations while others (e.g., Hill, 2000; Lewis, 2000) recommend that teachers should trust their own judgement in deciding which collocations are most important for their students. The latter seems reasonable, as each student or group of students has specific needs and this is even truer for ESP or specific registers such as ME or Marine Engineering English.

3.2. Collocations in Marine Engineering textbooks

To obtain a general idea on whether collocations are included in the teaching materials for marine engineers, we have studied the following textbooks and one interactive program (*MarEng Learning Tool*):

1. Blakey, T. N. (1987). *English for Maritime Studies* (2nd ed.). London: Prentice-Hall International.
2. Buczkowska, W. (2003). *English across Marine Engineering*. Gdansk: Drukarnia Wydawnictwa Diecezji Pelplinskiej "Bernardinum".
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10. *MarEng Learning Tool*, Leonardo Da Vinci Education and Culture. Retrieved from: http://mkkdok.utu.fi/mat/mareng_old/index.html (18 September, 2015).

Our hypothesis was that collocations are not strongly represented in the aforementioned textbooks; i.e., that there is only a small number of activities for improving students' collocational competence. This has proven to be correct and what follows is a short summary of our conclusions.

Collocations are mostly represented in Buczkowska (2003; 2013). We consider illustrating or highlighting collocations in glossaries or vocabulary explanation sections of textbooks to be good practice since presenting words in context is crucial for understanding and producing new structures.

In Buczkowska (2013) we also find vocabulary exercises of the 'fill-in-the-gaps' type or 'choose-the-right-verb' type (e.g., *open/close the suction valve, open close the discharge valve, shut off/start the priming unit, etc.*).

Furthermore, Buczkowska (2003) provides exercises on colligation (or grammatical collocation), such as *to be in command of sth, to be in charge of sth, to take responsibilities for*, etc. The author also provides productive exercises in which students are required to write their own sentences based on the new structures that they have mastered within a given unit. Other exercises involving collocations are of the 'matching type' (i.e., match the words from column A to words from column B), in which students are asked to find the collocates of a given word (e.g., *temperature, pressure, efficiency – increases, grows, rises/drop, falls, decreases; start/check/open compressors*) (Buczkowska, 2003). Matching exercises are also commonly found in Cengiz & Ilhan (2004) and Spinčić (2002). Similar matching exercises are found in Fabe (1998) as well as Spinčić & Pritchard (2009) (e.g., *large end bearing, holding down bolts, cylinder cover studs, etc.*). Furthermore, in both of the latter textbooks the verbs *carry* and *provide* are highlighted as very frequent verbs in marine engineering and their collocates are listed (Fabe, 1998). Matching exercises are also commonly found in MarEng (e.g., *practical training, competency certificate, qualified engineer*).

We have found no evidence of collocations in Blakey (1987) and Vaudo (1992). Spinčić (2002) focuses on nominal compounds, which should be distinguished from collocations, even though this is not always a simple task.

As can be seen from this short summary, there is evidence that collocations are not strongly represented in textbooks for marine engineers. However, it would seem that more recent teaching resources are more collocation-sensitive, i.e., show a higher awareness of collocations. The aforementioned textbooks mainly cover matching exercises of specific collocations which have been discussed within a particular unit, but the students' productive knowledge of collocations and their collocational competence is not sufficiently developed in such a way. It is therefore our belief that more prominence should be given to collocations in Marine Engineering English. Hence, in the next section of this paper we list collocations which are relevant for marine engineering correspondence, and suggest a few types of exercises which can be used to improve students' collocational competence.

4. The present study: collocations in Marine Engineering correspondence

The study presented in this paper was carried out on a small corpus of collected e-mails⁴, consisting of 95,893 tokens. The research presented below is a pilot study into the complex phenomenon of collocations.

The lexical density (L_d) of a corpus is the ratio of the number of lexical words (i.e., types, N_{lex}) and the total number of words found in the corpus (i.e., tokens, N), as illustrated below:

$$L_d = (N_{lex}/N) \times 100$$

The lexical density of the corpus used for research purposes of this paper is 63.75 %, which is considered to be a good measure of the type/token ratio. Figure 1 below illustrates how different parts of speech are represented in the corpus. As can be seen from the graph, nouns are most commonly represented in the corpus (46.43 %), followed by verbs (9.79 %), prepositions (8.73 %), and adjectives (5.26 %), which also explains why we have selected the respective verb + noun and adjective + noun collocations for further analysis⁵.

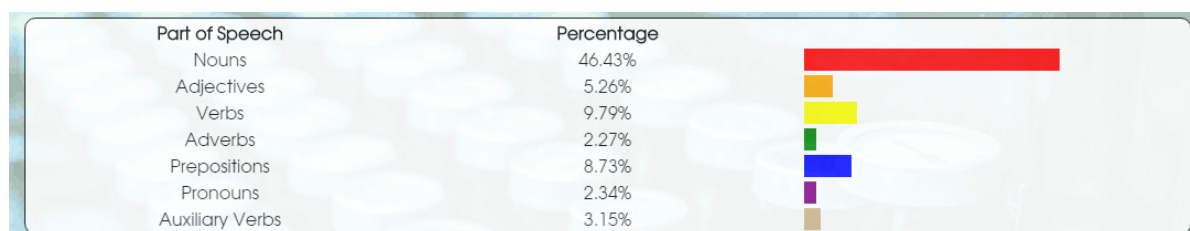


Figure 1: Parts of speech extracted from the E-mail corpus. Online Analyzer. Retrieved from <http://www.analyzemywriting.com/index.html>

A further note needs to be added as to the restrictedness of the corpus and the areas covered in the e-mails. Most of the correspondence was directed by the Chief Engineer either to the technical office or the company, and the subject mostly relates to troubles, trouble-shooting, and maintenance. In that sense, the corpus is somewhat restricted generally, but very specific and valuable for teaching vocabulary required to describe failures, malfunctions, breakdowns, incidents, etc. Although the list is far from complete, given the restrictions, this information could be combined with dictionary entries to determine the relevant collocations.

The e-mails have been converted into a .txt file and the frequencies of words were checked using the MonoConcPro corpus tool. The first step was to extract the most frequent content words in the corpus, with minimum frequency of 3 tokens, the results of which are shown in Appendix A. We have excluded common e-mail correspondence words from the frequency list - words such as *subject, message, administrator, regards, dear, sender, receiver, notify, reply, sent, received, attached, copying, disclosing, transmission, fleet*, company names, etc.

4 We are indebted to Prof. Josip Luzer for collecting the e-mails, and for selflessly allowing us to carry out the presented research on the corpus. The collected e-mails are written by non-native speakers of English, former students of the Faculty of Maritime Studies, today's Chief Engineers, but some replies were written by native speakers of English.

5 Collocations of the preposition + noun type are also a very interesting topic which requires further analysis.

Based on the frequency list (Appendix A), we have analysed the concordances of the most frequent words as well as their collocates, using the *Collocate Frequency Data* option. Using this tool we have extracted the following collocations, as shown in Table 1.

verb + noun	adjective + (adjective) + noun
(to) run (a) ship ^A	
privileged ^B information	
(to) communicate information	confidential information
(to) come (into) contact	working order
(to) give (sb) a report	good practice

Table 1: *Collocations extracted from the e-mail corpus*

Since the corpus is rather small, we could not use any of the collocation extraction tools or the collocate frequency data further, so we have conducted our analysis using concordance tools. We have divided the identified collocations into two groups: (1) collocations which are used in GE (Appendix B), (2) collocations used explicitly in ME correspondence (Appendix C).

As can be seen from Appendix B and Appendix C, most of the collocations that we have extracted from the corpus are of the verb + noun type, which is a finding supported by Cole et al. (2007). Hence, we can conclude that verb + noun collocations are the most common type of collocation encountered in Marine Engineering English as well.

Collocations listed in Appendix B and Appendix C represent just a small sample of relevant collocations for Marine Engineering correspondence. Due to the restricted and rather small corpus, it was not possible to carry out research that would yield all-inclusive results and help us determine all the collocations for Marine Engineering correspondence. The results are rather to be seen as an example of how to make use of authentic texts and instances of real-life communication to enrich the teaching process. This is something every teacher can do, taking into consideration the needs of his/her students.

4.1. Suggestions for classroom activities

As already stated above, using authentic correspondence, the ME instructor can improve the teaching process and create classroom materials to supplement textbooks according to the needs of his/her students.

The following are ideas on how to implement the extracted collocations in the language classroom.

A It is worth mentioning that the combination of the verb run and the noun ship is not recognized as a collocation in the *Online Oxford Collocation Dictionary* and yet this is one of the recurring combinations commonly found in ME.

B Collocations which are boldfaced are not found in the *Online Oxford Collocation Dictionary*.

Activity I. Read the following e-mail and highlight verb + noun collocations.

The e-mail⁶ is one of the real-life communications. It allows students to notice common verb + noun collocations and to raise their awareness of what collocations actually are.

Good day Mr. Smith,

Please bear in mind that we have suffered today identical malfunction with 3-way valve (pneumatically operated by solenoid valve) same as Raphael a few days before. While in operation on routine basis to overboard discharging BHT observed very small output in comparison with recent discharge rate and made a conclusion that something is wrong with 3-way valve. To prove this observation the recirculation pipeline flange has been slackened slightly (to avoid tag damage) and found above underwater pressure.

Therefore, before the requisition order being sent to your attention please give us permission to remove a suspicious 3-way valve with associated pipeline to investigate where is the root cause of the malfunction (maybe some dirt underneath v/v seat?). Actually we have no spare on board of such type of valve.

It means that the following environmental tags have to be removed allowing the fault to be investigated:

- 1) 0001814 DECKMA, 3-way v/v Solenoid v/v*
- 2) 0031375 DECKMA, discharge o/b 3-way v/v air inlet*
- 3) 0001808 DECKMA, 3-way v/v solenoid v/v*
- 4) 0023317 OWS, o/b discharge pipe*
- 5) 0023318 OWS, oil discharge to OBT*
- 6) 0023319 OWS, discharge to BHT*
- 7) 0023307 OWS, recirculation line to BHT*

Best regards,

C/E

In this e-mail the students could highlight the following verb + noun collocations:

to bear in mind; to suffer a malfunction; to make a conclusion;

to prove the observation; to give permission; to investigate a fault, etc.

⁶ The names have been changed. The e-mail contains some grammatical mistakes, which the teacher can correct before introducing into the classroom, or alternatively, ask his/her students to correct the grammatical mistakes, depending on their proficiency.

This can be further used to discuss and check (using a dictionary of collocations or Luzer & Spinčić, 2013) whether all the collocations that the students have highlighted are proper collocations, which leads to the second activity:

Activity II. Correct the mistakes.

Read the following e-mail, highlight improper collocations and correct them. This activity can only be done with proficient students who have a fair understanding of collocations.

EXAMPLE: *to make a conclusion* —→ *to draw a conclusion*

Activity III. Find the intruder.

This activity can be used as a post-reading activity and it encourages students to notice multi-word units (c.f., Vasiljevic, 2008). The teacher provides distractors and asks students to identify which of the given words does not form collocations with the given node.

EXAMPLE: *FAULT*, n. *identify*, ~~*cause*~~, *rectify*, *report*, *diagnose*

Activity IV. Matching

Find verb + noun collocations. Match the words in column A to words in column B.

Column A	Column B
<i>to test</i>	<i>losses</i>
<i>to specify</i>	<i>sample</i>
<i>to incur</i>	<i>detdils</i>
<i>to schedule</i>	<i>a checklist</i>
<i>to complete</i>	<i>maintenance duties</i>
<i>to assist (in)</i>	<i>the inspection</i>

Activity V. Collocation Translation.

A translation is a good activity for making students aware that collocations are language and culture specific and need not (or do not) have formal equivalents in the target language.

Activity VI. Gap-filling exercise

These exercises are an excellent way to reinforce vocabulary as they enable students to encounter the vocabulary in context.

Good day Mr. Smith,

Please _____ in mind that we have _____ today identical malfunction with 3-way valve (pneumatically operated by solenoid valve) same as Raphael a few days before. While in operation on routine basis to overboard discharging BHT

observed very small output in comparison with recent discharge _____ and made a conclusion that something is wrong with 3-way valve. To _____ this observation the recirculation pipeline flange has been slightly (to avoid tag damage) and found above underwater pressure.

Therefore, before the requisition order being sent to your attention please give us _____ to remove a suspicious 3-way valve with associated pipeline to investigate where is the root _____ of the malfunction (maybe some dirt underneath v/v seat?). Actually we have no spare on board of such type of valve.

slackened suffered permission rate cause bear prove

Activity VII. Multiple-choice exercise

Multiple-choice exercises are suitable to a wide range of instructional goals and may be used to assess all levels of learning. They are also useful for identifying student difficulties and can serve as the basis for further discussion about common errors.

Good day Mr. Smith,

Please 1 _____ in mind that we have 2 _____ today identical malfunction with 3-way valve (pneumatically operated by solenoid valve) same as Raphael a few days before. While in operation on 3 _____ basis to overboard discharging BHT observed very small output in comparison with recent discharge rate and made a conclusion that something is wrong with 3-way valve. To prove this observation the recirculation pipeline flange has been slackened slightly (to avoid tag damage) and found above underwater pressure.

Therefore, before the requisition order being sent to your attention please 4 _____ us permission to remove a suspicious 3-way valve with associated pipeline to investigate where is the root cause of the malfunction (maybe some dirt underneath v/v seat?). Actually we have no spare on board of such type of valve.

1 have/bear/keep/carry

2 suffered/endured/experienced/undergone

3 normal/common/routine/standard

4 provide/give/allow/donate

Activity VIII. Writing

Write a similar e-mail to the company in which you explain a repeated failure of lub oil pumps. Prior to each failure, you noticed a fluctuation in lub oil pressure. Metal debris was found in the oil filtration system. Ask for permission to invite a member of Technical Investigations (TI) to attend the vessel to investigate and advise.

5. Concluding remarks

The importance of teaching collocations in GE and ESP has been widely recognized. Since there is no substantial research on collocations in Marine Engineering English, the aim of this paper was to determine the most relevant collocations for Marine Engineering correspondence. This was done on a small corpus of e-mails and by extracting corpus frequency lists and concordances, using the MonoConcPro corpus tool. The research has shown that verb + noun collocations are the most common ones in Marine Engineering correspondence and, based on the extracted collocations, we have shown how the ME instructor can improve the teaching process by making use of authentic texts and corpus tools.

This paper will contribute to raising instructors' awareness on the importance of teaching collocations in Marine Engineering English and inspire other researchers to investigate the topic further, for instance by analysing how language learners perceive collocations or how dictionary information on collocations can be used in the teaching process.

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Appendix A

Corpus Frequency List

Count	Percentage	Word
520	0.5423%	<i>ships</i>
263	0.2743%	<i>vessel</i>
262	0.2732%	<i>information</i>
215	0.2242%	<i>good</i>
186	0.1940%	<i>confidential</i>
186	0.1940%	<i>error</i>
184	0.1919%	<i>safety</i>
183	0.1908%	<i>contain</i>
182	0.1898%	<i>privileged</i>
74	0.0772%	<i>contact</i>
74	0.0772%	<i>report</i>

Appendix B

Collocations used in General English

verb + (preposition)+ noun	adjective + (adjective) + noun
(to) <i>communicate information</i>	<i>closer scrutiny</i>
(to) investigate (the) cause	significant <i>implications</i>
(to) <i>meet requirements</i>	<i>safe working practices</i>
(to) <i>have (significant) implications</i>	<i>precautionary measures</i>
(to) <i>make deductions</i>	<i>good practice</i>
(to) implement <i>procedures</i>	<i>environmental policy</i>
(to) <i>enter (into) discussion</i>	
(to) <i>encounter problems</i>	
(to) <i>comply (with) regulations</i>	
(to) <i>monitor effectiveness</i>	
(to) <i>follow advice</i>	

Appendix C

Collocations used explicitly in Marine Engineering correspondence

verb + (preposition) + noun	adjective + (adjective) + noun
(to) <i>supply samples</i>	<i>severe fluctuation</i>
(to) <i>draw samples</i>	<i>surging fluctuation</i>
(to) <i>test samples</i>	<i>restricted areas</i>
(to) <i>cancel requisition</i>	<i>cleaning procedure</i>
(to) <i>assist (in) maintenance duties</i>	<i>testing procedure</i>
(to) <i>complete (the) check list</i>	<i>standard test</i>
(to) <i>require spares</i>	<i>hot work</i>
(to) <i>subject (to) cleaning procedure</i>	
(to) <i>ventilate tanks</i>	
(to) <i>endorse record sheet</i>	
(to) <i>discharge sewage</i>	
(to) <i>incur costs</i>	
(to) <i>incur losses</i>	
(to) <i>schedule (the) inspection</i>	
(to) <i>replenish bunker oil</i>	
(to) <i>dismantle pump</i>	
(to) <i>receive (a) quote (for spares)</i>	
(to) <i>request (a) quotation</i>	
(to) <i>suffer (a) failure</i>	
(to) <i>suffer (an) injury</i>	
(to) <i>specify details</i>	
(to) <i>comply (with) (working) practices</i>	
(to) <i>record (a) failure</i>	
(to) <i>record (a) repair</i>	

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STANDARDISING MARITIME ENGLISH TRAINING AND ASSESSMENT THROUGH INTERNATIONAL COORDINATION OF CONTENT-BASED INSTRUCTION

Abstract

The current provisions of the International Maritime Organization (IMO) Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping (STCW Manila; IMO, 2010) for language proficiency and communication skills require standard levels for cadets' communication skills worldwide, but do not suggest how to coordinate standardised Maritime English (ME) training and assessment across the globe in order to consistently meet these requirements. The responsibility for globally standardised assessment of cadet ME skills at Maritime Education and Training (MET) institutions around the world is therefore shouldered by the trainers only. This inevitably leads to differences in local interpretations of the ME standards. The central interest of the International Maritime Lecturers Association (IMLA) and the International Maritime English Conference (IMEC) is therefore to develop consistent assessment methods for cadets' ME skills, which can be implemented worldwide. This paper explores current ME training practice worldwide, and suggests cross-curricular, content-based instruction as a solution for globally unified and coordinated standards of ME skills assessment.

Keywords: Maritime English, Maritime Education and Training, assessment, twinning, cadet competence, content-based learning.

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to explore current Maritime English (ME) training circumstances and the possibilities to standardise the assessment methods of cadets' language skills worldwide. With reference to two integrated courses at the Marine Engineering Programme at Chalmers, Gothenburg, Sweden, this paper also suggests that cross-curricular, content-based instruction, so-called 'twinning' (Cole & Trenkner, 2012), can help to coordinate and align the assessment of cadet competence internationally.

The globalization of the maritime industry is one of the developments that has been instrumental in the international standardisation of training and the legal obligations of the Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping (STCW) and the Convention on the Safety of Life at Sea (SOLAS) to teach ME worldwide and use it in ship-to-shore and ship-to-ship communications (Cole & Trenkner, 2012). However, despite established requirements from the International Maritime Organization (IMO)¹ for standardised communication skills for seafarers, there is little support or guidance about how Maritime Education and Training (MET) institutions should actually teach and assess internationally equivalent ME skills (Weeks, 1997; Borucinsky & Pritchard, 2010; Cole & Trenkner, 2012).

Therefore, the European Commission's Thematic Network on Maritime Education, Training and Mobility of Seafarers (WMU, 2003) suggests that language teachers could receive support from technical content teachers when assessing cadets' language skills. For that purpose, content-based instruction practices should be developed and implemented in communicative language teaching and learning contexts (Brinton, Snow & Wesche, 1989; Cole, Pritchard & Trenkner, 2002; Spada, 2007). Cross-curricular collaboration between ME teachers and technical content teachers, a type of "tandem teamwork" also referred to as "twinning", is also anticipated to ensure credibility and quality of trainers' both content and language skills (Cole & Trenkner, 2012). Mirroring the above, the recently revised Model Course 3.17 for Maritime English (IMO, 2015) divides ME instruction into 1) General ME where all-purpose language proficiency remains the focus, and 2) Specific ME where the language ceases to be the real content of teaching, and simply becomes a medium of instruction. This openly suggests the implementation of content-based teaching into ME training as a solution to optimize training, learning, and assessment.

2. Maritime English – brief description of the current status

The maritime industry is a constantly expanding global business that depends on international collaboration to maintain and improve safety at sea. This requires good communication skills for both shore and sailing personnel. Consequently, scholars across the globe have long engaged in the development and application of the standardised language of the sea or the "entirety of all those means of the English language which being used as a device for communication within the international maritime community, contribute to the safety of navigation and the facilitation of the seaborne business" (Trenkner, 2000, p. 8). The improvement and the standardisation of communication at sea have been major

1 The International Maritime Organization – the United Nations' specialized agency with responsibility for the safety and security of shipping and the prevention of marine pollution by ships. www.imo.org.

concerns of the IMO through the International Maritime Lecturers Association (IMLA) and the International Maritime English Conference (IMEC). In addition, international standards for good communication skills at sea have been set and approved by the IMO's 171 member countries. These standards must be implemented and consistently followed up and assessed by each national agency and training institution.

However, coming to a joint understanding of globally agreed standards is hard work when 171 member countries are involved. Furthermore, standardising methods of assessing their varied interpretations of these standards is even more complicated. In 2009, at IMEC 21 in Szczecin, Poland, the chair of IMEC, Peter Trenkner, commented on the expected provisions of the STCW Manila Amendments (IMO, 2010) with concern. The expectations of a good command of ME amongst cadets were not explicit enough, and the IMEC chair called for more precise requirements from the IMO to support unification of assessment in all MET institutions (Trenkner, 2009). In the same year, Trenkner and Cole published *The Yardstick for Maritime English STCW Assessment Purposes* (2009) to support the standardisation of ME assessment worldwide while pointing out several weaknesses in the international alignment of MET standards (Cole & Trenkner, 2009). Some of these weaknesses had been previously identified in their article *Maritime English Instruction – Ensuring Instructor's Competence* (Cole & Trenkner, 2007).

Despite Cole and Trenkner's efforts, in 2015, a number of prominent MET teachers and researchers still argued that "(...) over the past 25 years Maritime English has accumulated fourteen different definitions, with no consensus on content and scope" (Drown et al., 2015, p. 220). They claim that it is "a mixture of nautical and communication English and there is controversy as to whether it is for specific purposes or simply a terminology" (ibid). In spite of a clearly established definition and well-developed research within the curriculum, ME is apparently still very difficult to grasp from a teaching and learning perspective and therefore a challenging subject at MET institutions worldwide.

3. Some teaching and learning aspects of Maritime English

In order to understand why the definition and application of ME are topics of so many different interpretations, two aspects must be clarified. First, ME differs widely in use on land, at sea, within national and international administrations, military service, port state control, within commerce, education, and transport (for example). Because of the international setting of ME, all of its uses are shaped through intercultural exchange, mainly between foreign language speakers of English. Second, under these circumstances, one can assume that ME cannot belong to one nationality, or one classroom, or one maritime domain. On the contrary, as a language in service for specific purposes, it is explicitly linked to all the concepts and contexts of the maritime industry and its disciplines (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

A third, more generic aspect to consider is that of learning as a life-long (Illeris, 2007; Biggs, 2007), content-based (Brinton, 2003), meaning-oriented (Spada, 2007), and situated (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Bolhuis, 2003; Gustafsson, 2011) process. Learning is therefore the content-based outcome of the merging of different contexts (contents, situations, experiences) that engage our thinking skills in a certain situation, and involves both theoretical and practical knowledge that can be used to solve problems and to generate new learning (Bolhuis, 2003).

To sum up, the overall framework of ME is defined by international standards and legislation. These aim to facilitate communication primarily – but not solely – at sea. ME instructors must therefore be knowledgeable about the communication processes that take place in the seafaring setting, and they must also be able to identify suitable professional contexts that integrate various communication skills if they are to generate relevant learning activities to engage and develop students' thinking skills. It is obvious that without support from technical content experts, this might be an overpowering challenge for ME instructors alone.

4. Maritime English training – challenges of standardisation

One of the first aspects to address when aiming to standardise ME assessment across the world is, as explained above, the complexity of the seafaring profession, which can apply to many different fields. Beyond language competence, the ME user (a speaker of English as a foreign language in most cases) must, for example, also be aware of intercultural communication aspects to efficiently adjust to multinational crews.

Another difficulty in meeting ME standards from a global perspective is that national legislation, on which local training is based, defines learning outcomes for cadets, whereas cadet competence levels are prompted by the international requirements of the IMO's 171 member countries. Local legislation and requirements do not always mirror or accurately translate international counterparts. An ongoing, functional, and relevant international dialogue between IMO member countries is therefore imperative to make these two dimensions converge.

The third aspect that must be addressed in the broader context of ME training is trainer competence. Becoming a ME trainer requires neither internationally established nor certified competences (Cole et al, 2007; Cole & Trenkner, 2009). According to the project Profiling the Maritime English Instructor (PROFS; Cole et al, 2007), ME trainers are:

Career specialists, which means they are graduates or qualified teachers, they have seafaring experience, they have a 'reasonable' institutional standing, and they may (or may not) be 'qualified' to teach ME.

English language and literature graduates who are lovers of English, but do not necessarily understand applied linguistics. Usually they prefer to teach general English, but often fail to teach students adequate ME that meet STCW standards.

Former seafarers who are technical experts, but not skilled in teaching language or in teaching methodology overall. Students are often over-challenged.

Native speakers of English who are often employed on short-term contracts. They seldom have any experience of teaching, language concepts, or maritime contexts.

According to the STCW (IMO, 2010), each MET institution must take responsibility for ME tutor competence as recommended by the IMO, but none of the competencies above is in itself appropriate or sufficient for the teaching of ME. As the IMO provides no tools to help align trainer competencies internationally, MET institutions need to collaborate with each other to align quality assurance worldwide.

ME is defined and developed in maritime contexts; thus, assessment must relate to content-based instruction (Brinton, 2003; Cole & Trenkner, 2009; 2013). The ME trainer therefore faces additional difficulties due to the content-based requirements, which ME practices must adapt to. Hence, collaboration between language and content teachers can complement trainers' different competence areas and it is advised that MET institutions support integrated, cross-curricular teaching praxis (Cole & Trenkner, 2012).

Finally, we can say that while the current provisions of the STCW (IMO, 2010) for language proficiency and communication skills include requirements for cadets' competencies (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010), they do not include suggestions for how to coordinate or internationally standardise ME training and assessment in order to meet these requirements consistently. Theoretically, MET institutions are responsible for creating globally corresponding assessment methods for ME skills, as identified within the STCW, but in practice, this task is shouldered by the trainers only, and few have competence to stand up to legal challenges. The coordination and standardisation of assessment (Cole & Trenkner, 2009) remains therefore one of the main drawbacks of the cadet training worldwide.

Aiming to create consistency between national and international objectives, and to aid teachers in establishing reciprocal support for broader competence, the Marine Engineering Programme at Chalmers, Gothenburg, Sweden has implemented cross-curricular teaching and learning activities and assessment, as will be outlined in the following section.

5. Content-based instruction at the Marine Engineering Programme at Chalmers, Gothenburg, Sweden

The Marine Engineering Programme at Chalmers (Gothenburg, Sweden) starts at a post-secondary level (English CEFR level B1/B2) with classes of around 55 students, and it has been undergoing fundamental changes over the past few years (Eliasson & Gabrielli, 2011; Gabrielli, Gabrielli & Pahlm, 2012). These changes were mainly due to the need for a new structure of alignment at course level and programme level, as required by the Bologna process in Europe. However, these changes have indirectly enabled trainers to re-design courses and progressively integrate contexts of typical professional skills into aligned teaching activities throughout the programme.

The teaching of ME is integrated progressively in various technical content courses from year one to year four, aiming to provide authentic, content-based language instruction that students can easily recognize and identify with. Cross-curricular collaboration in course design and course development enables trainers to pool competencies and increase the impact of teaching and learning strategies, alongside assessment reliability, in each course. With mutual support, the language teacher and the content teacher can create more meaning-oriented course content than if the subjects were kept apart (Cole & Trenkner, 2002; Biggs, 2007; Spada, 2007).

The current programme is divided into basic/introductory courses, continuation courses, and advanced courses. For example, a basic technical content course in year one is Marine Engineering I. It integrates three different modules: engine room simulator sessions, relevant technical terminology (ME), and drawing techniques. The ME module, in this case, works

with vocabulary used in the engine room, or for drawing techniques, and combines these with general safety vocabulary used on board in various distress situations. In this way, the teaching of language draws directly on a technical context that is highly relevant for the students in their professional environment.

Another example is a continuation maintenance technique course in year three, in which language proficiency is assessed through a technical report and an oral presentation of the same topic. Here, the language and technical content teachers work very closely together with the design of course aims and objectives, and teaching and learning activities. Students' language skills are jointly assessed, with language proficiency not being a direct course objective, but rather an integral aspect of communication used to convey content in the best possible way. Improvement in language use means, therefore, that students express technical content in a more accurate way, which in turn leads to more favourable assessment.

6. What students think they learn from content-based instruction – an outline

Two parallel, partly integrated continuation courses of particular significance for this paper are taught in the second year of the Marine Engineering programme at Chalmers. One is a technical content course (Steam and Cooling Plants – in Swedish) and the other is a communication course (Technical Marine English – in English). The setup of these is of particular relevance due to the notably positive feedback on the learning outcomes of content-based instruction that has been received from about 200 students over the last four years, as part of the course examination assignment. The student feedback (briefly exemplified below) can be interpreted as a positive reflection on the idea that content-based instruction triggers learning on several levels, and that it also enables students to identify and reflect upon what and how they have learned as a lead in a continuous learning process.

The second year Technical Marine English course is designed to develop the students' written and oral proficiency, as well as their language accuracy in the maritime context. The parallel course, Steam and Cooling Plants, aims to provide knowledge about the construction, function, and operation of steam generation plants and refrigeration/ventilation plants as well as develop the ability to perform calculations of these plants.

One joint learning activity of these courses is particularly relevant here. The students are introduced to a technical content topic and given a chapter from a book to study in English. The content teacher provides the students with study questions about the chapter, but in Swedish. A mandatory seminar is arranged, with both content and language teachers present, in which the students are asked to discuss the ways in which they have interpreted the chapter and the questions, and to double check their interpretations as they try to settle for one 'correct' answer to each question. Later, as part of the examination assignment in the language course, students are asked to reflect upon the learning they think they have acquired due to the particular set-up of this course activity (Gabrielli, Gabrielli & Pahlm, 2012). The assignment does not mention existing correlations between language and content in this learning activity, yet students comment most often on language learning strategies that have been triggered by the ways in which this setting allows them to engage with content.

This paper does not aim to map 200 student reflections. However, a significant number of comments (almost all) connect language learning with the learning outcomes of the technical content course in some way, and content-based language instruction is found to be the common denominator of these comments. Some examples of student comments are displayed in the table below, and any reference to content-based instruction is marked in bold.

Topic of comment	Quotation of student comment	Author's interpretation
Meaning oriented language learning strategies	"We also discussed that the text was interesting. Why this text felt more interesting than other texts we don't really know. It is probably because we need to know the content of this text in steam and refrigeration techniques. It feels good to read something that we work with in another course; it makes it easier in both courses. Most group members learned a lot from this exercise."	*Refers to language learning being meaningful if put in a relevant context/if dealing with relevant content (meaning-oriented learning).
Life-long learning aspects of Maritime English in professional contexts	"Certain fragments of the text were a bit difficult to grasp at first and you realize that learning all technical terms and expressions solely in Swedish has its limitations and impedes the learning process somewhat. With the help of the illustrative and pedagogic pictures, however, we were able to understand most of the content. Whatever lack of apprehension that still remained was easily mended by googling specific terms, that we struggled to fully understand. This exercise further stresses the importance of practicing not only grammar and "every-day" English skills, but also expanding your technical vocabulary. In order to become a successful marine engineer, working in a multilingual environment, merely being proficient in "regular" English is not enough, one must master the skills of advanced maritime English and have an extensive technical vocabulary. Of course with an ample understanding of other cultures and whatever obstructions and flaws in communication that may arise from cultural heritage and corresponding social patterns."	*Draws interesting parallels to learning strategies and processes, and puts language skills into perspective with focus on a future professional role (lifelong learning). Refers to the relation between content (or meaning) and register and how understanding of meaning depends on understanding of content.
The importance of language proficiency from a technical content perspective	"One example is that no one in the group could explain what a gland steam condenser is. After a while we asked the trainer and we realized that we knew the answer but just could not link it. Sometimes you know something in Swedish but are unable to link it to the English language. "	*Expresses the importance of register and how their ability to express details depends on an accurate register (content-based learning).
The importance of language proficiency in a situated context – meaning oriented learning	"The way we worked with this text, first translating it from English to Swedish and then back again is probably the best way to work with a text. If you only rewrite the text in English, you usually steal words and sentences that you do not fully understand. If you only translate the text from Swedish to English you usually stay within the limits of To sum up we think that this text was a good exercise and we all see the connection to both Steam and Refrigeration Techniques and Marine English. The exercise helps the student to realize that despite we are all able to speak fluent English, we are unfamiliar with terms used in mechanical engineering your knowledge. " "To sum up we think that this text was a good exercise and we all see the connection to both Steam and Refrigeration Techniques and Marine English. The exercise helps the student to realize that despite we are all able to speak fluent English, we are unfamiliar with terms used in mechanical engineering. "	*Expresses a realization of how translating from two languages can challenge an understanding of concepts (situated-learning). *The importance of register is discussed together with the fact that speaking English fluently may not be the same as being a good user of ME (meaning-oriented learning).

The correlations between language and content and how language determines and is determined by content	"We feel that the assignment is most relevant to the steam/refrigeration technique course. The reason for this being that the actual information, what is presented for us to learn, is information regarding steam & refrigeration technique. English is only a mean to convey that information to us, and if you understand what is written you do not pay all too much interest in the actual language. However if the reader is more knowledgeable in the field of steam-technique and less so in English, he would look more into the meaning of words and the grammar of the text."	*Argues that language is merely a means to convey technical content, but improved language will help to convey content more accurately (meaning-oriented learning).
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Table 1: Student comments with regard to learning triggered due to content-based instruction

From a ME perspective, the student comments show that content-based instruction can facilitate understanding of correlations between language and content, and legitimize accuracy in a professional context. The comments also show that due to the content-based conditions of this assignment, students can identify a direct relationship between ME and its relevance for understanding and conveying technical content. Integrating parallel course activities has generated, as is revealed above, easily identifiable learning outcomes for the students; when they are prompted to reflect upon their understanding of the relationship between language and content, they also understand ME skills from the perspective of their future profession and achieve greater awareness of the importance of language accuracy in the expression of content.

7. Conclusions and recommendations

Three different aspects in the process of standardising the assessment of ME skills have been identified in this paper: the complexity of the seafarer's profession, the difficulty of making national and international standards consistent, and the overall arbitrary requirements for trainer competence across the globe. All of these aspects have a common point of reference, and that is content. Content-based instruction, or simply content as a common denominator, may help to identify professional boundaries, to recognise joint national and international interests, and provide meaning to language learning activities.

According to student comments, content-based instruction clarifies how student understanding and application of meaning (i.e., content) depends on student understanding and application of register. The students seem to acknowledge their (need of) improved use of register, due to an improved understanding of content. However, the register of the seafaring profession is the standardised language of the sea (ME). Implicitly, content-based instruction in this example helps to implement standards of communication in the technical curriculum in an evidently meaningful way. Therefore, when assessing student ability to convey content in an accurate way, student language skills are also being assessed. This can mean that the assessment of technical skills can be a tool to standardise the assessment of language skills.

Based on the above, this paper suggests that to standardise assessment, more content-based pedagogies that integrate language skills and technical content competence must be developed and this can only be accomplished if conditions are provided in which trainers

can develop ways to balance differences between IMO member countries. If teachers from several MET institutions, and preferably also from different countries, were given the opportunity to design joint teaching and learning activities that integrate ME in the local curriculum, then those activities would be based on a combination of national expertise and local understanding of international obligations. Implicitly, the learning outcomes of such activities would correspond, assessment-wise, between the countries involved.

Research and investments are therefore needed to firstly generate IMO moderated discussion forums for trainers around the world, and secondly to facilitate international trainer exchange and collaboration aimed at standardising syllabi and assessment procedures, based on an ongoing international dialogue. This can bring consistency to training programmes around the world, and implicitly also to cadet competencies worldwide.

Paraphrasing Logie (2001), ME instructors must think locally, with focus on the particular needs and prerequisites of their students, and on the implications of their national legislation for education programmes. They must also, at the same time, teach globally, addressing and implementing international standards in their assessment methods, with respect to the environment in which our cadets will eventually work. Investment and research are imperative to further develop this global approach.

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BOOK REVIEWS / REZENSIONEN

Model Course 3.17. Maritime English, 2015 Edition, International Maritime Organization. International Maritime Organization, London (2015). 228 pp. ISBN 978-92-801-1622-9.

The teaching content of Maritime English (ME) is dictated by the 1995 International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping (STCW), as amended, which sets qualification standards for masters, officers, and officers of the watch on merchant ships. Following the adoption of these international standards, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) has developed a series of model courses to help maritime training institutions to fully implement the requirements of the Convention, organise and introduce new courses, or supplement and update training material. After the adoption of the Manila Amendments to the STCW Convention in 2010, several model courses have been revised. The revision of Model Course 3.17 for ME (henceforth, the Model Course) was published in 2015. Based on the requirements for ME as defined by the STCW Convention, the Model Course guides the process of teaching. However, it is not intended to be a rigid teaching tool but rather an assistance tool that will aid ME trainers in reaching the standards as set by the Convention and beyond.

Content

The Model Course is divided into two core sections, Core Section 1 for General Maritime English (GME) and Core Section 2 for Specialised Maritime English (SME). These are followed by the instructor manual, the standards of the STCW Convention as pertaining to ME, and an evaluation section with recommended forms of assessment for ME. Both core sections are divided into the same subsections: course framework, course outline, and detailed teaching syllabus.

Core section 1 (197 hours of classroom teaching in addition to 42 hours of self-study that students are required to spend on learning outside the language classroom) is dedicated to students at the elementary level of pre-existing language proficiency, followed by the intermediate level (with further 244 classroom hours and 49 hours for autonomous study). Therefore, the objective of this section is to provide guidance to instructors for teaching GME at elementary and intermediate levels of language proficiency, and prepare the students to proceed to SME Core section 2. Hence, if the existing language proficiency of students is at a level higher than intermediate, instruction can immediately dive into Core section 2.

Core sections 1 and 2 are based on the communicative approach to language teaching and integrated skills development. Given that speaking is a priority in the maritime industry, this is the language skill that is given advantage over others. In Core section 1, the English language remains the real content of teaching or “teaching language for the language’s sake” (p. 1). Examples of topics covered are describing crew roles and routines, naming types of vessels,

identifying the purpose and location of safety equipment, and describing weather conditions and understanding weather forecasts, among others.

On the other hand, in Core section 2 the central position of the English language in SME is reduced to that of a medium of instruction. Thus, the language ceases to be the real content of teaching and the purpose of instruction is to use the specific English language to perform specific maritime duties. The pre-existing language proficiency of students admitted to this section has to be intermediate or higher. Core section 2 is further divided into five parts, based on different seafarer ranks or duties:

SME for officers in charge of a navigational watch on ships of 500 GT or more. This SME course covers 90 hours of classroom teaching plus 56 hours of individual student work. The required standards include using English in written and oral communication to, for example, use charts and other nautical publications, engage in communications regarding cargo handling, keep a log and other voyage records, and communicate appropriately with a multilingual crew.

SME for officers in charge of an engineering watch in a manned engine-room or designated duty officers in a periodically unmanned engine room. This SME course covers 105 hours of classroom work plus 56 hours of individual student work. The required standards refer to having adequate knowledge to use engineering publications and perform engineering duties in written and oral form. The publications that students are expected to understand are, for instance, manufacturer's instruction books, or publications on a variety of ship's electrical, electronic, and control systems.

SME for electro-technical officers. This SME course covers 104 hours of classroom teaching and 54 hours of individual student work. The students need to demonstrate to be able to use engineering publications (e.g., those regarding mechanical engineering systems) and perform officer's duties (e.g., to describe automation and control systems of the main propulsion and auxiliary machinery).

SME for GMDSS (Global Maritime Distress and Safety System) operators. This course covers 28 hours of classroom work and 14 hours of individual work of students. The required performance after the completion of the course is to use written and spoken English to communicate information that is relevant for the safety of life at sea. Examples of tasks students are expected to perform include routine communications with coastal stations, reading GMDSS operational instructions, or simulating distress communications.

SME for personnel providing direct service to passengers in passenger spaces on passenger ships. This course covers 42 hours of classroom teaching plus 20 hours of out-of-class student work. The competence that students are required to demonstrate refers to using English to communicate with a passenger in need of assistance, for example when introducing life-saving and fire-fighting equipment on board, or communication related to crowd and crisis management.

The two core sections are followed by the instructor manual, designed to help trainers and their students to achieve the standards as set by the STCW Convention. As stated in the introduction to the instructor manual, it introduces ME instructors "to the principles, terminology and techniques of the contemporary Communicative Approach to language teaching." (p. 109) As such, it discusses the roles of students and teachers, learning styles, needs analysis, lesson

planning, task-based learning, content-based instruction, teaching and learning with modern facilities (e.g., simulators and computers, learning online), active learning, and pair and group work. The instructor manual places most emphasis on the teaching of grammar, vocabulary, the four communications skills, and the Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP), giving detailed instructions regarding presentation techniques, practice tasks, correcting errors recommendations, revision and extension techniques, and potential assessment tasks.

In the appendices we can find a summary of standards as defined by the STCW Convention for ME, and sample lesson plans for GME and SME. The Model Course ends with a section that addresses evaluation, and a section with general guidance on the implementation of IMO model courses.

Strengths

The first and foremost strength of the Model Course is its learner-centredness. The course acknowledges the importance of different entry levels of students regarding their pre-existing general English proficiency as well as the considerable differences in the language needs of students that will be performing vastly different duties in their future maritime careers (e.g., the language needs of a marine engineer are significantly different from those of a deck officer). GME Core section 1 starts at the elementary level but does not engage in the teaching of English for general purposes. Instead, it proves that teaching language for specific purposes is possible at lower levels of language proficiency if the content and process of teaching are adjusted to learner needs. Furthermore, despite advocating integrated development of all language skills, the Model Course places particular emphasis on speaking as the skill prioritised by the maritime industry. Last but not least, it recommends that class size should not exceed twenty-four students (although this might not be feasible at numerous higher education institutions worldwide) so that the instructor can dedicate sufficient attention to each individual student.

The Model Course is also centred on ME instructors in the sense that it provides a highly valuable teaching assistance tool to both experienced and novice ME instructors. By examining the course outline and detailed teaching syllabus, experienced instructors are given the opportunity to supplement and upgrade their teaching based on the requirements of the Manila amendments and specific needs of their students as addressed in Core section 2. The summary of mandatory standards regarding the provisions of the annex to the STCW Convention pertaining to ME found in Appendix A is also helpful.

Novice ME instructors, embarking on the ME journey for the first time, will find this tool indispensable for their work. In the detailed teaching syllabus mentioned above, each unit in GME Core section 1 is divided into topic, grammar, vocabulary, phonology, listening and speaking, and reading and writing. These are supplemented with references to possible teaching resources that can be used in the GME classroom. Moreover, the Model Course contains a list of ME references, textbooks designed specifically for ME instruction that have been published worldwide, maritime publications (e.g., various conventions), a list of other model courses, suggested *realia* as teaching aids (e.g., sections of a paper chart), useful websites for the learning and testing of General English (GE) and ME, maritime websites, a

list of available video materials, recommended reading on language and language teaching methodology, other ME resources, and a list of (commercially available) international ME tests. These resources will undoubtedly provide invaluable assistance to anybody looking for useful teaching and learning materials.

The part of the Model Course that novice language teachers other than ME instructors will find very useful is the instructor manual. In it, we can find the theoretical background to and practical tips for the implementation of various teaching methods, such as task-based or content-based learning. Furthermore, for every language skill there is an inventory of possible task formats that can be applied in exercises as well as formative and summative assessment tests. The readers are also reminded of individual differences among students, for instance their learning styles, and instructed how to efficiently manage pair and group work. In brief, the instructor manual is a user-friendly summary of language teaching methods and techniques based on the communicative approach.

Another strength of the Model Course is that it provides a comprehensive presentation of various twinning activities or forms of collaboration between ME instructors and subject matter experts, recommended in particular for the delivery of SME. Given that collaboration with subject specialists is at the very core of any course of languages for specific purposes (LSP), this is yet another section that might grasp the interest of teachers outside the ME domain. Among the forms of twinning the instructor manual suggests cross-departmental meetings, instructor observation, cross-curriculum teaching, sharing materials, assessing tasks, onboard research, sourcing *realia*, guest lectures, technical quizzes, technical presentations, asking the experts, and peer teaching.

Finally, the instructor manual also addresses teaching and learning with modern facilities, including mobile-assisted language learning as a new channel for the delivery and collaborative construction of language knowledge.

Points for consideration

Despite the numerous advantages presented in the previous section, there are some points that the authors of the Model Course might consider in a potential revision.

Firstly, because of the user-friendliness, solid structure, and high usability level of the methodology-oriented instructor manual, an updated list of recommended reading on language and language teaching methodology would be expected. However, among 33 references only three were published after the year 2000 and none after the year 2010. This is not to say that the recommended sources do not provide the fundamental knowledge on language teaching methodology. It rather suggests that recent publications should be included to upgrade and supplement the more traditional resources. Moreover, although IMO model courses address a global audience, the Common European Framework of Reference as one of the fundamental practice-oriented tools for the learning, teaching, and assessment of foreign languages should be included in this list.

Secondly, today we cannot speak of integrated development of language skills unless video materials are part of our classroom routine. However, the Model Course seems to not fully

acknowledge the role that video materials play in the language development of students, in particular those learning languages for specific purposes. The (mostly highly commercial) video-based training materials that it recommends have not been made to match the specific needs of language learning but rather to be used in classes where the subject matter and not language is at the core of the teaching process. This goes in line with the guidelines of SME Core section 2 where English is treated as a medium of instruction but not with GME Core section 1 where English still is the real content of teaching and learning. Moreover, the instructor manual does not address audio-visual reception as a skill significantly distinct from listening with its own good practices and rules.

Finally, evaluation and assessment are essential and sensitive parts of any teaching and learning process. As a result, the evaluation section with its brief summary of potential assessment tasks and recommendations for the assessment of competence in English (although it does refer to previous pages of the instructor manual that contain possible assessment tasks for each skill) should dedicate more attention to the importance of formative and summative assessment, and possibly include sample tests (for GME elementary and intermediary levels as well as each SME course) that ME instructors could rely on as models.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Model Course is based on contemporary trends in the teaching of foreign languages for specific purposes and has been updated to match the requirements of the latest amendments to the STCW Convention. It certainly is a fundamental reference tool for ME instructors teaching in a variety of ME contexts around the world. However, with the detailed methodological guidance that it provides in the instructor manual, it would certainly be an interesting resource to any novice teacher in the GE or any LSP domain and a role model to follow for other disciplines, in particular the ones where the language outcomes are dictated by international standards and/or conventions.

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SUMMARIES IN SLOVENE
POVZETKI V SLOVENŠČINI

UVODNIK

Pomorska angleščina je del angleškega jezika za posebne namene. Vključuje pet podpodročij, ki so angleščina za navigacijo, angleščina za pomorsko poslovanje, angleščina za pomorsko pravo, angleščina za ladijske strojnike in angleščina za ladjedelništvo (Bocanegra-Valle, 2013).

Tako kot vsi jeziki za posebne namene je tudi pomorska angleščina v službi strokovne skupnosti, s katero je povezana, to pa so govorci znotraj širše pomorske skupnosti, tako pomorščaki na ladjah kot zaposleni v obalnih službah (Trenkner, 2000). Pomorska angleščina pa se od večine jezikov za posebne namene tudi pomembno razlikuje, saj je tesno vpeta v mednarodne konvencije in standarde. Produkt poučevanja pomorske angleščine tako določa Mednarodna konvencija o standardih za usposabljanje, izdajanje spričeval in ladijsko stražarjenje pomorščakov (STCW; IMO, 2010), medtem ko priporočeni proces poučevanja najdemo v Vzorčnem učnem načrtu 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino (IMO, 2015).

Pričujoča številka *Scripte manent* vsebuje dva članka, ki se osredinjata na angleščino za ladijske strojnike, ki pa je znotraj pomorske angleščine veliko manj preučevana kot angleščina za navigacijo.

V prvem izmed dveh člankov, *Kolokacije v angleščini za ladijske strojnike*, Mirjana Boruscinsky in Jana Kegelj v korpusu poslovnih elektronskih sporočil upraviteljev stroja tehničnemu oddelku ali ladijski družbi ugotavljata najbolj pogoste kolokacije. Na temelju rezultatov analize predlagata jezikovna opravila za obravnavo in vadenje kolokacij pri poučevanju ladijskih strojnikov ter posledično izboljšanje njihove kolokacijske zmožnosti.

V članku z naslovom *Standardizacija usposabljanja in ocenjevanja pri pomorski angleščini v sklopu mednarodno usklajenega na vsebino osredinjenega učenja in poučevanja* pa Annamaria Gabrielli ugotavlja, da kljub vpetosti v mednarodne konvencije učitelji pomorske angleščine še nismo standardizirali načinov ocenjevanja. Avtorica tako na temelju poučevanja pomorske angleščine na študijskem programu ladijskega strojništva v Kalmarju na Švedskem kot prvi korak k standardizaciji predlaga sistemsko uporabo na vsebino osredinjenega učenja in poučevanja in medučiteljsko sodelovalno poučevanje.

Po uvedbi 'manilskih' sprememb k STCW konvenciji leta 2011 je Mednarodna pomorska organizacija (IMO) začela s posodabljanjem vzorčnih učnih načrtov za vse predmete, vključno s pomorsko angleščino. Ta številka *Scripte manent* se tako zaključi z recenzijo Vzorčnega učnega načrta 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino (IMO, 2015), v kateri avtorica izčrpno opiše zgradbo vzorčnega načrta ter analizira njegove prednosti, prav tako pa tudi možnosti za izboljšave.

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Urednica

Vir

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Kolokacije v pomorski angleščini za ladijske strojnike

V angleškem jeziku so kolokacije zelo pogoste (Hill, 2000), zelo verjetno pa gre v angleščini za najobičajnejše večbesedne zveze (Lewis, 2000) in enega temeljnih sestavnih delov sporazumevalne zmožnosti (Nation, 2001). Prav zato lahko trdimo, da je poučevanje kolokacij tako pri pouku angleščine za splošne kot za specifične namene temeljnega pomena. Tudi na področju pomorske angleščine so prepoznavanje in razumevanje ter tvorba raba kolokacij bistveni elementi pouka (Cole in dr., 2007). V sodobnem poučevanju pomorske angleščine ravno učenje kolokacij (predvsem kolokacij tipa glagol + samostalnik) predstavlja enega najbolj učinkovitih načinov za bogatenje besedišča in terminologije ter pripomore k izboljšanju tekočnosti rabe angleškega jezika. Vlogo kolokacij pri učenju tujega jezika priznava tudi Skupni evropski jezikovni okvir (Svet Evrope, 2001).

Na področju pomorske angleščine za navtike sta Višan & Georgescu (2011) opravila temeljito študijo o kolokacijah in »kolokacijski zmožnosti« (Hill, 1999) na ladjah. Nasprotno pa na področju pomorske angleščine za ladijske strojnike raziskav o rabi kolokacij še nimamo. Članek zato poskuša na temelju manjšega korpusa elektronskih sporočil identificirati najpomembnejše kolokacije za področje pomorske angleščine za ladijske strojnike. Kot temeljno vodilo za določanje kolokacij se avtorici opirata na pogostost sopojavljanja, saj v korpusu ta kaže splošno sprejetost določene besedne zveze v strokovni skupnosti (Schmitt in Carter, 2004). Kljub temu pa je pomembno upoštevati specifične potrebe posamezne skupine učencev, kar ostaja v domeni vsakega učitelja.

Avtorici sta raziskavo, ki je privedla do praktičnih primerov jezikovnih opravil za izboljšanje poznavanja in tvorbe rabe angleških kolokacij v pisni komunikaciji pri pouku angleškega jezika med študenti ladijskega strojništva, izvedli v več fazah. Najprej sta v desetih učbenikih pomorske angleščine za ladijske strojnike (od tega je en učbenik slovenskega avtorja) ugotavljali, v kolikšni meri so kolokacije vključene v učna gradiva. V skladu s pričakovanji sta ugotovili, da kolokacije v učbenikih pomorske angleščine za ladijske strojnike niso pogosto zastopane. Analiza kaže tudi, da se jezikovna opravila za učenje kolokacij pogosteje pojavljajo v novejših učbenikih in da prevladujejo naloge povezovalnega tipa, ki pa ne omogočajo tvorbe rabe kolokacij.

V drugi fazi sta avtorici izvedli analizo manjšega korpusa (95,893 pojavnic) elektronskih sporočil upraviteljev stroja v angleškem jeziku in se pri tem osredotočili na kolokacije tipa glagol + samostalnik in pridevnik + samostalnik. Na temelju ugotovljenih najpogostejših kolokacij v zaključnem delu predstavljata vrsto različnih jezikovnih opravil za sprejemniško in tvorbo rabe kolokacij (prepoznavanje kolokacij v besedilu, popravljanje napak, iskanje vsiljivca, povezovanje, prevajanje, izpolnjevanje vrzeli v besedilu, vprašanja izbirnega tipa

in pisanje) in poudarjata pomembnost uporabe avtentičnih besedil, s katerimi lahko učitelj izboljša proces poučevanja in dopolni učbeniška gradiva tako, da se čim bolj približa učnim potrebam svojih študentov.

Ključne besede: kolokacije, kolokacijska zmožnost, pomorska angleščina za ladijske strojnike, korpusna raziskava.

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Standardizacija usposabljanja in ocenjevanja pomorske angleščine v sklopu mednarodno usklajenega na vsebino osredinjenega učenja in poučevanja

Mednarodna konvencija o standardih za usposabljanje, izdajanje spričeval in ladijsko stražarjenje pomorščakov (STCW; IMO, 2011) od kadetov na področju pomorske angleščine zahteva visoko sporazumevalno zmožnost. Vendar pa konvencija sama ne vsebuje nikakršnih priporočil, kako naj po svetu razpršeno usposabljanje in izobraževanje ter tudi ocenjevanje poenotimo tako, da bomo povsod dosegali enake standarde. Odgovornost za standardizacijo ocenjevanja pomorske angleščine med kadeti je tako prepuščena vsaki posamezni instituciji za izobraževanje pomorščakov, kar nedvomno vodi k velikim razlikam pri interpretaciji zahtevanih standardov.

Eden izmed osrednjih interesov Mednarodnega združenja učiteljev pomorstva (IMLA) in Mednarodne konference za pomorsko angleščino (IMEC) zato je razvoj poenotениh načinov ocenjevanja. Ključni prispevek avtorice v tem članku je predlog, po katerem bi do na svetovni ravni poenotениh standardov za ocenjevanje pomorske angleščine lahko vodilo medpredmetno sodelovalno in na vsebino osredinjeno učenje in poučevanje, ki ga podpira tudi nedavno prenovljeni Vzorčni učni načrt 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino (IMO, 2015).

Pri vsaki obravnavi (ocenjevanja) pomorske angleščine se moramo zavedati ključnega dejstva, da je kompleksnost pomorske angleščine odraz kompleksnosti vseh poklicev, ki jo uporabljajo. Pomorska angleščina, ki jo uporablja ladijski častnik, se tako popolnoma razlikuje od pomorske angleščine, ki jo uporablja ladijski agent, zaposlen na kopnem. Nadaljnji vidiki, ki jih je potrebno upoštevati, so medkulturne razlike, raznolikost nacionalnih zakonodaj, ki narekujejo visokošolsko izobraževanje, in usposobljenost učiteljev pomorske angleščine, ki je prepuščena posameznim izobraževalnim institucijam.

Avtorica v nadaljevanju podrobno predstavi poučevanje pomorske angleščine na študijskem programu ladijskega strojništva v Kalmarju na Švedskem. Študijski program in tudi ocenjevanje so v procesu bolonjske preнове zastavili medpredmetno ter sodelovalno in na ta način poskusili zadostiti tako mednarodnim kot nacionalnim zakonodajnim zahtevam, prav tako pa učiteljem pomorske angleščine in strokovnih predmetov omogočiti učinkovitejše sodelovanje v sklopu na vsebino osredinjenega učenja in poučevanja. Prednosti medučiteljskega sodelovanja so zaznali tudi študentje in mednje prišteli predvsem relevantnost uporabe angleškega jezika v zanje relevantnem kontekstu, pomembnost usvajanja strategij za vseživljenjsko učenje, povezavo med pravo in nosilno vsebino obravnavanih besedil, ustreznost uporabljenega registra, pomembnost poznavanja strokovne vsebine, uporabo tujega jezika stroke in ne splošnega tujega jezika in nenazadnje uporabo tujega jezika za prenos strokovnih vsebin.

Ključne besede: pomorska angleščina, usposabljanje in izobraževanje pomorščakov, ocenjevanje, medučiteljsko sodelovanje, sporazumevalna zmožnost kadetov, na vsebino osredinjeno učenje in poučevanje.

Model Course 3.17. Maritime English, 2015 Edition, Mednarodna pomorska organizacija. Mednarodna pomorska organizacija, London (2015). 228 strani. ISBN 978-92-801-1622-9.

Recenzija obravnava Vzorčni učni načrt 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino, ki ga je po uvedbi zadnjih (t.i. 'manilskih') dopolnitev k Mednarodni konvenciji o standardih za usposabljanje, izdajanje spričeval in ladijsko stražarjenje pomorščakov (STCW) izdala Mednarodna pomorska organizacija (IMO). Če STCW konvencija določa standarde, ki jih morajo za varno in učinkovito delo v pomorstvu dosegati pomorščaki, pa vzorčni učni načrti služijo kot vodilo pri načrtovanju in izvajanju učnega procesa.

Vzorčni učni načrt 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino je razdeljen na dve temeljni poglavji. Prvo poglavje se osredotoča na splošno pomorsko angleščino na osnovni ravni, drugo pa na specifično pomorsko angleščino na nadaljevalni ravni. Drugo poglavje je dalje členjeno glede na specifične delovne naloge pomorščakov na specifično pomorsko angleščino za ladijske častnike krova, ladijske častnike stroja, častnike elektronike, radiooperaterje in pomorščake na potniških ladjah. Poglavjema sledi priročnik za učitelje, ki temelji na »načelih, terminologiji in tehnikah sodobnega komunikacijskega pristopa k jezikovnemu poučevanju« (str. 109). V priročniku so podrobno obdelane metode in tehnike za poučevanje slovnice, besedišča, štirih temeljnih sporazumevalnih spretnosti in standardnih fraz v pomorski komunikaciji (SMCP; IMO, 2001). V prilogah najdemo še kratek pregled standardov za pomorsko angleščino, kot jih določa STCW konvencija, vzorčni učni pripravi za splošno in specifično pomorsko angleščino, priporočene načine preverjanja in ocenjevanja znanja ter splošna navodila za uporabo vzorčnih učnih načrtov.

Vzorčni učni načrt 3.17 za pomorsko angleščino odlikujejo številne prednosti. Prva zagotovo je osredinjenost na učenca, saj upošteva tako stopnjo jezikovnega predznanja, različne potrebe glede na specifičnost delovnih nalog in enakomeren razvoj vseh jezikovnih spretnosti (z zavedanjem, da je govorna spretnost tista, ki je za pomorstvo najpomembnejša). Poleg osredinjenosti na učenca lahko zasledimo tudi upoštevanje potreb učitelja pomorske angleščine, tako izkušenega kot novinca. Predvsem za slednje je vzorčni učni načrt nepogrešljiv pripomoček, ki jih bo korak za korakom vodil k učinkovitemu poučevanju relevantnih vsebin. Priročnik za učitelje bo nedvomno zanimiv tudi za tiste, ki poučujejo tuje jezike (stroke) na drugih smereh, saj povzema temeljna načela komunikacijskega pristopa, izčrpno pa govori tudi o možnih načinih sodelovanja med učitelji angleščine in učitelji strokovnih predmetov, kar je ključno za kakovostno izvajanje pouka vsakega tujega jezika stroke. Zanimivo tudi je, da vzorčni učni načrt pomembno vlogo namenja e-učenju, vključujoč mobilno podprto učenje.

Kljub nespornim prednostim pa publikacija ponuja tudi nekaj priložnosti za izboljšanje. Prva je nujna posodobitev navedenih priporočenih knjižnih virov s področja didaktike tujih jezikov, navedba Skupnega evropskega jezikovnega okvira med temi viri, temeljitejša in na jezik osredinjena obravnava video gradiv, prav tako pa tudi preverjanja in ocenjevanja. K vzorčnemu učnemu načrtu bi bilo smiselno dodati vzorčna ocenjevalna testa tako za splošno kot specifično pomorsko angleščino.

Glede na navedene prednosti lahko povzamemo, da gre za temeljno orodje vsakega učitelja angleščine kot tujega jezika stroke na področju pomorstva, zelo uporaben didaktičen pripomoček pa je lahko tudi za ostale učitelje tujega jezika (stroke).

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