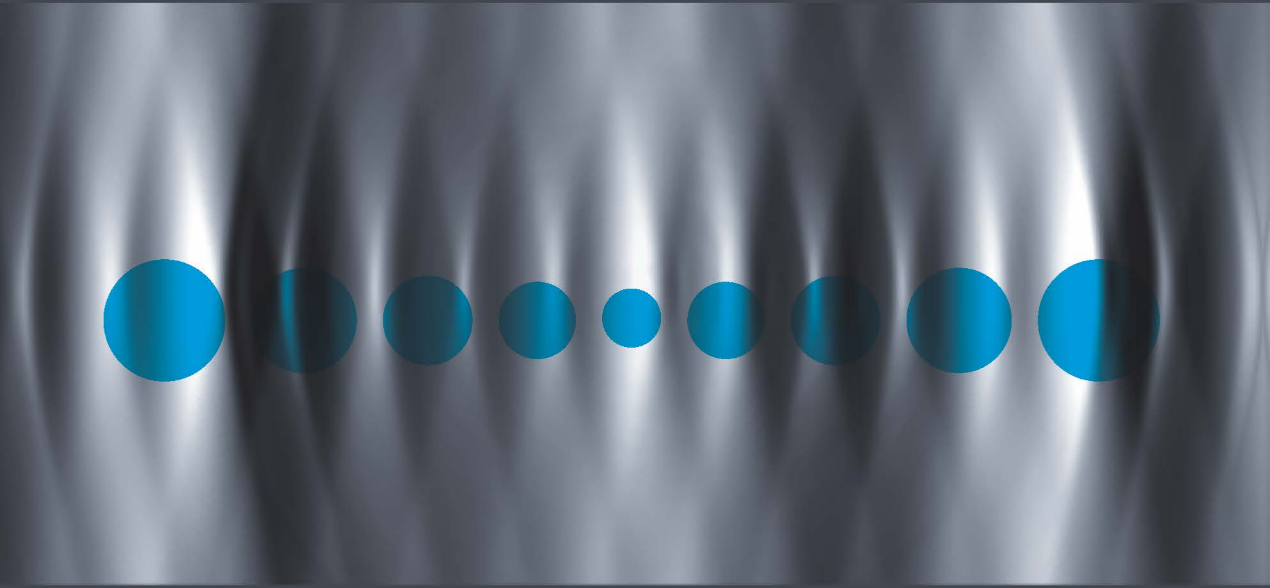
Łódzkie Studia z Językoznawstwa Angielskiego i Ogólnego
Łódź Studies in English and General Linguistics

5

Languages for Specific Purposes in Educational Contexts

Editors

Stanisław Goźdź-Roszkowski
Aleksandra Beata Makowska



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Introduction

The collection of articles in this book presents some of the latest developments in the study of languages for specific purposes from the educational perspective. These contributions come from selected papers read during an international conference "Languages for Specific Purposes. Education and Career Opportunities (SPECLANG)" held at the University of Łódź in March 2016. The present volume is one of three volumes devoted to educational contexts and work-related aspects of using specialised languages. The other two volumes published in German and Polish include *Fachsprachen – Ausbildung – Karrierechancen*, edited by Agnieszka Stawikowska-Marcinkowska and *Języki specjalistyczne. Edukacja. Perspektywy. Kariera* edited by Jacek Makowski, both volumes published with Primum Verbum. Łódź. All these volumes reflect a growing interest in teaching specialised languages for occupational purposes. More specifically, they reflect the commitment of the University of Łódź to creating new and innovative programmes designed to meet the challenges of the present-day corporate environment. The recently launched BA-level programme in *Linguistics for Business* is just one example. Started in 2013, this interdisciplinary programme combines a clear focus on specialised languages (business, finance, law, logistics, etc.) with a fair knowledge of economics and management. The aim of the SPECLANG conferences (which are held every 1,5 years) is to provide a forum for the exchange of ideas and good practices in the area of teaching specialised languages. The present volume is intended as a step towards achieving this goal.

About the book

This volume opens with a contribution from **Halina Sierocka**, who in the chapter *Perceptions of Language and Subject Specialists on the Linguistic Needs of Law Students*, investigates how legal and language specialists view the needs of law students as regards learning English for professional purposes (i.e. Legal English). The empirical study contributes to the perennial debate on the distinction between the pedagogic content and subject matter knowledge and their importance in teaching English for Specific Purposes. Its results are promising as they suggest that there are a number of aspects that both groups of specialists agree upon and they could benefit from each other's experience and knowledge thus creating a positive impact on teaching and learning of English for legal purposes at any tertiary education institution.

Aleksandra Matulewska and **Tomasz Janiak** in their chapter *Towards a Model of Comprehensive Teaching of the Language of Logistics* provide a valuable insight into the complexities of designing an effective course in the language of logistics. Just as in the previous paper, the authors address the issue of varied needs and expectations of both learners and teachers. They recognise the growing importance of logistics as one of the most dynamically developing sectors and offer a tentative model of comprehensive teaching of the language of logistics.

The next two chapters focus on teaching specialised language in medical contexts. First, **Jozefa Artimová** in the chapter *Latin as a Language for Specific Purposes in a Textbook for Bachelor Programme Students of Midwifery-Obstetrics*, describes challenges faced by anyone wishing to be involved in teaching or learning a "dead" language as an LSP. More specifically, the author focuses on a project (IMPACT – Innovation, methodology and quality of language education and professional education in foreign languages in the tertiary sphere in the Czech Republic) launched at the Language Centre of Masaryk University which led to the creation of a brand-new, authentic and innovative teaching material tailored to the needs of students of Midwifery-Obstetrics.

In a similar vein, the contribution from **Sylwia Makara-Paciorek** on *The Use of the Mobile Platform Android in Teaching English for Medical Purposes in the Project Vetionary* demonstrates how the task of teaching English to veterinary medicine students could be facilitated by resorting to specialist veterinary dictionary made available in the form of a mobile application. The author shows that this cutting-edge Vetionary project is not only a convenient and effective electronic tool to disseminate specialist knowledge but it also aims to create a community around the project by involving students in its further development.

If English is the most commonly described specialised language, then business remains a domain which has received considerable attention from researchers and language educators alike. In the next three chapters, their authors set out to reveal the ways in which Business English should be effectively taught to prepare students to face the growing pressures of the current job market, especially in the corporate environment.

Aleksandra Beata Makowska in her chapter on *Tailoring the Business English Course Syllabus to Market Needs* argues that preparing business English courses should reflect the highly varied and dynamic contexts in which English is used. A general Business English course very often fails to address some very specific and highly specialised needs of its learners. The chapter points to the central importance of carrying out a thorough needs analysis before any such course is designed and implemented. This issue is then discussed and illustrated in a case study which describes the design of a syllabus for a Business English course taught as part of a BA programme „Linguistics for Business" offered at the University of Łódź.

The next chapter *The Development of Basic Business Correspondence Skills by English Philology Students* written by **Teresa Maria Włosowicz** continues to explore the issue of optimising language resources to help students develop their Business English skills. In her chapter, the author discusses difficulties and challenges linked to business correspondence based on her study of how students have acquired the writing skill over a period of time. The results of the study shed new light on the most commonly encountered problems.

This business English part of the volume closes with a joint chapter *Authentic Materials in the LSP Classroom – Responding to Demands of the Job Market* written by **Aleksandra Beata Makowska** and **Joanna Duda**. The authors start with the assumption that standard textbook materials very often do not meet students' needs because they fail to reflect the realities and interests of local business environments. To address this issue, this chapter draws on several specific examples to demonstrate how authentic materials are used in Business English courses taught as part of the BA programme „Linguistics for Business" at the University of Łódź.

The next chapter *University Cooperation with Business Environment in the Digital Era* by **Jarosław Płuciennik** and **Michał Wróblewski** deviates slightly from the other contributions to this volume. It takes a broader view of the relations between academic and business environments by describing what the authors refer to as 'disruptive innovation' occurring in the area of higher education. This innovation is linked to the recent phenomenon of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) and development of Big Data. Arguing that education is becoming a social service, this chapter advocates the need to focus on basic soft skills as well on specialisation and narrow academic disciplines. The authors clarify their position by describing a case study, i.e. an educational project called iProfessionals.

The last two chapter address the issue of terminology in specialised languages. **Sanja Kiš Žuvela** and **Tomislava Bošnjak Botica** in their chapter *BFFs or False Friends? Internationalisms and Their 'Equivalents' in Croatian Musical Terminology Standardisation* explore the evolution of music-related terminology in Croatian. This evolution is described in terms of a tension between internationalisms based on classical Greek and Latin foundations and prevalent in most of the 20th century and the formation of new terms having their roots in the native language. Set against this background, the chapter presents the results of an ongoing interdisciplinary research project, Conmusterm, which aims to standardise basic musical terminology in Croatian.

In summary, the chapters in this book, provide examples of cutting-edge research in languages for specific purposes approached from the educational and teaching perspectives. With the range of perspectives and didactic contexts outlined in this volume, I hope to stimulate discussion on ways in which the process of teaching specialised languages in tertiary education could be facilitated and made even more effective. I also hope that this selection of chapters will shed new light on the role and place of specialised languages in the wider context of challenges faced by students in the course of their future employment prospects.

Stanisław Goźdź-Roszkowski

Perceptions of Language and Subject Specialists on the Linguistic Needs of Law Students

Halina Sierocka

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Abstract

Many researchers highlight the fact that it is a convoluted task to make a distinction between the pedagogic content and subject matter knowledge while teaching English for Specific Purposes. Other scholars claim that subject specialists differ significantly from language specialists due to different teaching methods, as well as due to the status of disciplinary entities.

This paper endeavours to show the outcomes of research conducted at the Faculty of Law, University of Białystok, among subject-specialists teaching law in English and language specialists teaching Legal English. The aim of the research was to investigate how both groups perceive the needs of law students as regards learning English for professional purposes (i.e. Legal English) and what methodology they exploit to make the process of learning Legal English effective. The study assumed mainly a qualitative methodology encompassing a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The author also hopes to shed some light on possible ways of effective co-operation between language and subject specialists, which would contribute to better language acquisition on the part of the law students.

Keywords: language specialist, subject specialist, needs analysis, English for Legal Purposes.

1. Introduction

The demands of a Brave New World (the end of the Second World War and the Oil crisis which had a major impact on the world economy), the revolution in linguistics (which meant focusing more on the ways in which language is used in real communication instead of concentrating on the features of the language) and focus on the learner (the demand to design language courses specifically to meet the different needs and interests of learners) are the three factors, according to Gatehouse (2001), which significantly contributed to the emergence of English for Specific Purposes. Language studies have moved on from the image of hobby and the satisfaction of intellectual kudos and are now viewed as a valuable tool in facilitating success in professional life, therefore specifying the situations in which the student will use the language is of critical importance. This objective may be accomplished by means of needs analysis which is, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 54) claim, "the irreducible minimum of an ESP approach to course design […] since it is the awareness of course design of a target situation that distinguishes the ESP learner from the learner of General English."

Even though there is a considerable amount of literature (Widdowson 1983; Brindley 1989; Benesch 1996; Long 1996; Spratt 1999; Benesch 2001; Deutch 2003; Basturkmen 2006) on the critical approach to needs analysis and some abundant problematic areas are mentioned like the fact that objective needs may not match subjective needs, or perspectives and perceptions of needs differ and are often in contradiction, or as some scholars claim it is a tool that may serve the interests of the institutions at the expense of learners, still numerous scholars and authors (Munby 1978; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Robinson 1991; West 1994; Jordan 1997; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Deutch 2003; Jeong 2005; Cowling 2007; Songhori 2008; Kassim and Ali 2010; Wozniak 2010; Akbari 2011; Tsao 2011; Lockwood 2012) consider needs analysis (also known as needs assessment) a crucial instrument in designing and conducting any language course, not necessarily an ESP course. Jeong (2005) remarks that the necessity for needs analysis arises from the assumption that when language teaching is focused on what learners are interested in, language learning is most effective. Furthermore, as Bacha and Bahous (2008) highlight, a needs analysis facilitates the recognition of what students need to study and what teachers need to teach hence contributes to a considerable extent to effective ESP (thus English for Legal Purposes) syllabus design, its development and implementation and better helps students to achieve learning outcomes.

2. Purpose and context of the research

The aim of the research project was to investigate how teachers of English for legal purposes perceive the needs of their law students in terms of course content, skills that would be essential at prospective work or methodology used (i.e. learning strategies, aids, the role of grammar, etc.). The teacher of English for legal purposes is assumed here not only as a linguist teaching Legal English to law students (hereinafter referred to as language specialist) but also an instructor teaching law in English (hereinafter referred to as subject specialist). In addition, the research project endeavours to answer the question whether and to what extent both language and subject specialists differ in the perception of their students' prospective linguistic competences.

The research was carried out at the University of Białystok among teachers of the Department of Foreign Languages who teach Legal English and teachers of the Faculty of Law who teach their subjects in English. As an outcome of the Erasmus mobility program, introduced in 2002 at the Faculty of Law, there are now 77 courses taught in foreign languages, 54 of which are conducted in English, 9 in German, 11 in Russian, and 3 in Spanish, which provided a solid background to do the research.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Sample

The sample for the whole study comprised 34 teachers working at the Faculty of Law, of the University of Białystok. The research was carried out among 9 language specialists and 25 subject-specialists. For the purpose of the research, it was assumed that a language specialist is an instructor teaching English to law students, whereas a subject specialist is an instructor teaching law in English.

3.1.1. Language specialists

There are 10 teachers teaching Legal English, all employed at the Department of Foreign Languages (interdepartmental unit of the University of Białystok, providing services to all faculties), however one of the teachers (unfortunately a very experienced one) without reason refused to participate in the research.

The language specialists are all experienced teachers of General English (the least experienced teacher has been teaching for 13 years and the most experienced for 24 years). As far as teaching English for Specific Purposes is concerned i.e. Legal English, the spread of experience is wider (from 4 up to 25) but teachers with fewer years of experience (4–12 years) predominate. In the main the language specialists have a degree in applied linguistics or English philology. Three of them possess a PhD degree in arts and one of them graduated both in English and in law.

All of the language specialists teach law students (mostly those in their first and second year of studies). Some (33%) also teach Legal English to legal professionals (judges and legal advisors) and occasionally to translators and academics. Aside from their teaching activities, 78% of the language specialists use Legal English in translation and court interpreting and 55% of them use it for designing their teaching materials for classes with law students.

The majority of language specialists (67%) took up teaching Legal English because they were directed to teach at the Faculty of Law. It was not their intended choice or question of interest but an obligatory allotment within their work contract. Only one respondent (11%) started to teach Legal English because she or he was interested in the subject. The other reasons for taking up the post concerned: being burned-out after teaching General English for too long (11%), by coincidence (11%).

The majority of language specialists learnt Legal English on their own (67%), working mainly with authentic material. They also find attending conferences and workshops on Legal English useful in learning the subject matter (33%). Some (33%) believe they learnt a lot preparing for their classes.

3.1.2. Subject-specialists

27 subject specialists teach their subjects in English at the Faculty of Law. 25 of them participated in the research. Two of them, despite much effort taken by the researcher to contact them neither answered telephone calls nor emails. As far as experience in teaching law in their native language is concerned, there is a huge diversity here. This research group encompassed both very experienced instructors (38 years of experience) and those who have just begun their professional career (2 years of experience). Most of the subject specialists however possess relevant experience (13 years on average) in teaching their subject. The subject specialists have been teaching law in English for 6–7 years on average but there are some teachers who have been giving lectures for over 14 years as well as those who have just started teaching law in English. All of the subject specialists possess a PhD degree in law and eight of them (32%) hold the title of Associate Professor (*dr habilitowany*).

All the subject specialists teach their legal domain in English to international students (mostly Spanish) who come to the faculty within their Erasmus mobility programs. The students are usually in their second, third or fourth years of studies.

In keeping with the language specialists, the majority of subject specialists (56%) started to teach legal English because they were asked to do so due to the Erasmus student mobility programme implemented at the Faculty of Law, by the University of Białystok. Unlike language specialists, subject specialists could refuse to teach in English if they felt their linguistic competence was inadequate. Some subject specialists took up teaching Legal English for professional development (32%), or because they wanted to be exposed to English (24%), or to improve their linguistic competences because they often participate in international conferences (12%). One respondent undertook to teach law in English because it represented a challenge.

The subject specialists learnt Legal English by various ways and it is frequently not by the same method. The most common way of learning subject-specific vocabulary covers working on their own initiative using authentic material (80% of subject specialists exploited this method) attending foreign conferences, workshops, overseas programs and scholarships (40%), attending Legal English courses and workshops (32%) and working on the preparation of material for their own classes (16%).

3.2. Research instruments and research questions

The research project assumed a qualitative and quantitative methodology encompassing a questionnaire (Appendix A) and a semi-structured interview conducted with language and subject-specialists.

The research questions referred to the following aspects:

– general objectives law students desire to achieve during the Legal English course;
– the skills which are most useful in the students' domains;
– the course content (the coverage of particular legal domains and the role of grammar and vocabulary);
– teaching and learning strategies and methods which are most efficient while learning Legal English;
– the reasons for their learning Legal English.

Specific research questions included in the questionnaire and interview were as follows:

– *What would law students like to achieve during the legal English course?*
– *Which specific objectives within the four skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) are the most important to them?*
– *Which particular discipline of law is the most useful for law students?*
– *What is the role of grammar in such a course?*
– *Which skill/skills is/are the most helpful for them while learning a foreign language?*
– *Which is/are the most effective way(s)/grouping(s) of studying for law students?*
– *Which is the most important element of Legal English learning?*
– *What aid/aids is/are the most helpful in the process of foreign language (including Legal English) learning?*
– *What do law students need Legal English for?*

The data essential to answering the research questions is both quantitative and qualitative in character and were gathered by means of the needs analysis

(Appendix A) carried out among all specialists. The questions included in the questionnaire were expanded and/or clarified during the interviews. The specialists' reflections were of a qualitative character. The collected data were interpreted and conclusions drawn. Finally, further suggestions and recommendations were made.

4. Results of the study

4.1. General objectives law students desire to achieve during the Legal English course

Both groups were asked to mark the two most important general objectives of the Legal English course which law students might want to achieve. As figure 1 shows, half of the subject specialists (50%) considered developing

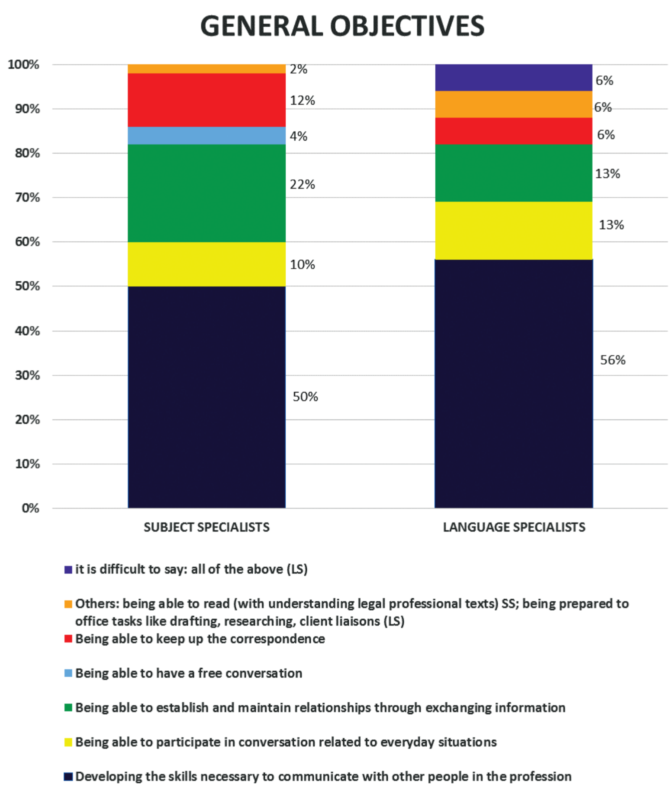

Fig. 1. General objectives of law students for Legal English courses in the eyes of subject and language specialists

Source: own study

the necessary skills to communicate with other people in their field of work as the primary aim of the course. In second place, they put the ability to establish and maintain relationships through the exchange of information (42%). Maintaining correspondence was also thought to be important by 12% of the subject specialists. The language specialists also found developing the necessary skills to communicate with other people in their field of work as the primary aim of the course, however, more respondents (56%) opted for that choice than among the subject specialists. However, as figure 1 depicts, they are more fragmented as far as other options are concerned. The group put two objectives in second place i.e. establishment and maintenance of relationships through the exchange of information (13%) and being able to have free conversation (13%), whereas the remaining options were each selected by 6% of the language specialists.

4.2. The skills which are most useful in their domains

The respondents were asked to mark the top three objectives within the four skills i.e. writing, speaking, listening, and reading.

The results of the needs analysis reveal that formal correspondence was the most vital element both to the subject specialists (31%) and the language specialists (33%). In addition, both groups of respondents (25% of the subject specialists and 26% of the language specialists) selected writing reports, proceedings, notices and memos in English as their second choice. However, they do not match with their third top choice. Learning how to write pleadings and statements of case by the subject-specialists (22%) and how to prepare application forms and questionnaires by the language specialists (15%) were merited third place in terms of significance. This disparity seems to confirm that practising particular professions affects the perception of the students' needs.

Interestingly, both groups marked the same top three sub-skills as far as speaking is concerned. Public speaking (i.e. lectures, commercial presentations, speeches, etc.) was ranked in first place by 31% of the subject specialists and 35% of the language specialists. Negotiating and giving opinion were equally important for the subject specialists (24% for each sub-skill), whereas the language specialists found the skill of negotiating in English (27%) slightly more central than giving opinion (23%).

The results reveal that listening for details is thought to be the most vital for the subject specialists (27%) and listening to public statements (e.g. information, instructions and warnings, etc.) was chosen second (21%). With their next choice the subject specialists were relatively fragmented as they placed understanding telephone conversations third (17%), however, understanding TV or radio news was a close choice as well (15%). The language specialists seem to be more decisive in their choices as 30% of them selected listening to public statements (e.g. information, instructions and warnings, etc.) as the most essential listening skill, which was followed by understanding telephone conversations (26%), whereas listening for details came third (19%).

Both the subject specialists and language specialists were confident in expressing exactly what law students actually need in the field of reading. Understanding authentic materials is undoubtedly a high priority for the respondents (34% of the subject specialists and 33% of the language specialists). Searching for and understanding particular information was ranked second (29% of the subject specialists and 26% of the language specialists) and improving and revising vocabulary on the basis of authentic materials third (19% of the subject specialists and 30% of the subject specialists). It is noteworthy to highlight that the marked discrepancy in the respondents' third choice most probably results from the different objectives both groups of teachers attempt to achieve during their classes. Subject specialists seem to focus more on teaching/understanding the content and the message conveyed in the analysed texts, whereas for language specialists specific vocabulary, seems to be a matter of priority.

4.3. The course content

Three aspects of course content were analysed. They encompassed the coverage of particular legal domains and their share in the Legal English course, the role of grammar in the course and the most crucial element of the course (choosing from grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation).

As shown in figure 2, in the case of legal disciplines (the respondents were asked to mark a maximum four disciplines), no discipline commands a clear majority. The most useful in the opinion of both groups', was civil law, which was selected by 20% of the subject specialists and by 21% of the language specialists, most probably due to the fact that civil law is one of the broadest legal fields which includes four other important disciplines of law i.e. family law, intellectual property law, property law and inheritance law. The subject specialists also marked European law and contracts (each discipline being mentioned by 14% of the respondents), whereas the language specialists' chose company law (15%) and employment law (9%).

As far as grammar is concerned, the respondents (both language specialists and subject specialists) were positive that only essential grammatical structures should be discussed within the course for legal

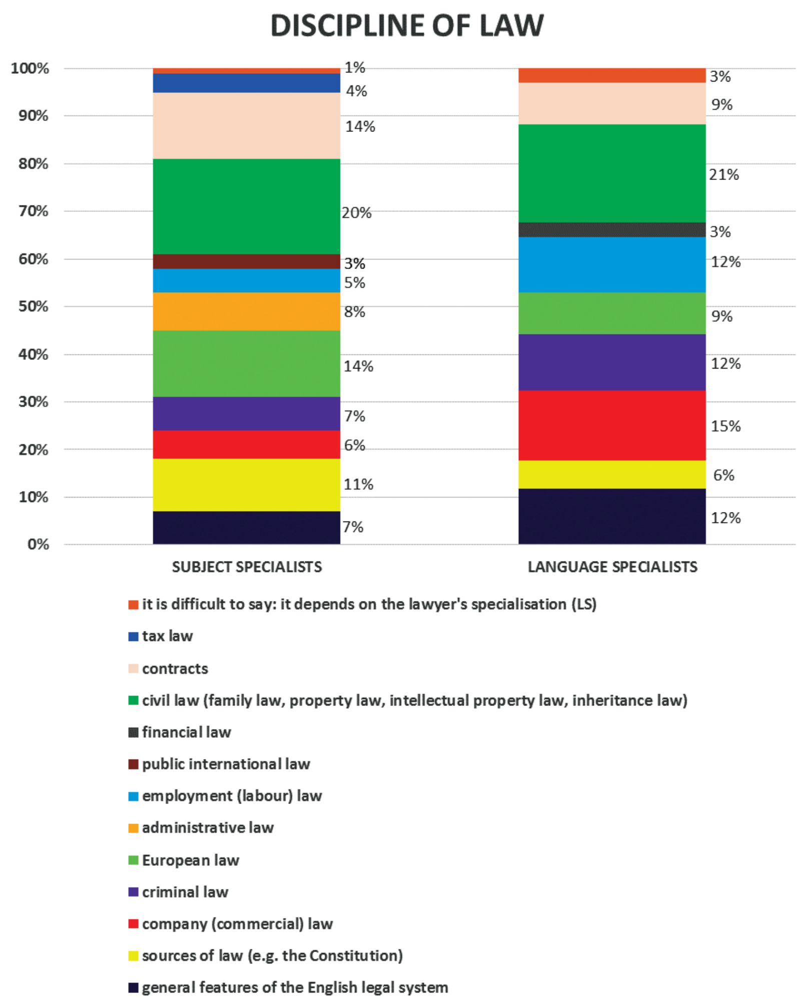

Fig. 2. Disciplines of law selected by the respondents

Source: own study

purposes, however, the language specialists were more confident (78%) than the subject specialists (54%) about their first choice. Interestingly, almost as many subject specialists believed that grammar should be revised thoroughly during the course (35%) as the subject specialists who expressed their opinion that such a course should cover no grammar at all (33%) (figure 3).

Taking into consideration the most important element of the course of English for legal purposes, all of the respondents from both groups (100%) pointed to vocabulary.

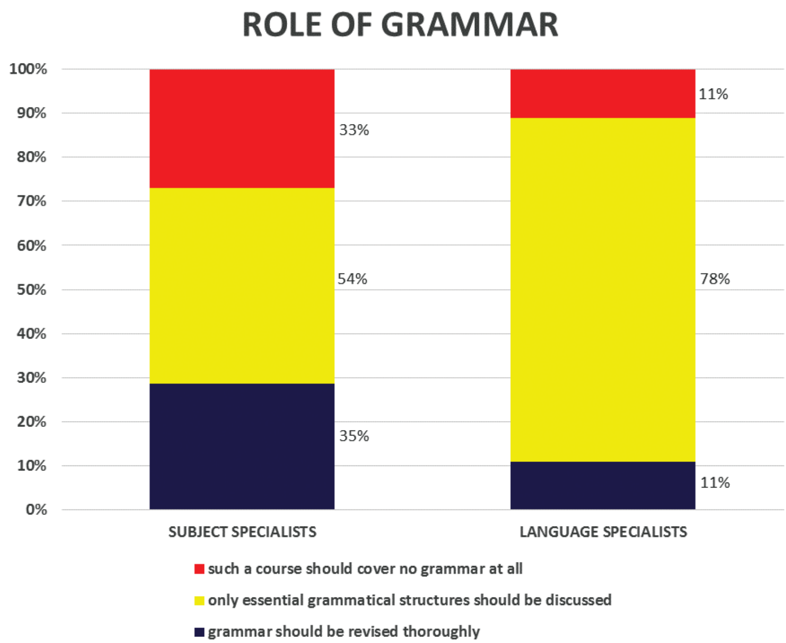

Fig. 3. The role of grammar in a course of Legal English

Source: own study

4.4. Teaching and learning strategies and methods

The analysed teaching and learning strategies and methods concerned the skills and aids which are most helpful while learning Legal English as well as the preferred ways of studying.

On the basis of the results obtained (more than one answer could be given), it can be ascertained that both groups broadly agreed what skills are the most helpful to law students (figure 4). Speaking is perceived as the most useful skill by 33% of the subject specialists, whereas the language specialists treated speaking and reading on an equal basis (each at 28%). The other skills were thought to be important to an equivalent extent, i.e. writing (25%), listening (21%), and reading (21%) in the case of the subject specialists; writing (24%) and listening (21%) in the case of the language specialists. Interestingly, unlike the language specialists, the subject specialists believe that writing is more central for law students than reading. The outcomes reveal that both groups believe in an integrated approach towards foreign language learning in that they find all four skills essential for law students, nevertheless they assert slight dominance of writing and reading.

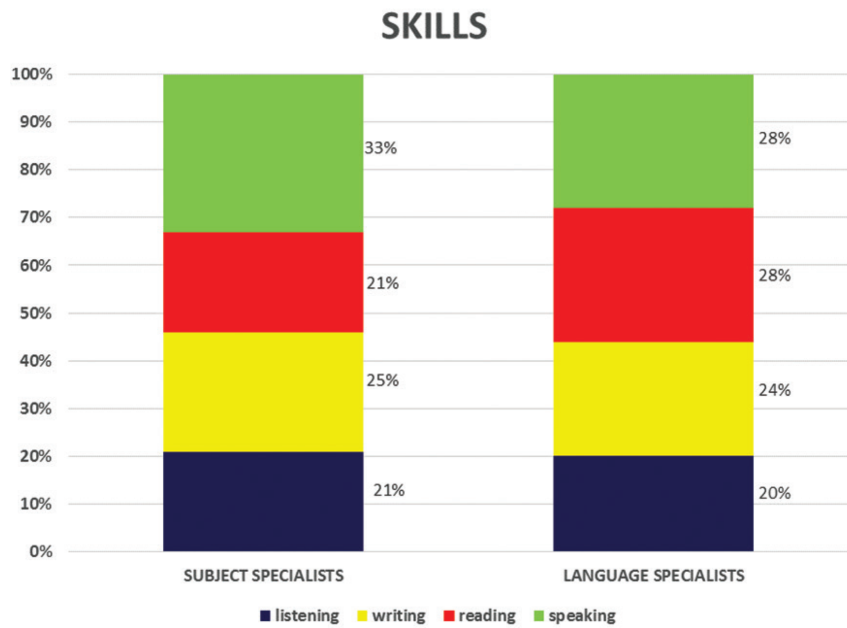

Fig. 4. The skills which are most helpful while learning Legal English

Source: own study

When asked what the most effective ways of studying were (respondents could chose more than one method), both subject specialists and language specialists showed great confidence in group work (37% and 40% respectively), which was the only method of study in which the two groups shared a similar view. As figure 5 illustrates, the subject specialists viewed individual work as being the most valuable (40%), unlike the language specialists who attached a much lesser value (13%). Conversely, pair work is not appreciated by the subject specialists (19%) as much as it is by the language specialists (33%).

As figure 6 depicts, both research groups have a completely different outlook on the aids which best facilitate the process of learning Legal English. The respondents could choose more than one aid and the results demonstrate that the most useful aid in the process of foreign language learning in the subject specialists' opinion (51%) was the opportunity to work with a native speaker, probably due to the fact that she or he is treated as a primary source of the language and a perfect model. In second and third place were the aids which are also thought of as invaluable sources of authentic material; the media (TV, radio and the Internet – 22%) followed by books, magazines and newspapers (17%). Games and puzzles as well as the use of modern technology (surprisingly)

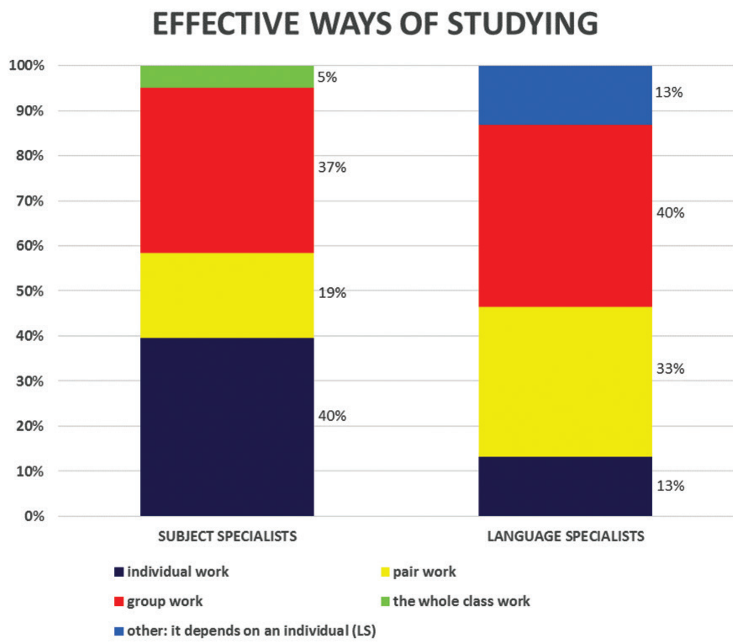

Fig. 5. Effective ways of studying in the eyes of language and subject specialists

Source: own study

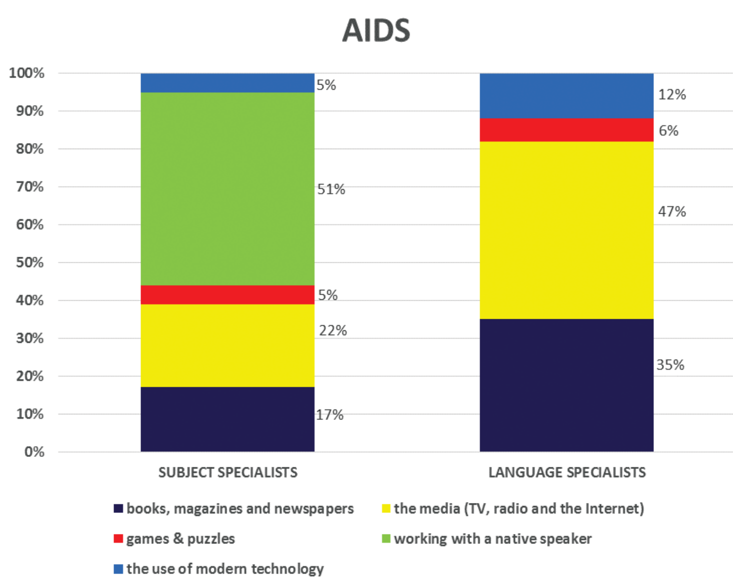

Fig. 6. The most helpful aids in the process of foreign language learning (including Legal English)

Source: own study

turned out to be completely irrelevant (5%). On the other hand, almost half of the language specialists (47%) find the media the most helpful aid with other sources of authentic material (books, magazines and newspapers) which came a close second (37%). In addition, they valued use of modern technology more than the subject specialists (12%) but shared the view that games and puzzles are relatively irrelevant (5%) while learning the language for special purposes. Surprisingly enough, none of the language specialists marked working with a native speaker, the very aid that was assessed as being the most valuable by the other group of respondents.

4.5. Reasons for learning Legal English

The results obtained under this section of the study (figure 7) clearly indicate that both groups of respondents are certain why law students need Legal English. However, while both subject specialists and language specialists enumerate the same reasons why students take up legal English (improving their skills and qualifications, for their work or for their studies) the proportion

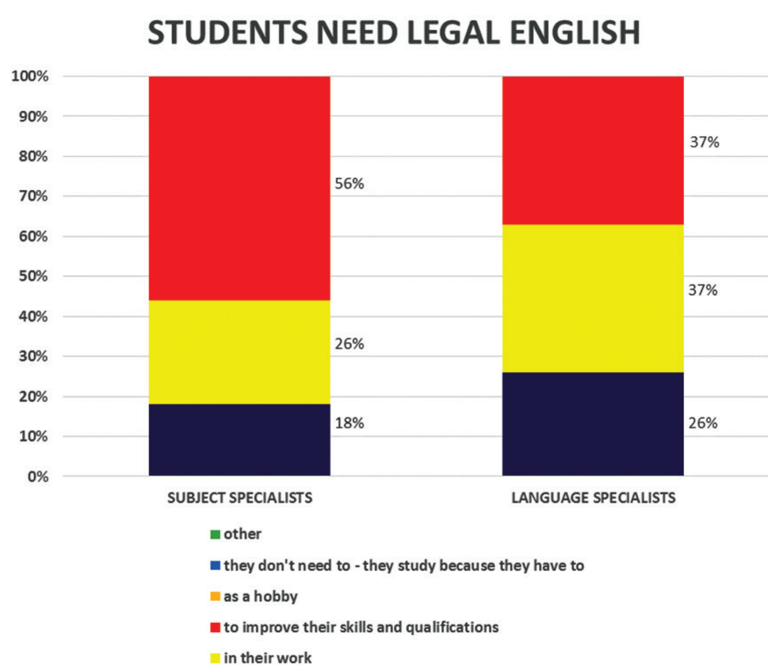

Fig. 7. Reasons for learning Legal English

Source: own study

of the answers given is markedly different. The language specialists believe that law students learn Legal English to improve their skills and qualifications (37%) and in their work 37%. Studies was not viewed as the most significant criterion to learn the language (26%). On the other hand, the majority of subject specialists (56%), believe that law students undoubtedly chose to study Legal English to improve their skills and qualifications, whereas its application for use in their work or in their studies was seen as lesser reasons (26% and 18% respectively).

5. Discussion

The first research aspect concerned the perception of general objectives that law students might set while enrolling for the Legal English course. The results have shown that both the subject specialists and language specialists find developing the skills necessary to communicate with other people in their professional domain as the most desired objective. This is not surprising however as we may assume that in the context of professional communication, developing the indispensable skills to achieve that end seems to be a priority.

The second research area approached referred to specific objectives that law students might wish to achieve during the Legal English course as far as particular skills are concerned. The findings reveal that subject specialists and language specialists agree, or rather agree on, the sub-skills which need to be included/improved in the course of teaching Legal English. Both groups agree that as far as speaking skills are concerned, law students need to learn how to speak publicly, negotiate and be able to give opinion. In terms of reading ability, being able to understand authentic material, to search for and understand particular information as well as improving and revising vocabulary on the basis of authentic material is a top priority in the eyes of both subject and language specialists. Also, both groups agree that while practising listening skills, law students need to focus on listening for details, listening for details and understanding telephone conversations. Where writing skills are concerned, in general respondents shared the same views on the two most important needs i.e. maintaining formal correspondence and writing reports, proceedings, notices and memos, but they disagree on their third option, which probably results from the specificity of their profession (the subject specialists selected writing pleadings and statements of case, whereas the language specialists chose filling in application forms and questionnaires). These results might have implications for teaching English for legal purposes as both groups share the same opinion as to which skills should be practised. This may well encourage better cooperation between these two groups of specialist teachers which undoubtedly would contribute to better language acquisition on the part of the law students.

Interesting findings concern the issue of course content. Even though both research groups agree that vocabulary is the most central for law students in the course of Legal English studies their perception concerning teaching grammar is different. The vast majority of language specialists (78%) claimed that only essential grammatical structures should be discussed during the course of Legal English but the subject specialists were not that certain. Although most shared the language specialists' opinion, a considerable number expressed contrary views, half believing that grammatical issues are crucial the other half believing they are irrelevant. The research also showed that it is hard to ascertain which particular legal disciplines should be included in the curriculum as even among law students there might be various interests and needs depending on specialization.

The fourth aspect that has been researched related to most helpful teaching and learning strategies and methods exploited while learning Legal English. The results revealed that it is the area where both the subject specialists and the language specialists disagreed to the greatest extent taking into consideration particular aspects. Even though both groups present almost the same outlook on the skills which are most helpful to students when learning a foreign language they disagree to a considerable extent in two other aspects i.e. the ways of studying and the aids which facilitate the process of learning the language. As far as ways of studying are concerned the main discrepancy refers to individual work and pair work. The findings show that the subject specialists value individual work more, unlike the language specialists whose work is aimed at generating interaction between interlocutors hence the latter seem to appreciate pair work more. Insofar as teaching aids are concerned the subject specialists believe that law students would benefit most from working with a native speaker. On the other hand, no single language specialist marked that option in the questionnaire; some commented that native speakers are hardly ever prepared for classes so they are not a reliable aid to facilitate the process of learning Legal English. The language specialists (frequently working with younger students) seem to follow technological trends and claim that the source material to be found via the internet and other forms of digital media, in addition to the more traditional means of acquiring knowledge (TV, radio, books, newspapers and periodical publications), greatly assists law students to enhance their command of Legal English.

Last but not least of the aspects examined is the question of how both groups perceive the reasons for students taking a course in legal English. Although the two groups of respondents opted for the same choice of reasons (improving their skills and qualification, for their work or for their studies), the subject specialists seem to be more confident, the majority of respondents indicating that law students definitely wish to improve their professional skills and abilities. The language specialists seem to have a more balanced point of view.

6. Conclusion

In summary, this research project has revealed that the language and subject specialists' perceptions of linguistic needs of law students are fairly alike. The areas that both groups strongly disagreed on refer to only three of the twelve issues researched i.e. the role of grammar, exploitation of teaching aids, and methods of study, which might result from different methodological approaches adopted by the two groups of respondents as a product of their professions and/or individual preferences and habits. Interestingly, the language specialists and subject specialists share the same view on the key elements of the Legal English course i.e. the general objectives of the course, desired abilities and competences within skills and/or sub-skills as well as on the course's more crucial aspects. In addition, both groups perceive the motives for learning Legal English in like manner.

Finally, this paper has also attempted to show possible areas of effective co-operation between language and subject specialists, something which thus far has also been highlighted by a number of other scholars (Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Parker 1990; Morsink, Thomas and Correea 1991; Barron 1992; Gaffield-Vile 1996; Jordan 1997; Buckley 1998; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Barron 2002; Basturkmen 2006; Northcott and Brown 2006; Basturkmen and Shackleford 2015).

This research proved that there are a number of aspects that both groups of specialists agree upon completely and thus our conclusion is that each could benefit from the other's experience and knowledge. This would complement the way each taught their particular speciality, which undoubtedly would have the potential for positive pedagogical impact on the teaching and learning of English for legal purposes at any tertiary education institution.

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APPENDIX A
NEEDS ANALYSIS

I. What would you like to achieve during the legal English course? Please mark max. TWO most important general objectives of Legal English course.

a) I would like to develop the skills necessary to communicate with other people in my trade	
b) I would like to be able to participate in conversation related to everyday situations	
c) I would like to be able to establish and maintain relationships through exchanging information	
d) I would like to be able to have a free conversation	
e) I would like to be able to keep up the correspondence	
f) other: ________________________________	
g) it is difficult to say	

II. Which specific objectives within the skills given below are the most important to you?

Please mark the top THREE in field of WRITING:

a) formal correspondence	
b) informal, private correspondence	
c) pleadings/statements of case	
d) application letters, CVs, invitations	
e) application forms and questionnaires	
f) reports, proceedings, notices, memos, etc.	
g) other	
h) it is difficult to say	

Please mark the top THREE in field of SPEAKING:

a) negotiating	
b) holding telephone conversations	
c) solving problems in particular situations (e.g. at the post office, in a restaurant, etc.)	
d) giving opinions – agreeing and disagreeing	

e) discussing topics of interests (e.g. family, hobbies, travelling, etc.)	
f) speaking to the public (e.g. lectures, commercial presentations, public speeches, etc.)	
g) others	
h) it is difficult to say	

Please mark the top THREE in field of LISTENING:

a) understanding telephone conversations	
b) understanding TV or radio news	
c) obtaining necessary information in different situations (e.g. at the hotel, at the railway station, etc.)	
d) understanding announcements and advertisements	
e) listening for details	
f) listening to public statements (e.g. information, instructions and warnings, etc.)	
g) others	
h) it is difficult to say	

Please mark the top THREE in field of READING:

a) understanding authentic materials (e.g. reading for gist and for details, etc.)	
b) searching for and understanding the particular information	
c) improving and revising the vocabulary on the basis of authentic materials	
d) understanding announcements and commercials	
e) reading for gist	
f) reading and following the instructions	
g) reading for pleasure	
h) others	
i) it is difficult to say	

III. Which particular discipline of law is the most useful for you? Mark max. FOUR disciplines, please.

a) general features of the English legal system	
b) sources of law (e.g. the Constitution)	
c) company (commercial) law	

d) criminal law	
e) European law	
f) administrative law	
g) employment (labour) law	
h) public international law	
i) financial law	
j) civil law (family law, property law, intellectual property law, inheritance law)	
k) contracts	
l) tax law	
m) others	
n) it is difficult to say	

IV. What is the role of grammar in such a course? Mark the appropriate answer, please.

a) grammar should be revised thoroughly
b) only essential grammatical structures should be discussed
c) such a course should cover no grammar at all

V. Which skill/skills is/are the most helpful for you while learning a foreign language? (more than one answer can be given)

a) listening
b) writing
c) reading
d) speaking
e) other

VI. Which is/are the most effective way(s) of studying? Mark max. TWO answers, please.

a) individual work
b) pair work
c) group work
d) the whole class work
e) other

VII. Which is the most important element of Legal English learning? Mark the appropriate answer, please.

a) grammar
b) vocabulary
c) pronunciation

VIII. What is the most helpful in the process of foreign language (including Legal English) learning? Mark max. TWO answers, please.

a) books, magazines and newspapers
b) the media (TV, radio and the Internet)
c) games and puzzles
d) working with a native speaker
e) other

IX. Any suggestions and/or comments?

____

____

RESPONDENT'S PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. I am…

a) a civil servant/clerk
b) an academic teacher
c) a legal practitioner
d) a law student ______ year

2. I need Legal English

a) in my studies
b) in my work
c) to improve my skills and qualifications
d) as a hobby
e) I don't need/won't need that – I study because I have to.
f) other

Towards a Model of Comprehensive Teaching of the Language of Logistics

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Abstract

Teaching specialist languages in Poland reveals the necessity of multidimensional adaptation and localization of textbooks to the needs of learners and educators. In the case of the language of logistics, a group of people learning that LSP as a foreign language is quite diversified. On the one hand, it is composed of students of secondary school educating logistics and forwarding technicians, and on the other hand, students of first and second degree vocational studies and people employed in the logistics industry (in that last case students are often already employed in the profession). Due to the fact that foreign language teachers usually have only philological education, there is a need to include in the teaching process the broadening their knowledge in the field of logistics – not only for the benefit of pupils, but also teachers. In addition, learners of a foreign language expect precise equivalents in two languages. Descriptive and approximate equivalents are not acceptable to them due to the need to fulfill the postulate of effective interlingual communication. For this reason, global textbooks do not meet the expectations of learners. Learning the language of logistics should be combined with acquiring knowledge in that domain through the access to terminological dictionaries and other sources of knowledge created by specialists. The authors present the best practices in this area.

Keywords: language of logistics, LSP, teaching LSPs, model of LSP teaching.

1. Introduction

The present paper deals with the problem of teaching the language of logistics. Logistics is one of the most dynamically developing fields of economy nowadays. As a result of that state of affairs there is a strong market demand for teachers of the language of logistics as a foreign language. The aim of this paper is to provide some insight into the development of a model of courses for languages for specific purposes (LSP) illustrated by a case study of the language of logistics. When analysing the process of teaching and learning LSPs one needs to realise that the learners and teachers have varied needs and expectations. Considering the needs of the majority of learners, it must be stressed that they need to learn the language for occupational purposes to boost their prospects on the employment market. In the majority of cases the teachers start learning LSPs in a way by coincidence as they need to adjust to the curricula imposed on them in their workplace.

First of all, a brief definition of LSPs as well as their division will be presented. Secondly, the authors will present real-life situations in which the language of logistics is taught and acquired (cf. Fisher 1990; Houghton and King 1990). Thirdly, the challenges of the process of teaching and acquiring the language will be discussed. Finally, we are going to present a tentative model of comprehensive linguistic education of the language of logistics (we are focusing on the didactic tools and the process of their preparation) together with conclusions from the monitoring of the process of teaching carried out until 2010 and after 2010. The monitoring of the process has been carried out by the Institute of Logistics and Warehousing (ILIM) in Poznań, Poland. The year 2010 is the border date as the first course books for the English and German language of logistics consulted with teachers were published. The books were warmly welcomed by the teachers and as a result the book for the Russian language of logistics and second editions for the English and German were published by ILIM in 2011 and 2012 respectively. We are also going to present best practices in the field.

2. Languages for Specific Purposes and their division

Languages for specific purposes (LSP) are languages used by specific professional groups (cf. Grucza 2003). We can distinguish for instance the language of medicine, the language of law, the language of chemistry, the language of mathematics and the language of logistics, etc. The LSP may be divided into the language for academic purposes (Henderson and Dudley-Evans 1990; Mason 1990; Hewings 1990) and the language for occupational purposes (Robinson 1991). The language for academic purposes is the language in which scholarly and scientific articles and books are written. The language for occupational purposes in turn is the language used by people working in a given field. The language for academic purposes from the linguistic point of view is standardised. On the other hand, the language for occupational purposes derives from the language for academic purposes but at the same time is subject to linguistic innovation (which is an inalienable element of idiolectal language variation) especially in the spoken form and may have local variants (typical for a given region or even enterprise).[1] In order to communicate in a given LSP speakers need to know not only the lexicon but also the reality of the field (cf. Weigt 2004). Teaching LSPs during foreign language courses is a challenge for language teachers who in the majority of cases are graduates of language studies only and who need to devote time and effort to broaden their knowledge in a given field first to be able to understand the language they are going to teach (cf. Gajewska 2016; Lesiak-Bielawska 2015: 380–392).

3. Where the language of logistics is taught and acquired. A case study of the Polish market

In order to discuss the process of LSP learning and teaching we need to provide some analysis of the process and the needs of process participants (teachers and learners) (cf. Wojnicki 1991; Ligara and Szupelak 2012: 85–97; Gajewska and Sowa 2014: 117–132; Goźdź-Roszkowski and Makowski 2015: 67–89).

As far as Poland is concerned, the language of logistics is taught:

(i) at language courses for secondary school students, university students and people working in the field of logistics;
(ii) in secondary vocational schools running majors trainings for logistic and forwarding technicians, and additionally;
(iii) at universities providing vocational training in the field.

Sometimes also students of language studies are taught languages for specific purposes during practical language courses. But in such instances the language of logistics is chosen rather infrequently (the studies offered by the University of Łódź may be given here as one of all-Poland exceptions). Usually the choice of the language for specific purposes in such instances is conditioned by the teacher who is allowed to choose two or three languages. In such instances the teacher usually uses course books available on the market. The choice of the discipline is conditioned either by the imposed curriculum or the knowledge of the teacher (cf. also Fisher 1990). If the latter situation takes place, the teacher is prone to choose the language he is most familiar with in his opinion.

[1] Cf. about official and vernacular LSP terminology Berend (2013).

4. Challenges of teaching the language of logistics

As far as the process of teaching and learning the language of logistics is concerned, we must realise that there are numerous challenges which need to be faced by both teachers and students. Those challenges are a direct result of the difference in the level of linguistic and professional knowledge of teachers and students (Henderson and Dudley-Evans 1990: 2–15).

On the one hand, teachers are usually graduates of language studies. Consequently, they have excellent command of some foreign language. However, it is as a rule the command of the general language rather than any particular language for specific purposes. Of course teachers know some political and so-called business vocabulary[2] (which may include some basic logistic terminology) but their knowledge is usually limited to units encountered in articles from newspapers and magazines for general readership rather than for specialists. Having graduated from the studies teachers-to-be start looking for work. Some of them will need to teach the language of logistics despite the fact that they know nothing or almost nothing about the field (cf. Pacek 2003). That is the case at least during the first year of teaching the language of logistics when they also need to learn the basics of the field so that they can understand what they are going to teach.

On the other hand, the students of the language of logistics need to be divided into two groups. One group is composed of students either (i) studying logistics and acquiring the logistic knowledge together with the linguistic one (that group is composed of students of higher secondary vocational schools where logistics is taught who study to become logistic and forwarding technicians as well as students of vocational universities with majors in logistics and forwarding) or (ii) people who already work in the field of logistics and thus have the so-called operational and occupational knowledge in the field. The other group is composed of students who do not know much about the language of logistics and they choose the LSP course as an alternative for the general language course as the knowledge of LSP may constitute an additional advantage on the job market when looking for the job. That group is composed of students of upper secondary schools and university students wanting to boost their prospects on the job market. What is more, this group is usually composed of highly-motivated students with advanced command of general English who want to deepen their knowledge of a given foreign language. Additionally, students belonging to the first

[2] They also have in-depth knowledge of linguistics and literature-related vocabulary but as we are going to discuss the knowledge of teachers in respect to the language of logistics, we will not focus on it here.

group have different levels of general English knowledge. The curricula for secondary schools provide that LSPs may be taught to students having at least B2 level, though. The reality, however, differs from the norms and students of secondary vocational schools frequently start learning LSPs having B1 level.

In the course of interviews with teachers that were carried out from 2007 to 2010 it was revealed that the teachers are impatiently awaiting the book that is going to introduce them gradually into the field of logistics and the language of logistics at the same time. The teachers get frequently frustrated when they are corrected by students because they mistake terminology due to the insufficient knowledge of the field. The first group of students expects to learn how to precisely understand the texts in the field of logistics. However, the teachers accustomed to using monolingual dictionaries not always can help them achieve that goal (cf. Osuchowska 2003).

The fact that the teachers have problems with understanding specialist texts in detail in the majority of cases results from the lack of sufficient knowledge of the field which the text refers to. There is an ongoing debate in the field of language teaching right now whether the teacher may be expected to be a specialist in a given field or he should be a specialist only in language studies.[3] The practice however reveals that it is extremely difficult for the teacher to act as an expert in language when he is corrected by students as a result of insufficient professional knowledge. No matter the mistake, the teacher risks losing his face. As a result, he also loses his authority and consequently the process of language teaching suffers. Therefore it is extremely important to be able to predict questions that learners may ask the teacher in the process of LSP acquisition (Houghton and King 1990).

Therefore the course book for the language for specific purposes should meet the expectations of teachers and students despite the fact that those expectations are diverging in respect to linguistic and specialist knowledge. This aim may be achieved by providing a course book which introduces the teacher step by step into a given field by giving him necessary professional background and at the same time teaching students specialist terminology. Such a structure of the course book additionally helps students revise and memorise the material taught by teachers of vocational courses.

The challenges the teachers of languages for specific purposes need to deal with on a daily basis include:

1) the lack of course books or lack of course books that will be sufficient to cover all the teaching load (the majority of LSP course books available on

[3] Pacek (2003: 117) also claims that the teacher cannot be expected to learn the field and he should only focus on language issues, but the authors of that paper disagree with that opinion.

the Polish market and published by both national and foreign publishing houses are designed for 30-hour courses only) – which shifts the burden of course preparation onto teachers who need to prepare teaching materials on their own;
2) the limited access to collections of high-quality parallel texts (that is to say texts in one language and their reliable translations into another language that can serve as a basis for terminology excerption and glossary preparation as well as for mastering reading, writing or speaking skills);
3) the limited access to comparable texts (that is to say texts of the same genre which are originals in two natural languages – the native language of students and the foreign language they are supposed to master, such as for instance contracts of forwarding that may be used in the didactic process as source texts constituting a basis for mastering reading, writing or speaking skills);
4) the difficulties in assessing the quality of available materials that may be used in the process of teaching the language for specific purposes (the Internet should be mentioned here as one of the greatest wonders and at the same traps awaiting teachers. On the one hand, the Internet offers serendipity on an unprecedented scale but, on the other hand, there are numerous unverified data that can lead teachers astray. One of the examples is the entry in Wikipedia[4] for the Polish term *barkowiec* which is linked to the English entry for *LASH*. It may mislead the teacher into believing that *barkowiec* means *LASH* in English. However, *LASH* is a system of loading lighters aboard larger vessels, whereas *barkowiec* is a *lighter* or *barge*. Consequently, the Polish equivalent for *LASH* is *barkowcowy system transportu*);
5) dictionary-related problems which may include (i) the lack of dictionaries for specialists in the native language of students and the foreign language they want to learn, (ii) limited access to dictionaries due to the fact that they may not be available online or are expensive, (iii) difficulties in assessing the quality of bilingual and multilingual dictionaries, (iv) the fact that dictionaries quickly become obsolete[5] in faster developing fields (and logistics is one of such fields – that is why after only two years there was a need to publish the second edition of the ILIM course books for the English and German languages as the chapters devoted to Incoterms became outdated), (v) the fact that monolingual dictionaries frequently make it impossible to differentiate between concepts which are not identical but very similar in

[4] Cf. https://pl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Barkowiec versus https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Lighter_aboard_ship, 10.01.2017.

[5] What is more each language evolves and develops, some words become archaic, new words enter lexicons, and some language units (words, collocations) gradually change their meaning (cf. Bąba and Liberek 1994: 9–18).

respect to referential, pragmatic and intralingual meanings, (vi) the fact that no dictionary lists all terms and collocations needed to understand texts (cf. Madyjewska 2014: 209–218).

Moreover, teachers have extremely limited possibility to attend courses for teaching them how to teach languages for specific purposes. The field is relatively new, and for some foreign languages there are even no publications on such topics. Many LSP course books are written by linguists without consultation with language users, which results in artificial and impractical exercises.

As already mentioned, specialists who want to learn a language for specific purposes for occupational purposes expect the teacher to give them equivalents in their native languages so that they can quickly identify foreign terminology and may associate it with objects of reality they know from their professional life. What is more, the learners mind needs to associate signs (words) with images (classes of objects to which a given sign refers) in order to memorise such signs and memorise them in proper settings (communicative context) (cf. Stevick 1991: 1–22). Books published by global publishing houses do not facilitate that process. First of all, they do not have bilingual glossaries because it is not profitable for the publishing house to prepare glossaries for the so-called small languages were the number of persons interested in purchasing a book is limited. Secondly, such books devote the same amount of time to each grammatical, terminological, pronunciation, and other problems, no matter the degree of isomorphism between the students' native language and the foreign language they want to learn (cf. among others Swan and Smith 1994 on interference of native languages among learners of English). Language learners learn faster elements of a foreign language which are similar to their native languages at the syntactic, phonetic and semantic level. But mastering dissimilar elements requires much more time, practice and effort. Therefore, the higher the degree of isomorphism[6] between a given pair of languages, the easier it is to learn a given foreign language. Mutatis mutandis, the lesser the degree of isomorphism, the more difficult the process of learning is. The degree of isomorphism varies between pairs of languages depending on their genetic (genealogical) relationship. As a consequence, a course book should take those aspects into account providing more exercises for such language elements which are dissimilar from the perspective of learners. Consequently, in the case of global-market course books where the same amount of time is devoted to easy and difficult language aspects, it is the task of the teacher to introduce amendments in the curriculum based on the course book. In

[6] Isomorphism is a relation of the degree of similarity between **syntactic and semantic structures** of expression of two natural languages. It may otherwise be defined as the degree of similarity between grammatical and terminological elements of two natural languages.

such instances the teacher is forced to prepare exercises on his own. If he fails to do it, the burden is shifted to students. Only the ambitious and highly motivated students can be expected to look for additional exercises to train more difficult issues.

5. A tentative model of comprehensive teaching of the language of logistics

The necessity to satisfy diverging needs and requirements of teachers and learners resulting from the diversified linguistic and professional knowledge must be taken into account when designing a course during which the language of logistics is going to be taught. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 60) claim that "the purpose of an ESP course is to enable learners to function adequately in a target situation, a situation in which the learners will use the language they are learning." The essential factor affecting the quality of the educational situation is the need to combine proper professional and linguistic training. It is especially important when we teach students of secondary vocational schools and vocational universities studying logistics (cf. also Kartali 2002: 227). He claims that LSP courses should "incorporate these language elements and forms which learners will meet in professional situations"). Therefore, it seems necessary to provide a tentative model of comprehensive linguistic education in the field of the language of logistics.

The model of comprehensive linguistic education in the field of the language of logistics, which is graphically illustrated by the diagram below, encompasses a few component parts that is to say (i) the traditional teaching base composed of the course book and dictionaries as well as (ii) elements that are not always present in language courses which have entered the didactics scene together with the development of new technologies especially ITs and the Internet such as a multimedia course (e-learning course) which altogether create a blended learning course. Such blended learning courses definitely have advantages in the contemporary world. They enable students to take advantage of multiple repetitions and revision of the material at any time during the day and from any place they are currently in as long as they have access to the Internet. Additionally, more and more people are so used to working with computers that they can concentrate better sitting in front of the screen. However, one should also consider supplementing the course with additional component parts which are not typically present in language courses. Among such components we should enumerate meetings with experts, for instance, during logistic fairs and shows or visits in logistics enterprises. Such meetings and visits make students realise the ubiquitous need to communicate in foreign languages and they enable the teachers to learn about typical situations in which a foreign language is used. Thanks to such visits teachers may gain knowledge necessary for preparing exercises adjusted to the market needs which are based on real-life situations rather than some fictional, but in fact frequently impractical, imaginary schemes.

Drawing conclusions from the interviews, meetings and conferences with teachers from secondary vocational schools and vocational universities the following features of the course book for the language of logistics have been elaborated. As far as reading comprehension is concerned, the course book should contain authentic texts which are adapted for the purpose of language teaching in such a way that they introduce key terminology and basic knowledge about logistics as a discipline (cf. Kokot 2003). The texts should be ordered in such a way that they gradually broaden the linguistic and professional knowledge. The course book should focus on terminology and collocations. In order to meet the diverging needs of teachers and learners, each reading comprehension should be supplemented with a bilingual glossary of terminology used in the text. That way the teacher may prepare for each lesson proper equivalents for foreign language terminology. It enables the teacher to preserve his face and, consequently, the authority necessary for maintaining good discipline in the classroom. It also enables the teacher to save time as he no longer needs to carry out time-consuming searches for terminology. The glossaries are also convenient for language learners as they can instantaneously check unknown terminology. Additionally, they may devote all time and effort to revising and memorising new terminology without the need to browse on the Internet and through dictionaries first. When taking into account psychological aspects of the process of language acquisition, such bilingual dictionaries make the process of memorising new vocabulary subconsciously more feasible for the learners. Apart from glossaries with terminology used in each reading comprehension at the end of the book, there should be a bilingual logistic dictionary listing terminology in an alphabetic order.[7]

As it has turned out that in the majority of cases in Poland an LSP course is run parallelly to general language courses, it is not necessary to provide comprehensive grammar training. What is more "Without words people cannot talk about other people, animals, things, actions, states or relations.

[7] Additionally, taking into account the economic situation in Poland and the fact that the price of secondary school course books is extremely high in Poland, the decision that was made for the series of course books for English, German and Russian language of logistics to prepare glossaries for each reading comprehension has turned out to be the added value of the course book both for learners and teachers – which has been revealed in the course of the monitoring stage after 2010 and 2011.

Without words there would be no sound structure, no word structure, and no syntax. It only shows that lexicon is central to language and, thus, in foreign language teaching. […] It is evident that most works devoted to the process of teaching English as a foreign language deal with grammar and phonetics. So not much attention has been paid to the method of teaching vocabulary" (Mańczak-Wohlfeld 1995: 43). And even less space has been devoted to teaching LSP vocabulary. But it should be stressed here that the situation is not uniform for all languages. The majority of publications refer to the English language which is the language of international communication nowadays. In comparison there are either no or almost no publications on teaching German, Russian, French, Spanish and Italian LSPs.

The meetings with employers who were leading companies providing logistic services in Poland enabled us to find out typical situations when speaking and listening skills are needed. They include phone calls, negotiations concerning offers and contracts, as well as occasional meetings during showrooms and exhibitions.[8]

The teaching assumptions may be encapsulated in the following way:

1) the coursebook should be adjusted to the needs of learners who are native speakers of the Polish language and are going to function and use the language in the majority of cases on the Polish market;
2) thus the coursebook should be localised;
3) in order to meet the diverging needs of language teachers and learners, each chapter should be devoted to a specific topic and topics should be ordered from general ones to detailed ones starting from the most basic information about logistics and logistic terminology and ending with most complicated issues in those respects (cf. Khvedchenya 1995: 49–53);
4) the coursebook should provide material necessary for teaching and learning interlingual logistic communication in typical real-life situations;
5) as level B2 is considered the starting point for teaching languages for specific purposes in the European Union, the coursebook should introduce the learners to professional terminology and collocations, reading, listening, speaking and writing skills with little space devoted to practicing grammar (which is covered during general language courses);
6) as students currently live in the information age, the coursebook should be supplemented with an e-learning course on the platform available via the Internet. Therefore, the recordings are available on the Internet, there

[8] The authors of all three course books had the opportunity to witness such conversations and could prepare listening and speaking comprehension on the basis of the material gathered in those companies. Exercises for training writing skills were prepared in a similar way.

is an additional course for terminology revision on MOODLE platform (blended-learning courses seem to have been most effective nowadays);

7) there should be teachers' book with the key for exercises, methodological guidelines, tests and quizzes.[9]

Another component of the model of comprehensive language learning, and at the same time a very practical tool ensuring stable learning outcomes, consists in participation of students in logistics fair. Research into the linguistic needs of vocational upper secondary school students (Górski and Janiak 2015) indicates that students of vocational upper secondary schools planning to work in TFL sector (Transport – Forwarding – Logistics) pay special attention to benefits derived from **meetings with foreign experts during specialised fair**.

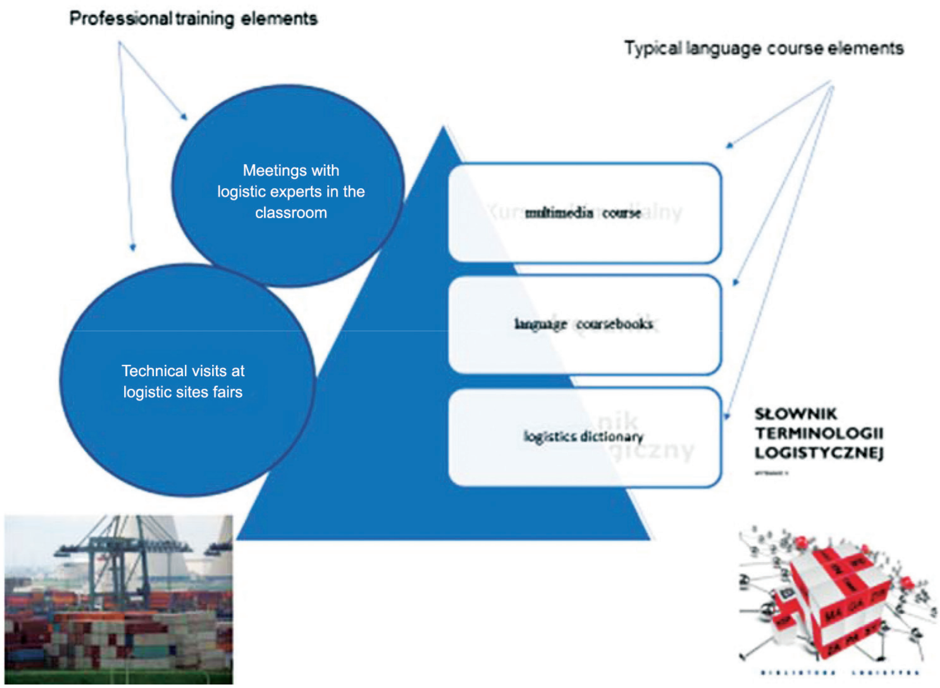

Fig. 1. A model of comprehensive language learning for TFL sector (Transport – Forwarding – Logistics)

Source: the model elaborated by Tomasz Janiak

[9] Right now the keys to the course books are distributed by the publisher via emails. Currently there is no proper teachers' book with detailed methodological guidelines published. This, of course, is connected with the fact that it is unprofitable for the publishing houses to print such localised teachers' books. The reasons for that drawback are not merit-based from the didactic perspective and they should not be analysed in detail as the aim of the paper is to present an optimal model.

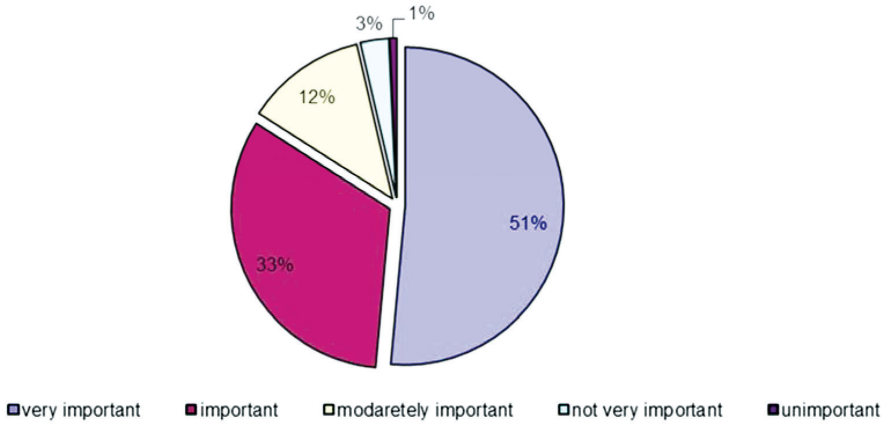

Fig. 2. Evaluation of the usefulness of supporting the language learning with the meetings with practising experts during technical visits in logistic companies and during the fair

Source: Górski and Janiak 2015: 26.

As many as 88% of respondents considered this means of communication connected with acquisition of specialist knowledge and linguistic practice, including picking up terminology as 'very important' or 'important'.[10]

Participation of students in logistics fairs combines the advantages of a short visit in the company (e.g. in the distribution centre) and of a technical trip including a short meeting with an expert and exchange of communication in German or in English. One of the most crucial advantages is the long-lasting effect of the project – knowledge gained during the trip and active participation in fair may be used in a long-term manner, both during the vocational classes and the concurrent language workshop. From the perspective of effectiveness of the didactic process the following fact is extremely vital: in one place in a relatively small area (about 1000 m^2), in relatively short time (1–2 days) one may get to know "live" the ins and outs of logistics, inter alia during special shows of logistic technology, gather original learning materials and initiate long-term contacts with numerous foreign experts. The following events are well-known logistic events of international nature: in Germany CeMAT, CeBIT i IAA (Commercial Vehicles) in Hannover, LogiMAT in Stuttgart, Innotrans in Berlin, or transport logistic in Munich; in France SITL Europe and Intralogistics Europe in Paris. The said events are recognised as an important incentive for the logistic sector. Their repute is proved not only by the increasing number of exhibitors (e.g. the last edition of CeMAT and LogiMAT was attended by

[10] Although the quoted research covered students of German, due to the international nature of the logistics fair similar conclusions may also be made in case of the English language.

more than 1000 exhibitors), but also by the attractive schedule of concurrent events (debates and seminars) aimed at popularisation of logistic expertise. The spectrum of fair exhibitions is very broad: from equipment of logistic centres, multimodal ports and terminals to teleinformation systems). A very interesting initiative launched quite recently by the organisers of logistic fairs and exhibitors themselves (world-known producers and providers of equipment) consists in *Guided Tours*, offered in English or in German and targeted especially at young people interested in logistics.

Trade fair and recognition of such events as tools which could be used in teaching of a language for specific purposes have been analysed by methodologist rather incidentally during the discussion of other instruments for practical use of terminology in occupational contexts. It is the textbook of Eismann (2008) which made significant contribution to this field and which presents the said issue to the readers from the perspective of teaching Business German (*in German: Wirtschaftsdeutsch*).

The technical visit at the logistic fair combined with language training should follow the following **3 stages**: (1) preparing to the trip (task planning), (2) participating in the fair, (3) working with the materials following the end of the event – during workshops at school/university. Apparently, it may seem that such an experience is of pure "technical" nature. However, in the context of educating experts, namely logisticians, it helps to create and develop a very specific educational (language learning) and occupational situation (vocational learning). What is more, the success of this project boosts the creativity of the students, communication and initiation of relationships with foreign experts. Moreover, a properly implemented project is a good opportunity to develop the skill (habit) of using various sources of information (newsletters, brochures, product data, experts' opinions).

Authors' experience indicates that particular stages of implementation of the model project should include the following actions.

Stage 1:

- logging in to the fair information service in the user panel and choosing the language (EN/DE);
- identification of the pavilion plan in the fair premises where showrooms are usually topically organised (packaging, IT in logistics, warehousing techniques);
- browsing through the schedule of the exhibition/display itself and concurrent events (online or after downloading a file with the software). The leading theme of the event reflecting the current trends (e.g. "Logistics and IT") should be also carefully analysed;

– learning about latest innovations and fair premiere shows (these can involve inter alia new models of fork lift trucks or systems of warehouse shelves);
– preparation (together with the teacher) of an initial list of questions addressed to experts. Preparation of such a questionnaire is extremely important as it arouses interest, puts the expertise and terminology in order, develops the skill of forming questions and using specific phrases);
– another valuable source of information which is worth analysing consists in the repository of multimedia files (so-called media library) in which we can find short films (e.g. original interviews with representatives of companies, description of products).

Stage 2 includes participation in meetings in selected stalls. With this purpose students may use previously prepared questions (questionnaires). Consultants standing behind the stalls have very extensive expert knowledge and are willing to provide comprehensive information to the visitors. It is worth noting that this international logistic fair is attended not only by traders and people responsible for marketing but also top and senior managers. From the perspective of resource usage it is advisable not only to take notes but also – if possible – to record the utterance of experts in the form of sound files. In the latter case – despite specialist expertise – we provide valuable exercise material for testing listening comprehension and phonetic practice.

Planning the tasks to be completed during the 1st and 2nd stage it is worth taking advantage of especially prepared tools offered by the fair marketing. Many organisers post in fair websites especially designed multilingual applications enabling the users to have access to the updated fair schedule in their mobile devices. Thanks to it they can have access inter alia to the calendar and description of events in a foreign language (receiving notification about the most important events, premiere shows or product data). Another advantage for young logisticians lies in the use of QR codes. Code scanning (a logistic activity) and comprehension of the content in a foreign language constitutes an ideal opportunity to learn specialist notions and acquire specialist vocabulary. This mobile application enables access inter alia to the calendar and description of events in a foreign language (receiving notification about the most important events, premiere shows or product data).

Stage 3 of the project is the longest and, at the same time, the most effective period of acquisition of professional vocabulary and exchange of gained knowledge. Proper use of gathered resources (including multimedia) will guarantee priceless support in boosting linguistic and non-linguistic skills and allow for drafting numerous scenarios of a lesson, and at the same time is a good example of deriving benefits and achieving long-lasting learning outcomes in a long period of time (depending on the needs of students and creativity of the teacher even reaching a few months).

In this stage we may distinguish the following actions:

- work with the original resources obtained from experts – selection of informative resources for analysis and reading of sound files with recordings of expert utterance;
- activisation of the initiated contacts (exchange of e-mail correspondence). One of best practices typical of trade fair is that consultants contact the persons who expressed their interest, sending them additional resources;
- preparation by small teams of students of short presentations or infographics (short description of the most important products, selected technologies or description of given logistic devices, statistical data).

6. Concluding remarks

Logistics is one of the most dynamically developing sectors. Due to the nature of logistic services there is an overwhelming need for the employees of logistic companies to communicate in foreign languages. Consequently, there is a need to teach the language of logistics. It should be remembered here that the process of acquiring the language of logistics should be combined with acquiring knowledge in the field which may be achieved by providing access to specialist dictionaries and other knowledge resources created by specialists (cf. White et al. 1991: 126–165). It is extremely important to raise knowledge on the basis of source materials prepared by specialists because it is a prerequisite for acquiring reliable in-depth knowledge (cf. White et al. 1991).

Global market course books are profit-oriented. Therefore, they are designed for language users all around the world. Nevertheless, they are also less effective as far as the glottodidactic process is concerned. It is due to the fact that the same amount of time is devoted to easy and difficult issues. The more copies a publishing house can print and sell, the higher profits are obtained. Thus, publishing a course-book adjusted to local markets is less profitable and requires cooperation with a linguist knowing both languages but at the same time they ensure better effects as far as the acquisition of linguistic material is concerned.

To sum up, the need to satisfy diverging needs of teachers and learners of languages for specific purposes resulting from varied professional and linguistic knowledge of both groups imposes on educators and methodologists the need to develop some new models of comprehensive language training for logistics specialists composed of the course book for vocational linguistic training, vocational course books, dictionaries of logistics terminology, meetings with experts in logistic companies and during other logistic related events.

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Latin as a Language for Specific Purposes in a Textbook for Bachelor Programme Students of Midwifery-Obstetrics

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Abstract

Teaching Latin as a language for specific purposes, namely medical Latin, has its roots in a specific socio-political climate that developed in the former Czechoslovakia shortly after the World War II, nevertheless the fact, that the methodology being used while teaching Latin at medical faculties, belongs to the area of language for the occupational purposes, began to be acknowledged only recently.

This paper describes challenges to be met in teaching and learning a "dead" language as an LSP. It reports on a project (IMPACT – Innovation, methodology and quality of language education and professional education in foreign languages in the tertiary sphere in the Czech Republic) undertaken at the Language Centre of Masaryk University during which a new teaching material for students of Midwifery-Obstetrics has been prepared based on variety of authentic sources.

Keywords: medicine, Latin, language for specific purposes (LSD), terminology, Latin medical diagnosis, teaching Latin.

1. Introduction

As Beran (2013: 44 and ff.) describes in his dissertation thesis, the school reform of 1948 removed classical Greek and Latin from secondary school system in the former Czechoslovakia. To the dismay of anatomy teachers and other medical professionals, first students with zero knowledge of classical Latin entered medical faculties all around the country in 1956. Specific courses designed to meet the occupational needs of students were introduced in order to remedy the shocking unpreparedness of the medical school candidates.

The first syllabi for medical Latin were compiled in haste and not many people probably had a clear idea of how the very specific and immediate needs of a newly created group of learners should be met. The conception of early teaching materials was based mostly on the intuition and good will of their authors and their concept firmly interlinked with that used in former "Realschule" which was aimed at representing the classical language in its complexity. Despite extremely restricted time allotted to such language education (never more than 60 teaching hours) students were still believed to be able to master Latin as a language and a very good command and orientation in the grammatical structure of their mother tongue was implied. At the end of the course, students were expected to understand and translate Latin texts.

During the following two decades, a new name was assigned to the subject, and its textbooks and thus "Latin for students of medicine" became "Latin medical terminology." Soon also the model book for such courses was created (Kábrt and Chlumská 1972). The change in the title of the majority of available course books was not accidental, at least not in the Czechoslovak context, where it signalised a shift towards more pragmatically oriented curricula. The verbal system, together with other parts of speech, which rarely appear in authentic medical records, was reduced to a minimum and the teaching focused on mastering the nominal system. Students were trained to understand and form precise and grammatically correct technical terms from the field of the anatomical, clinical, pharmaceutical, and partly also chemical nomenclature. Unfortunately, the future did not bring any structural changes besides simplifications and reductions. Latin at medical faculties remained a weird language that not only students willing to wear the white doctor's coat, but also many of their teachers – usually having their main interest in "real" classical philology – must somehow endure.

At the end of the previous century, but especially since the beginning of the new millennium, the gap between teaching medical Latin and teaching living languages for specific purposes (LSP), especially English for specific purposes, became even more obvious. The methodology and didactics of medical Latin are nearly non-existent, and abounding modern teaching materials developed in last decades for all different living languages, or even classical Latin and Greek, are in stark contrast with what would be the teacher of medical Latin in Czech Republic and Slovakia, left with. Not only available teaching materials do not contain enough creative, motivating and variable exercises, many of them do not even care to use valid terminological sets (yes, anatomical nomenclature is subject of change, the latest edition published in 1998), absolute majority contain no authentic material, rarely any let alone meaningful illustrations are included, and absolutely no extra support (e.g. CD, DVD, or ICT technologies) is at hand.

2. Narrowing the gap

For the English student, the need of a specific subject – medical Latin, is not obvious because English replaced Latin as a vehicle of the international communication a long time ago with huge quantities of medical terms from Latin (and Greek) naturalised almost without a change. Nevertheless, for the speakers of Slavic languages it was customary to translate Latin terms into national languages and build their own terminological counterparts which did not resemble Latin in any aspect. The good command of Latin was in medical sphere of interest taken for granted. Even now majority of surgical departments (as well as many other specialisations) all over the central Europe would provide the patient with the diagnosis written in Latin, and this is one of the reasons why it seems to be for many medical professionals in that area unthinkable to merely replace Latin by English. Nevertheless, not so many professionals have a clear idea how to make the courses more appealing.

Then, on the verge of millennia, medical faculties in the Czech Republic and Slovakia introduced specialised full-time study bachelor courses and a specific type of a distance study combined with face-to-face tutorial courses (e.g. General Nurse, Nurse-Midwife, Physiotherapy, Nutritional Therapist, Radiology Assistant). Within such bachelor study programmes, the courses of Latin medical terminology were reduced (to not more than 30 teaching hours) and common textbooks originally designed for students of General Medicine became difficult to adapt. To adjust to the modified needs, Latin lecturers had to simplify the textbooks in terms of the thematic content and reduction of vocabulary.

From 2009 to 2012, within the COMPACT project (CZ.1.07/2.2.00/07. 0442), the team of Latin medical terminology teachers at the Medical Faculty of Masaryk University gained a better insight into the needs of registered nurses and allied health personnel and became interested in the pragmatic use of Latin in pursuance of career in these professions. Pořízková and Blahuš (2015) managed to collect the corpus of authentic medical records with more than 100 thousand individual records from two university hospitals in Brno and one in Prague during the project IMPACT (CZ.1.07/ 2.2.00/28.0233) between 2012 and 2015. In the course of the IMPACT project the team decided to take advantage of the compiled authentic material and to tailor the courses to the needs of particular bachelor fields of study. In this aspect, they acted in agreement with essential characteristics of specific purpose instruction as stated by Strevens (1988: 1–2). Their aim was to create teaching materials that will be designed to meet the special needs of different groups of the allied health personnel, which will be related in their content to a very specific branch of medicine and centred on Latin appropriate in those branches.

During the development of the curriculum and teaching materials, the team followed the six core steps defined by Brown (1995: 20). The whole venture started with the needs analysis, which was followed by a draft of a specific list of goals and objectives, then came the production of the new teaching material, which was evaluated and experimentally used for two consecutive years (during this period the preliminary versions were constantly reedited), then finalised and prepared to be printed. The authors also seriously considered the learner's profile and wider sociological aspects of the new generation of learners, a level of preliminary knowledge of Latin, an allotted number of contact hours. Based on contacts with medical professionals, authors who are philologists could take advantage of interdisciplinary cooperation and a huge database of authentic sources. Due to the financial support provided by the participation in the abovementioned projects it was possible to use also the service of a professional illustrator and graphic designer.

3. Teaching material for students of midwifery-obstetrics

During the needs analysis, it became very well visible how traditional textbooks avoid including the specific terms, clinical expressions or examples of diagnoses from the area of midwifery-obstetrics. Such terms were basically included only if they represented a grammatical feature of importance for the rest of instruction, i.e. from the main part lexical or grammatical exceptions and irregularities. At the end of broadly oriented courses of medical Latin students of midwifery-obstetrics had very limited working vocabulary which did not cover their specific professional needs. The newly prepared material is thematically profiled. Introductory lessons are focused on anatomical terminology from the following areas: external and internal masculine and feminine genitalia, pelvis (bones, muscles, pelvimetry, organs of pelvic cavity), breasts (ribs and muscles of thorax, glands). Afterwards clinical terminology is introduced with a special interest in pregnancy and conditions associated with it (abortion, interruption, birth, puerperium), as well as different possible complications during this period of woman's life. Attention is also paid to the vocabulary pertaining to the prenatal and postnatal development of the foetus. Students of midwifery-obstetrics are thus provided with a specific medical sub-language that is going to become the core of their professional vocabulary. The material consists of an introductory lesson (Latin pronunciation) and 10 lessons oriented at professional vocabulary from the area of midwifery-obstetrics. The textbook also contains a list of frequently used abbreviations from this branch of medicine, vocabulary and other student's aids. The material is complemented with a separate grammatical volume and an e-learning course.

In the course of writing the textbook, specific attention was paid to narrowing the gap between Latin for medical purposes and living languages for medical purposes teaching and methodology. Not only the number of exercises has – compared to traditional textbooks – dramatically increased, but also their variability has significantly changed. Besides translation exercises, which are still an inseparable part of the Latin textbook, many other types of exercises were employed: multiple-choice, multiple-response, matching, true/false, crossword puzzle, structure identification and labelling, fill-in-the-blank (figure 1).

One of the problems to be solved while writing a textbook of Latin medical terminology is the language of instruction. Our Latin teaching material remains bilingual; the language of grammar and exercise instruction is Czech, the content of exercises remains Latin, except for those cases where texts or discrete definitions are employed. Shorter texts or discrete definitions written in Czech have never been used in this type

3.1. SUBSTANTIVA OZNAČUJÍCÍ ČÁSTI VNITŘNÍCH POHLAVNÍCH ORGÁNŮ DOPLŇTE DO TEXTU A PŘELOŽTE I VZTAHUJÍCÍ SE ADJEKTIVUM NEBO SUBSTANTIVUM (JSOU ZVÝRAZNĚNY KURZÍVOU). DOPIŠTE PŘÍSLUŠNÉ ČÍSLO ZE SCHEMATICKÉHO OBRÁZKU:

Termín *graviditas extrauterina tubaria* označuje těhotenství, při kterém oplozené vajíčko niduje ve vejcovodu obecně (*in* ______________, č.   ) nebo v některé z jeho částí, např. v nálevce (*in* ______________, č.   ), v úžině (*in* ______________, č.   ) nebo v baňce (*in* ______________, č.   ). Termín *graviditas extrauterina ovarica* označuje těhotenství, při kterém oplozené vajíčko niduje ve vaječníku (*in* ______________, č.   ) nebo v *ovariální* fimbrii (*in* ______________, č.   ). Termín *graviditas extrauterina abdominalis* označuje těhotenství, při kterém oplozené vajíčko niduje v *břišní* dutině (*in* ______________, č.   ). O mimoděložním těhotenství mluvíme i tehdy, když oplozené vajíčko niduje ve výchlipce stěny dělohy (*in* ______________, č.   ), v děložním rohu (*in* ______________, č.   ) nebo v *cervikálním* kanálu (*in* ______________, č.   ).

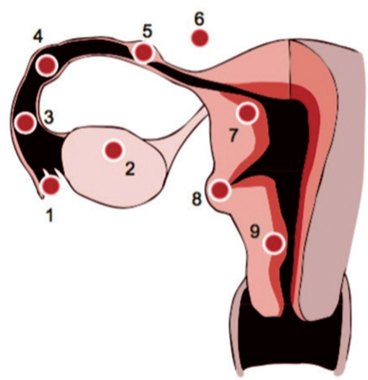
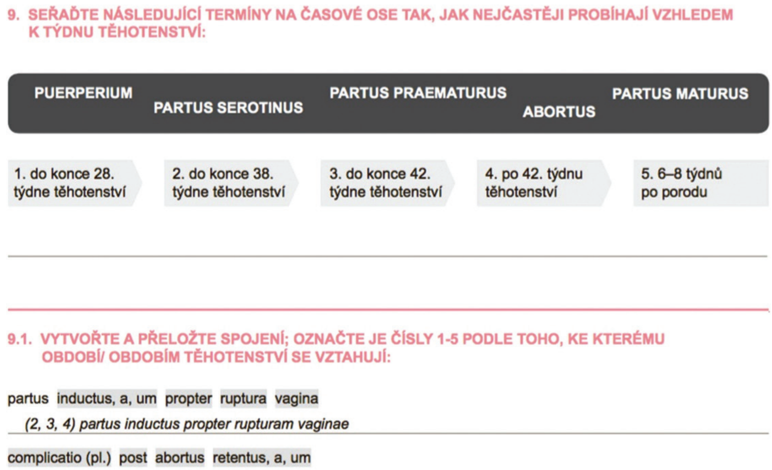


Fig. 1. The unit aims at producing correct Latin ablative case forms (prepositional phrases). The short text contains information about a variety of possible inaccurate places where a fertilised egg could be attached during the ectopic pregnancy and is accompanied with an illustration showing these places/ parts of generative female organs. Student is supposed not only to form the correct clinical term in Latin, but also identify it in the image

Source: Artimová et al. 2016, exercise 3.1, unit 8



9. SEŘAĎTE NÁSLEDUJÍCÍ TERMÍNY NA ČASOVÉ OSE TAK, JAK NEJČASTĚJI PROBÍHAJÍ VZHLEDEM K TÝDNU TĚHOTENSTVÍ:

PUERPERIUM PARTUS SEROTINUS PARTUS PRAEMATURUS ABORTUS PARTUS MATURUS

1. do konce 28. týdne těhotenství
2. do konce 38. týdne těhotenství
3. do konce 42. týdne těhotenství
4. po 42. týdnu těhotenství
5. 6–8 týdnů po porodu

9.1. VYTVOŘTE A PŘELOŽTE SPOJENÍ; OZNAČTE JE ČÍSLY 1-5 PODLE TOHO, KE KTERÉMU OBDOBÍ/ OBDOBÍM TĚHOTENSTVÍ SE VZTAHUJÍ:

partus inductus, a, um propter ruptura vagina

(2, 3, 4) partus inductus propter rupturam vaginae

complicatio (pl.) post abortus retentus, a, um

Fig. 2. The unit introduces the clinical terminology. First, the new vocabulary is introduced in the exercise 9, connecting the terms to particular stages of the pregnancy, then, in exercise 9.1, students are supposed to form the correct diagnosis and make the connection of the particular pregnancy pathology to the stage of the pregnancy during which it typically can occur

Source: Artimová et al. 2016, exercises 9, 9.1, unit 7

8. VYTVOŘTE KOMPLEXNÍ DIAGNÓZY A PODLE VZORU VYZNAČTE SKUPINU ANOMÁLIÍ, KE KTERÉ DANÁ DIAGNÓZA SPADÁ:

revisio cavitas uterus post abortus spontaneus, a, um sine complicatio (pl.)

revisio cavitatis uteri post abortum spontaneum sine complicationibus

anomalia in cursu graviditatis ✓ anomalia intra partum ✗ anomalia in puerperio ✗

partus inductus, a, um sine effectus in graviditas hebdomas 40+6

anomalia in cursu graviditatis anomalia intra partum anomalia in puerperio

complicatio (pl.) propter graviditas extrauterinus, a, um cum sepsis

anomalia in cursu graviditatis anomalia intra partum anomalia in puerperio

lysis instrumentalis, e placenta adhaerens, entis post partus sine vulnus

anomalia in cursu graviditatis anomalia intra partum anomalia in puerperio

Fig. 3. The authentic records are formed and matched with a type of the anomaly. The instruction for the exercise 8 reads as: “Based on the example, form complex diagnoses and mark the group of anomalies into which the newly created diagnosis belongs to”

Source: Artimová et al. 2016: 82, exercise 8, unit 8 of textbooks before. They are used either in order to supply the background information for multiple-choice exercises or to provide the context for various types of drilling and vocabulary development exercises in order to contextualise the use of a particular term.

In the majority of cases the illustrations from the field of anatomy are used with the intent to visualise anatomical and clinical terms, to interconnect the grammatical content with its anatomical background and to support the retention of the acquired knowledge. Returning illustrations to Latin textbooks was regarded by authors as one of the crucial turning points within the adaptation process of teaching Latin as an LSP to present trends, and the team benefited immensely from a close cooperation with a graphic designer during the final stages of processing the textbook. These types of specialised teaching materials are rarely of commercial success and thus the graphical part of it often suffers, nevertheless we tried to narrow the gap also in this respect, even if we could not compete with technical and organisational support that is usually provided by big publishing houses oriented in living languages.

The most important innovation of the new teaching material lies in the use of authentic medical reports and documentation. The collected corpus of individual records served as a source for the excerption of a suitable material for the textbook itself; nevertheless, the way in which particular cases are recorded allows students to observe how the technical medical Latin is used in real life situations and to get acquainted with its peculiarities. The use of authentic medical documentation in class is often challenging for the teacher, who is typically not a medical professional but a linguist by profession. In order to analyse the collected records in detail, to understand it and to be able to transfer it to the students, the cooperation with a physician was unavoidable. A thorough understanding of the complex nature of a medical record, its high variability and the way the content is abbreviated is an important part of the competence of the allied health personnel and none of the previously published textbooks take this into consideration (figures 2–3).

4. Conclusion

The modified study material has been piloted during the academic years 2013/2014 and 2014/2015. To measure the students' satisfaction with the methodology and content of the teaching materials, an online anonymous questionnaire was used. 63% of the students highly appreciated the thematic content of the material, focus on practical use of terminology in medical documentation and the open access to the material (which they could download from the Masaryk University Information System), and considered it to be fully corresponding with the field of study. The knowledge acquired during the Latin medical terminology course has the highest impact for further study of anatomy and physiology. The use of authentic medical record was considered to be highly motivational. Moreover, clear arrangement and graphical representation of the grammatical content has added to its attractiveness.

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The Use of the Mobile Platform Android in Teaching English for Medical Purposes in the Project Vetionary

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Abstract

The paper presents a wide range of benefits of the use of modern and widely available technology used in teaching specialist languages. The original and unique project Vetionary aims at providing the veterinary medicine students as well as vets and other professionals of the related fields of studies with the specialist veterinary dictionary that will be available in the form of a mobile application. The dictionary will be published under the auspices of the Foreign Language Centre of Wrocław University of Environmental and Life Sciences. The goal of the Vetionary project is twofold. Firstly, the above form of an electronic publication concentrates on providing specialist knowledge sources. Secondly, its aim is to create a community around the project by involving the students in the further development of the dictionary, which, in turn, enhances the process of education. The project constitutes an innovative approach towards teaching specialist languages as well as emphasizes the need to make the most of modern technologies so that to make the teaching process easier and more accessible.

Keywords: Vetionary, Android Operating System (OS), information communication technologies (ICT), mobile application, specialist veterinary dictionary, effective teaching, extra features.

1. Introduction

Currently using modern technology in the process of education, especially language teaching and learning constitutes an essential factor in stimulating human perception, which results, in turn, in greater effectiveness of acquiring/learning new linguistic skills. As is known, there are various motivational reasons for learning a foreign language. The ones that are the most common are general and instrumental reasons. Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished two types of motivation. These are integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. People with integrative motivation for language learning want to gain linguistic skills to be able to integrate with the target language users as well as to immerse in their culture. As far as the latest are concerned, these stimulate one to learn a foreign language for specific purposes that will be used as an essential tool in one's professional life (Gardner and Lambert 1972). Individuals who demonstrate strong instrumental motivation towards learning a foreign language are goal-orientated and will search for various tools, including modern technology, to enhance their educational process.

The process of teaching specialist languages requires from the teacher the awareness of the type of a particular motivation type. Knowing students' needs and expectations is crucial in the whole educational process. Since learning specialist languages constitutes a goal itself, it can be assumed that the majority of students who participate in a specialist language course demonstrate instrumental motivation.

Teaching specialist language where the syllabus and materials used in the class should be tailored to an individual's needs constitutes a huge challenge. There are diverse aspects of such an educational process. Firstly, the teaching process should be conducted in terms of general aspects of teaching a language. Namely, during the specialist language course general rules as well as general aspects of learning a language should not be omitted. Secondly, teachers should be focused and well acquainted with their students' needs and expectations as far as learning a specialist language is concerned. This, in turn, requires the professional knowledge of a particular field from the teacher as well as the use of modern, professional tools.

2. Using modern technology in teaching foreign languages

There has been a significant growth of information communication technologies (ICT) over the recent years in Europe. Numerous research reports have suggested that the majority of teachers in Europe prepare their lessons on the basis of the use of ICT (Empirica 2006). According to Balanskat, Blamire and Stella (2006: 2) all countries in Europe have invested in ICT in different educational centres, including schools, taking into account "equipment, connectivity, professional development and digital learning content." What is more, as the European Commission (2012) suggests European Union has established certain standards for improving digital literacy, skills and inclusion. Implementing modern technological tools in the process of teaching foreign languages has gained on popularity not only in Europe as such, but also across the world. It is proven that modern technological tools aid the educational process of foreign language learners in numerous different way. Therefore, foreign language teachers should be aware of the necessity to incorporate such modern technological tools into their teaching process.

3. Using modern technology in teaching specialist languages

Taking into consideration the fact that using modern technology in teaching foreign languages in general is crucial, it should be stressed that such technology plays a very important role in the educational process of specialist languages, where, as it has already been suggested, learners demonstrate mostly instrumental motivation. It should be remembered that providing specialist language learners with modern technological tools gives them an opportunity to achieve desired results not only by making their educational process easier as they receive ready-made solutions, but also by integrationing the students and creating their own specialist language learners community. According to Swain (1985), learning a language and at the same time producing comprehensible output can be enhanced by using collaborative tasks where the meaning is negotiated. Therefore, using modern technology facilitates the learning process since students have the chance to communicate with other students also outside the classroom setting.

4. Teaching English for medical purposes on the basis of introducing a unique and innovative project VETIONARY

4.1. General outline of the project

Working with students of different professional backgrounds as well as observing their dynamic urge towards their development have evoked the need to implement modern technological tools to enhance their educational process. The core need to boost that process is to provide them with simple and accessible modern solutions such as a specialist language dictionary. In every classroom, there are numerous traditional paper dictionaries to be used. However, over the years, the tendency towards using them has changed. They are heavy, traditional and very often perceived as outdated by modern students. More and more students prefer to look up a word on their mobile devices such as smartphones or tablets that are always there with them, which, in turn, is quicker and provides a wider range of options.

Fig. 1. Splash Screen of Vetionary

Source: marketing materials of Vetionary

Besides, it is more trendy and can be shared with other users as well. There are numerous dictionaries available on the Internet that can be used by means of mobile devices. However, what deserves attention, is that there is no specialist English-Polish and Polish-English veterinary dictionary available to students in a form of a mobile application on the market. What is more, after careful empirical research, it can be stated that there is no specialist English-Polish and Polish-English veterinary dictionary available even in a traditional paper form. Taking the above into account, the idea of creating such a veterinary dictionary in a form of a mobile platform has been emerged.

4.2. Android market share in Poland

In order to implement a specialist veterinary dictionary in a form of a mobile platform careful research regarding the Polish market had to be conducted. According to BI Business Insider (2015) it is Android Operating System (OS) that constitutes the majority of all of the mobile devices on global market, including Poland. The remaining other mobile devices work on such operating systems as e.g. Windows Phone, iOS, etc. Taking the Android market share in Poland into account, we aim at the widest group of recipients by developing such an innovative solution.

4.3. Benefits of using VETIONARY

The benefits of implementing Vetionary are numerous in terms of the recipients. These can be divided into four groups: 1) professionals, and these are veterinary medicine students, vets and other professionals of related fields of studies; 2) teachers; 3) future students; 4) our University as the unit under the auspices of which the dictionary is to be published. Our prime goal is to support veterinary medicine students, vets and other professionals of related fields of studies. Providing the above mentioned individuals with such a convenient form of publication enables to give them a constant access to the professional source of knowledge such as veterinary medicine vocabulary and phrases. Veterinary medicine students as well as vets work dynamically expanding their knowledge and experience by using English articles, papers and other materials. In order to be able to act under time pressure and at the same time to be efficient in their work, they need a dictionary that does not only provide translation as such, but also enables them to share the information with other users. Our dictionary Vetionary meets these expectations. What constitutes one of numerous unique features of Vetionary is the flexibility of Android OS that enables to update and develop the dictionary on regular basis. This also serves as a motivating factor to study specialist veterinary medicine language. Moreover, our innovative dictionary reduces the potential costs of paying for professional and difficult to obtain materials. The form of such a publication provides the specialist dictionary that can be downloaded and updated regularly for free without the necessity to buy newer editions. The above benefits constitute a motivating factor to use our dictionary as well as enhance the educational process in the above mentioned group.

Teachers constitute the second group that will benefit from our unique project. Vetionary has been designed to make the teaching process more effective. What is meant by this is that using the specialist dictionary in such a form reduces the time spent on searching specialist vocabulary. Due to this teachers have more time to use during the class. What is more, our dictionary always comes in handy, which means that students will always have it as they never forget their smartphones. This, in turn, again reduces the potential risk of the lack of access to the dictionary during the class. Moreover, teachers have the constant access to the regularly updated vocabulary, which provides a very convenient source of materials as well as saves their time.

Future students constitute the third group that will benefit from our project. Our dictionary will be widely accessible, which means that those students who are willing to study veterinary medicine as well as other related fields of studies will have a ready-made source of professional vocabulary and phrases while preparing for their finals as well as entry examinations.

The fourth group to benefit from the project is our University and to be more specific our Foreign Language Centre that has a huge opportunity to be perceived as a modern University with a fresh view on innovative technology. Meeting students' modern expectations aids to create a positive image as well as attracts future students to join the community that is open to innovation and modern technological devices.

4.4. How the Application works

It seems to be essential to present how the application works.

4.4.1. How to download Vetionary

Firstly, Vetionary is available for free on Google Play, which constitutes the biggest and official Android market.

4.4.2. Offline Technology

Secondly, what is very convenient about our application is that it is 100% offline, which means, it can be used independently on the access to the Internet. Although the Internet connection has gained on popularity recently, still, it should not be forgotten that there is a number of students who do not have the constant access to the Internet or in some classrooms the Internet may not work properly. Taking the above into consideration, we have developed our application in so called Offline Technology, which means that it can be used without a constant access to the Internet. What is more, it is important to note that our application takes a little device storage and therefore can be operated on devices with limited memory space.

4.4.3. Easy Updating

Thirdly, Vetionary is designed in such a way that it is easy to update it, which is very important as far as mobile applications are concerned. When we update the Word Base, our users will get an update in about one hour. Therefore, they do not need to buy the next edition of the dictionary and spend money on it.

4.4.4. Intuitive Interface

What is also a distinctive feature of our dictionary is that it has an intuitive interface that is very simple and at the same time enables even less advanced applications users to use the Vetionary Application in an easy and accessible way.

Fig. 2. Main Interface of Vetionary

Source: marketing materials of Vetionary

4.4.5. Extra Features

Apart from the above, it is essential to note that our application contains some extra distinctive features that make it even more interesting.

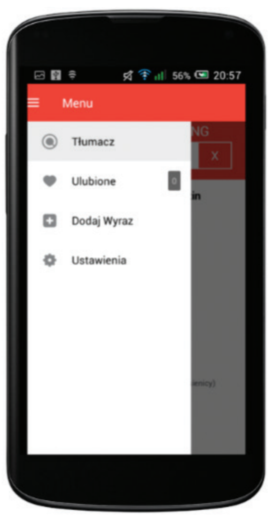

Fig. 3. Menu with Extra Features

Source: marketing materials of Vetionary

Add Word Feature

One of these features is an Add Word Feature that enables the users to add a word with its translation to their installation of Vetionary. This means that each user who comes across their own words/phrases and their pronunciation as well as translation may create an individual word base within the scope of their application of Vetionary on their smartphone or other mobile device independently on the commonly available word base. In the future, we are planning to expand this feature in a way that users will have the influence on developing the dictionary themselves. However, it should not be forgotten that it will have to be verified and confirmed by our professional teacher/administrator.

Favourite Feature

The next extra feature is Favourite Feature which aim is to enable the users to mark some translations of certain words and phrases as their 'favourite' and keep them at hand.

Share Feature

Moreover, Vetionary contains Share Feature. This Feature allows us to build the community around Vetionary by engaging the users in our dictionary and letting them share their favourite words/translations in social media. It does not only help us to promote Vetionary, but it also helps the users to spread the access to the specialist knowledge.

Fig. 4. Translation of a word with some Extra Features

Source: marketing materials of Vetionary

Pronunciation Feature

Finally, there is Pronunciation Feature. We know how important pronunciation is and that is why we have developed the feature that allows to listen to the pronunciation of each word. Currently, it is an synthesiser but we intend to create our own recordings.

5. Conclusions and pedagogical implications

Implementing modern technological tools in the process of teaching specialist foreign languages plays an important role. Teaching English for medical purposes, especially to veterinary medicine students seems to be demanding and challenging at the same time. In order to obtain the desired results, veterinary medicine students as well as other students of related fields of studies need to be equipped with a range of specialist materials. It is the specialist veterinary dictionary that seems to constitute the prime source of materials for veterinary medicine students. As it has already been mentioned, there is no specialist veterinary bilingual, namely Polish-English, English-Polish dictionary available. Taking the above into consideration, a unique project called Vetionary has been developed as a combination of the innovative technology together with a specialist veterinary source of knowledge. Vetionary is a specialist veterinary dictionary available in a form of mobile application. The benefits are numerous for both learners and teachers. Apart from its prime goal that is to provide learners with specialist vocabulary/phrases, the dictionary's aim is to integrate learners by building a specialist veterinary learners community around the project, which, in turn, enhances the process of learning specialist veterinary language. Moreover, this project aids to create a positive image of our University that is perceived as a place where specialist knowledge together with innovative technology meet.

As far as pedagogical implications are concerned, it should be stated that Vetionary is to be constantly developed and improved, which will definitely affect the process of learning veterinary language in a positive way. What is more, creating such a project should induce the need to introduce more projects of this kind to our market.

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Tailoring the Business English Course Syllabus to Market Needs

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Abstract

The level of international communication in business has increased exponentially as many companies expand on new foreign markets. As a result, English has become a lingua franca (BELF) in international business communication (Sim 2012; Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken 2007; Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014; Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013). Therefore, teaching general language to future business specialists is a mistaken idea since the market demands highly specialised professionals who need to communicate effectively in specific contexts where time plays an important role (Gavrilova and Trostina 2014; Alibec 2014). However, research shows the varying extent to which the contents of Business English courses reflect either the needs of the target working environment or the students (Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken 2007: 9). A needs analysis and a scrutiny of the specificity of the working environment should be performed before the design stage of the syllabus for the Business English course (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014; Alibec 2014; Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013; Edwards 2000).

The study presents the design of the syllabus for the Business English course taught as part of a BA programme „Linguistics for Business" at the University of Łódź in the second, third and sixth semester. The syllabus has been developed after the analysis of needs of potential target employers. It results from the consultations with the representatives of the future employers and the analysis of the most recurring topics in the local business environment. The curriculum also takes into account the university policy and students' expectations. The purpose of this study is to create a comprehensive, communicative method of training EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) 'students for cross-cultural issues, general linguistic awareness and communicative strategies' in the specialised discourse' that will provide effective means in the business communication in their future professional careers (Gavrilova and Trostina 2014: 7).

Keywords: syllabus, Business English course, professional jargon, course content, needs analysis.

1. Introduction

In the era of globalisation there is a constantly growing need for teaching professional jargons because of the exponential increase in the volume of the international cooperation and exchange of commodities. Thus, the command of English is of overriding importance in business settings as the language has been widely used in the professional international communication. Many international companies have 'adopted English as the corporate lingua franca' in order to increase their competitiveness on the market and highlight their position in business (Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013: 152). As a result, Business English courses have been flourishing on the educational market. However, students learning English as a foreign language want to adjust the course content specifically to their needs, i.e. the course needs to be carefully tailored (Gavrilova and Trostina 2014: 8). Gavrilova and Trostina (2014: 8) further point out that "[…] the contemporary labour market requires more and more narrow specialists" and "therefore there is a huge variety of such courses."

As mentioned above, English has reached the *hypercentral position* in the world counted by the number of books written in English and the level of translations worldwide that accounts for 55–60% (Heilbron 2010: 2). It is also widely used as a communicative tool both at universities and in business (Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013). According to Sim (2012), English has reached the position of being "the international language of business." Moreover, it has become a lingua franca in multinationals so that they could gain a competitive edge (Truchot 2002 in: Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013) and is "not only being used more widely by – and among – non-native speakers to do business, but is also used more frequently to communicate 'about business' with groups around the world such as (potential) employees, consumers and investors" (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 85). Moreover, Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken (2007: 9) remark that "business often involves communication across national borders between people who do not share the same culture." Therefore, people engaged in international business need to acquire sufficient linguistic skills indispensable for professional communication as well as cultural sensitivity.

Business English courses began in 1960s when specialists noticed that it differed from the general language (Rahman 2015: 25). The onset of English for Specific Purposes resulted from the recognition of "the English language needs of the learners for specific purposes in accordance with their professions or job description" (Rahman 2015: 25). The term can be further divided into sub-fields, some of which are English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) and English for Business Purposes (EBP). The latter "is developed for communicative functioning in business contexts" (Rahman 2015: 25). It consists of two basic elements: "a specific content which is related [...] to a particular area of industry and a general content" which allows for "the effective communication, albeit in business contexts and environments" (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 85). As a result, Business English refers to "the teaching of non-native speakers who need English for business purposes, usually working in a company at managerial level and needing to communicate in English with either native speakers or other ESL speakers with whom they do not share a first language" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1996: 1).

According to Rahman (2015), ESP courses share some characteristic features. The content of the course is "related to or designed for specific disciplines" (Rahman 2015: 25). Moreover, they are aimed at adult participants, either students of the tertiary-level educational institution or professionals, with the intermediate-to-advanced command of the target language. Because the courses are dedicated to specific linguistic needs of the learners, needs analysis must be performed in order to define them (Dudley-Evans and St John 1996; Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014; Widodo 2007; Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013; Rahman 2015). Rahman (2015) advises to perform PSA (Present Situation Analysis), TSA (Target Situation Analysis) and LSA (Learning Situation Analysis) tests within the need analyses. According to the author (Rahman 2015), these tests are to define students' linguistic strengths and weaknesses at the beginning of the course, identify 'the learners' language requirements in the occupational or academic setting (Rahman 2015: 26) as well as to investigate the learners' interests and motivation in learning ESP. Furthermore, Mancho-Barés and Llurda (2013) propose a threefold needs analysis in the process of designing a EBP course to define needs of all interest groups involved in the process of education and the working environment, i.e. the educational institution, the learners and the future employers. As a result, the syllabus should take into account the university policy, students' needs and meet the requirements of the prospective employers.

Course and syllabus design of a foreign language learning at the tertiary level of education in Poland is scarcely regulated by the Ordinance of the Ministry of Science and Higher Education on the National Framework for Qualifications of the Higher Education. As "the Ministry of Science and Higher Education provides few recommendations concerning the design of syllabi for foreign languages" (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 83–84), academic teachers have to decide themselves and create syllabi for foreign languages teaching on the basis of the subject field students study. The lack of precise requirements gives the teachers "the opportunity to introduce elements of learner centeredness in the realm of tertiary education, especially with regard to specialized language" (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 88). However, students are rarely involved in the process of syllabus design of specialised language learning in Poland and in fact they are "its passive recipients" (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 84). Therefore, the rationale behind the design of the Business English course at Linguistics for Business is to include the needs of all interest groups and involve the learners in the process of the course design to increase their learning motivation.

2. Designing Business English courses

The command of English at the workplace has become more a necessity than a luxury since English has become the language of international communication in business contexts. Therefore, universities decide to include specialised language courses, i.e. EOP or EBP (English for Occupational Purposes and English for Business Purposes in particular) into the curricula to prepare students comprehensively to their future duties. Business English, thus, allows to communicate effectively in business areas using specific content via general linguistic means (Dzięcioł-Pędich 2014: 85; Ellis and Johnson 1994: 3 in: Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013). The EBP course should focus on the special needs of students: "the themes and topics related to business" (Widodo 2007: 88).

Teaching EBP shares some methodological ideas with the General English, however the syllabus should take the students' specific needs and course content into account. The materials used in the classroom should be "oriented towards learners' vocational areas" (Widodo 2007: 91) because "the goal of English teaching activities is to have learners become communicatively competent based on their specialist areas" (Widodo 2007: 91). Syllabus design should preceded by the analysis of students' expectations towards the BE course since needs analysis "aims at specifying as closely as possible what learners have to do through a medium of English" (Widodo 2007: 89). However, in the case of Linguistics for Business, it is easier to predict the potential areas of students' interests, since the university narrows the employment possibilities to multinational companies or businesses with regular contacts with partners oversees. Moreover, first year students, being secondary school graduates, may lack experience at a workplace. Therefore, the course should focus on practical skills in the most prevailing themes and topics in local business to enable effective communication in specialised contexts.

3. Course background information

The study presents the design of the syllabus for the Business English course taught as part of a new BA programme „Linguistics for Business" at the University of Łódź in the second, third and sixth semester. The total amount of teaching hours is 84 (28 hours per semester). The University requirement for BA level students is 120 teaching hours, but at the first semester the students are taught General English – PNJA (56 teaching hours) and at the fourth semester they are taught 28 hours of International Legal English. The course was preceded by the student's expectations survey and it ended with the course evaluation survey (the results of the conducted surveys are available in the appendices).

4. The profile of the L4B student

The students at Linguistics for Business are graduates of the General Secondary School with the school-leaving examination certificate confirming their level of English at the B2 level. According to the university policy,[1] the expected level of language competence for BA students is to achieve the B2 level in English (in accordance to the requirements set by CEFR). Apart from English, students also learn another foreign language (German, French, Italian, Slovenian, Spanish, etc.) during the three years of studies so the amount of the foreign language input exceeds the university requirements. After graduation, the students are expected to work in multinational companies or businesses where the command of foreign languages is a necessity.

5. Students' expectations survey

At the design stage of the syllabus, a survey measuring the students' expectations was conducted among 50 first-year students picked at random from 80 applicants admitted to studies. The aim of the questionnaire was to check their expectations concerning the contents of the course since the goal was to create a 'focused, learner's need-centred' course (Mancho-Barés and Llurda 2013: 153). Moreover, the purpose of the survey was to check their strong and weak points in English as well as their learning targets and motivation (PSA, LSA, TSA tests).

[1] The Resolution No. 458 of the Senate of the University of Łódź concerning: the rules of achieving the effects of education of the command and communicative skills in a modern foreign language by the students of University of Łódź.

The results of the questionnaire unveil the real profile of the students and their contact with professional jargons in English. 43 students have never participated in specialised language courses, 7 students responded 'yes' to the question, however they consider courses at language schools or exam preparatory to be specialised. 29 students (58%) have some working experience and 20 none. 18 students used English in specialised contexts and 31 did not. The settings were connected with the workplace: customer service, telephoning, financial audit, translation, English teaching or situations in private life, like insurance problems, plumbing, or lectures in English. 33 students consider their English sufficient for the communication, and for only 11 the command of English did not allow for the efficient communication. As for the problems with the command of the English language, the majority spotted terminology as the main areas of problems, then vocabulary, grammar, speaking, fluency, lack of skills or experience in formal writing.

The survey also rated the importance of each language skill. Listening and speaking were evaluated as very important by the majority of respondents whereas reading and writing as important: 31 students consider reading skills to be important and 7 to be even very important. Almost equal amount of students, i.e. 25 and 23 think listening to be very important and important. The vast majority of learners want more speaking exercises and for 20 and 36 students respectively writing is of overriding importance and importance. The graphical representation of the results is available in the appendices in figure 1 and the table with the results of the questionnaire is presented in the results of the L4B Business English student's expectations survey. As for the topics covered by the course, the majority of topic areas selected by the author were evaluated as either very useful or useful for the students' future careers. What is the most surprising is that the topic areas connected with import and export procedures as well as accounting and taxation found little appreciation among students and they consider it to be of little or no importance. However, practice shows that these are the most common duty areas among people employed in the industry or corporations with the command of foreign languages. Students also suggested their topic areas which include: social media, writing professional documents, relations in business, finance and accounting, **IT terminology**, business email writing, business meetings, logistics, cultural aspects, communication in business, motivation, networking, brands, law, negotiations, problems at work, real job scenarios, **informal language at work**, technology in business, politics and job interviews. The choice of their topic areas may reflect little professional experience, because IT terminology traditionally does not belong to the category of English for Business Purposes (unless one works in the IT branch). Moreover, the course focuses on the formal communication at a workplace so the topic informal language at work should be considered irrelevant. The rest of the topics is included in the syllabus (in the next section of the article below).

6. Designing the course content

The syllabus takes into account the results of the student's expectations survey which was conducted at the beginning of the first semester of the course. Thus, it determines the students' current linguistic position and identifies their learning targets (PSA, LSA and TSA). The course content has been developed after the analysis of needs of potential target employers. It results from the consultations with the representatives of the potential future employers (both multinationals, like HP or GE, or local/national businesses, e.g. Pafana S.A.) and the analysis of the most recurring topics in the local business environment (either in corporations or in small business). The curriculum also takes account of the requirements listed in the Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education on the National Framework for Qualifications in Higher Education (discussed in the section: Goals of the Business English course) and the university policy concerning the requirements for foreign language learning[2] (discussed in the section: Profile of the L4B student). The purpose of the syllabus design was to create a comprehensive, communicative method of training EBP (English for Business Purposes) "students for cross-cultural issues, general linguistic awareness and communicative strategies" (Gavrilova and Trostina 2014: 7) in the specialised discourse' that would provide effective means in the business communication in their future professional careers.

In order to satisfy the needs of future employers and the content of business subjects, the course covers a wide variety of topics from different business areas. The focus is on communicative skills: reading, listening speaking and writing in business contexts (therefore the course focuses on specialised vocabulary typical and effective communicative means in these contexts). As a result, the content of the course, developed after a threefold analysis of all interest groups, includes the following topic areas:

[2] See footnote 1.

2nd Semester

Human Resource Management

Students learn how to write a professional CV and cover letter in English and how to behave during a job interview in order to be successful and avoid the most common mistakes.

Franchising

The class covers the characteristic features of this management strategy. Students discuss pros and cons of running a franchise business.

Outsourcing

Students become acquainted with this management strategy, its characteristic features and its use in business and private life. During the class, students discuss types of outsourcing and its use as well as opportunities and threats of being employed in an outsourcing company.

Real estate

The class concentrates on different types of real estate as well as the documentation is required and procedures that are involved in the process of acquisition and disposal of real estate.

Logistics

This class discusses the procedures involved in the international exchange of goods. Students become acquainted with Incoterms, import-export and EU documentation and customs procedures.

Banking and stock market

The class covers types of assets: shares and bonds and differences between them as well as it discusses other forms of money.

Trends

Students learn how to describe graphs and to interpret numerical data in English.

Negotiations

Students acquire negotiations skills, i.e. how to become a successful negotiator in English, and practise negotiations during a group simulation game of business negotiations.

3rd Semester

Types of businesses

During the class, students learn different forms of the formal organisation of companies and how they affect forms of taxation and liability of companies.

Marketing

The class covers marketing mix and criteria of market segmentation. Students learn how to determine the target customer and identify market segments.

Advertising

Students learn different types of advertisements and discuss controversial practices of advertisers as well as the successes and failures of advertising campaigns. As a follow-up exercise students create a social advertising spot as a project work and present to other participants.

Media and business

The class concentrates on the role and impacts of social media in business and students discuss the opportunities and threats for business people and customers.

Sales

Students practise potential situations during the customer service: inquiries, telephone orders, complaints and become acquainted with formal business correspondence: the layout of the business letter, practising written complaints, claims and adjustments.

Supply

The class focuses on factors of production, suppliers and supply strategies. Students practise business correspondence: inquiries, orders, order confirmations.

E-marketing

Students discuss the idea of e-marketing and online shopping and their advantages and disadvantages in comparison with the traditional forms of buying and selling.

Brands

Students elaborate on the importance of brands in commerce and for consumers. The class also concentrates on brand management and creating a brand image.

Taxes

The class focuses on taxation: the difference between direct and indirect taxes and the effects of tax avoidance. Students become acquainted with different forms of employment and taxation.

6th Semester

Career path

The class discusses the difference between the career ladder and the career snake. Students learn different types of meetings and how to hold formal meetings via group in-class practice.

Accounting

Students become acquainted with basic concepts of accounting and audits. The class also concentrates on legal issues governing accounting and discusses types of assets.

Finance

The class deliberates on trends in finance and banking as well as financial problems of international companies.

Presentations

Students learn how to create professional business presentations and become acquainted with the strategies of making professional presentations. The class also provides tips how to be a successful in public speaking and which errors should be avoided.

Cultural diversity

The topic elaborates on the basic concepts behind the cultural issues at work: culture, time, distance; business etiquette and communication and how these factors affect the way of doing business in an international company or working environment.

Corporate entertainment

Students learn how to behave during company events and how to create good relations with customers during outdoor events and how to entertain customers on informal occasions.

Customer service

Students acquire practical linguistic skills to perform customer service and solve problems on the phone and via emails. The class involves in-class peer-reviewed email writing to put the theory into practice.

Problems at work

Students pinpoint potential sources of problems at work and ways of solving them. The class also discusses the way to maintain a balance between private and business life and how to cope with stress at work.

The topics that were selected for the Business English course correspond to the results of the consultations with local business representatives and students' expectations survey. Moreover, the syllabus also meets students' expectations with regards to their "special" needs expressed in the answer for the last, open question concerning their topic proposals.

7. Goals of the L4B Business English course

The goals of the course include developing integrated communicative skills in specialised, i.e. business contexts. The skills which are to be developed at the course go in alliance with the list in the Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education on the National Framework for Qualifications in Higher Education.[3] At the end of the course, the student should:

1) know basic terms in HRM, management, marketing, advertising, finance, banking, accounting, logistics, negotiations, customer service and creating company image in English, which goes in alliance with the skill H1A_W03, H1A_W05;
2) distinguish, read, comprehend and analyse the main genres of specialised texts (H1A_U01, H1P_U13);
3) listen and comprehend specialised texts (distinguish terminology and language functions) (H1P_U11);
4) use correctly typical terminology from the domains mentioned in point 1 in appropriate contexts (H1P_U01);
5) individually use terminology and phrases necessary in specialised oral Communications (pragmatic aspects of specialised communication) (H1A_U09, H1P_U13);
6) create selected business texts in English (H1A_U08, H1P_U12);

[3] Journal of Laws from 2011, No. 253, item 1520 (Dz.U. 2011 nr 253 poz. 1520).

7) develop the following attitudes: openness to cultural varieties, sensitivity to other ways of doing business in different cultures (H1P_K02, H1P_K04, H1P_K05);
8) maintain the command of English at the level B2 (according to CEFR) (H1P_U14).

The aims of the course correspond to students' learning targets on the one hand as well as meet the university policy and the ministry's regulations on the other.

8. Methodology

Expository methods

The teacher provides informative input, i.e. "opportunities for students to investigate and debate" (Sigler and Saam 2007: 23), in the forms of lectures and discussions illustrated with audiovisual means (picture prompts, presentations or videos) with elements of distance learning (handouts for students before classes). Since the course provides knowledge of a professional jargon, new terms and issues are explained during classes.

Practical methods

On the other hand, the classes are not only teacher-centred. The aim of introducing new business notions is to achieve practical classes with exercises on the subject in pair or group works, simulation games, case studies, discussions, projects and brainstorming. The overall goal of each class is to simulate the real-life business situations in order to prepare students effectively to different situations in their future professional careers.

9. Students' assessment criteria

Students are assessed on the basis of different criteria. Firstly, the students need to participate actively in exercises (during classes students need to answer questions, discuss, argue and speak in a foreign language). Secondly, students are to hand in 2 written projects connected with the topics (practical applications of terminology and theoretical knowledge gained during classes), graded on the 2–5 scale. Thirdly, students' progress is assessed by three progress tests, testing their knowledge of terminology and specialised knowledge gained during classes in the form of open and closed tests. The borderline of passing is 50% minimum. The final grade is the average of all grades gathered during the whole semester.

10. The results of BE course evaluation

After the course the participants were given questionnaires to evaluate the course after three semesters of studies. The survey was conducted on a representative sample of 30 third-year students picked at random from 45 graduates. The majority of students attended the classes regularly and found the course requirements clearly stated. The grading system was fair in the opinion of the participants and the material of the course considered to be relevant and up-to-date. The lecturer was helpful for the students and the pace of the class allowed them to take notes during the class. Only 8 students made use of the consultation opportunities and managed to solve their problems (the results are presented in the appendices).

The evaluation of the importance of topics covered by the course varies with the results of initial questionnaire. The students' responses were more similar in comparison with the previous survey. It may stem from the fact that 57% of respondents have gained some more professional experience at corporations (even though the ratio of students with professional experience is slightly lower than in the previous questionnaire due to a high student dropout rate) and other more serious positions (deducted from their almost undifferentiated answers). The majority of topics are considered either to be very useful or useful for the students' future jobs. The graphical representation of the students' answers is available in figure 4 in the appendices. The majority of students were satisfied with the course and they suggested few changes with the course content. The results of the questionnaire, however, showed the insufficient amount of written assignments in terms of the balance of the developed language skills (the graphical representation of results is presented in figure 3).

11. Conclusion

Business English course at Linguistics for Business is a brand new course developed for the needs of a new programme of studies at the University of Łódź which proves to be very popular among secondary school graduates. Every year, there are more and more applicants for the BA programme measured by the number of candidates admitted for the studies (in 2013 – 80 candidates, in 2014 – 105, and in 2015 – 120). One of the subjects is Business English whose syllabus was created on the basis of the students' needs analysis, analysis of needs of potential target employers (consultations), analysis of the most recurring topics in the local business environment, university policy (concerning foreign language teaching and the specificity of the L4B programme) and the Ordinance of the Minister of Science and Higher Education on the National Framework for Qualifications in Higher Education. The course also involves the students into the process of designing the course as the syllabus includes their needs, their topic suggestions and learning targets. The purpose of the syllabus design was to create a comprehensive and communicative course English for Business Purposes to acquaint students with the issues in the multinational working environment, maintain their command of the general language and develop communicative strategies in business contexts that might prove to be useful in their careers. For this reason, the course covers a wide variety of topics from different business areas to anticipate particular needs of future employers. Moreover, the course develops all language skills: reading, listening speaking and writing in business contexts. As a part of the evaluation process of the developed syllabus, the students of the third year were be asked to fill in a student satisfaction survey at the end of the course which showed that the endeavours to meet all requirements and satisfy students' needs gained recognition among the course participants.

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APPENDICES

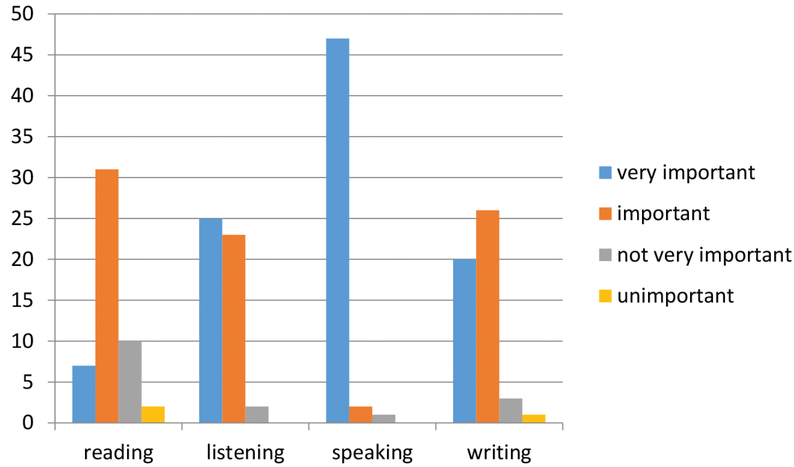

Fig. 1. The graphical representation of the student's expectations survey concerning the importance of the language skills

Source: own study based on the author's survey conducted among first-year L4B students

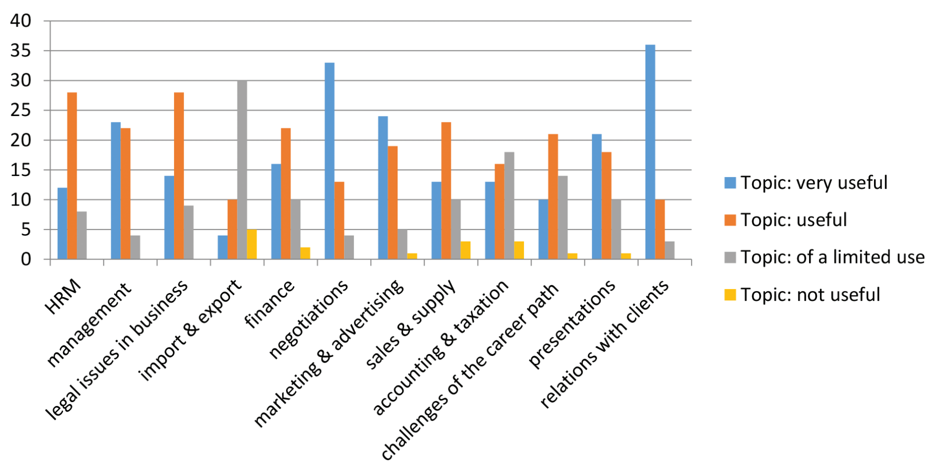

Fig. 2. The graphical representation showing the usefulness of the selected topics (data from the student's expectations survey)

Source: own study based on the author's survey conducted among first-year L4B students

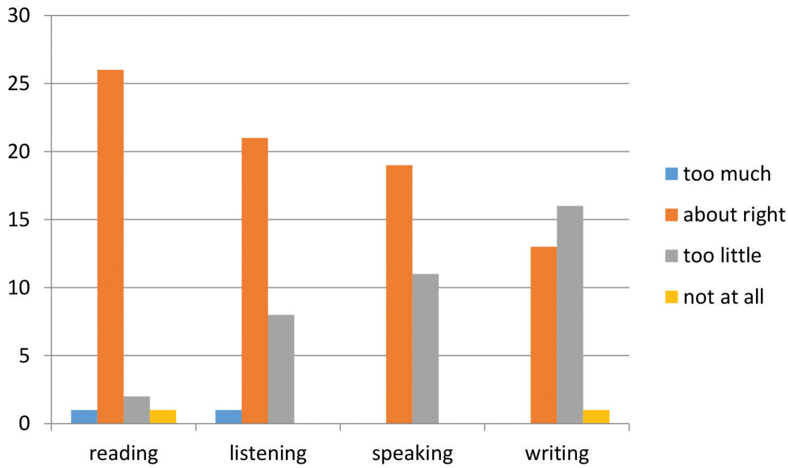

Fig. 3. Graphical representation of the balance of the language skills at the L4B Business English course (data taken from the course evaluation survey)

Source: own study based on the author's survey conducted among third-year L4B students

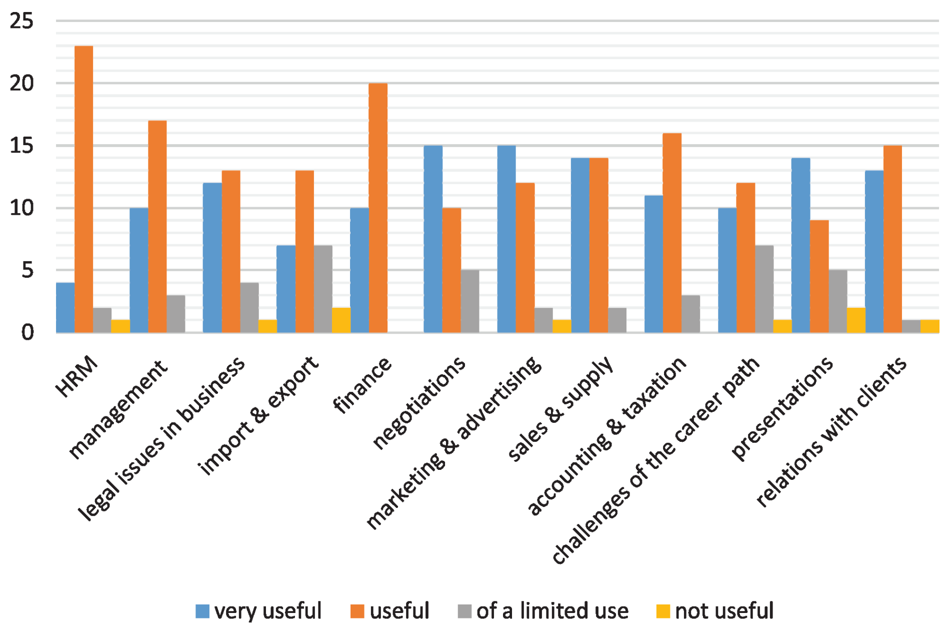

Fig. 4. Graphical representation of the usefulness of the topics covered at the L4B Business English course (data from the course evaluation survey)

Source: own study based on the author's survey conducted among third-year L4B students

L4B Business English student's expectations survey

1. How long have you been learning English?
   ....
2. Have you ever participated in a specialised English course?
   YES/NO
3. If so, what kind?
   ....
4. Have you got any working experience?
   YES/NO
5. Have you ever used English in specialised contexts?
   YES/NO
6. If yes, in what circumstances?
   ....
7. Was your knowledge of English sufficient to communicate?
   YES/NO
8. If no, list the problems (terminology, lack of language skills):
   ....
9. Which of the skills are the most important for you in the professional communication (tick one in each skill)?

Skills	**Very important**	**Important**	**Not very important**	**Unimportant**
Reading				
Listening				
Speaking				
Writing				

10. Which of the topics do you consider most/least useful for your future career (tick one in each topic)?

Topics	**Very useful**	**Useful**	**Of a limited use**	**Not useful**
HRM				
Management				
Legal issues in business				
Import and export				
Finance				

Negotiations				
Marketing and advertising				
Sales and supply				
Accounting and taxation				
Challenges of the career path				
Presentations				
Relations with clients				

11. Are there any other topics you would like to discuss at the Business English course?

The results of the L4B Business English student's expectations survey

1. The students' experience of learning English: 4–16 years, majority 9–12 years
2. Participation in specialised English courses: yes: 7 students, no: 43 students
3. Type of specialised courses: language school courses (2), CAE courses (2), school exam preparatory courses (2)
4. Students with working experience: 29
   Students with no working experience: 20
5. The use of English in specialised contexts: 18
   No use of English in specialised contexts: 31
6. Situations: customer service, telephoning, financial audit, translation, English teaching or situations in private life, like insurance problems, plumbing, lectures in English
7. Sufficient level of English: 33
   Not sufficient level of English: 11
8. List of problems: terminology, vocabulary, grammar, speaking, fluency, lack of skills or experience in formal writing, listening
9. The anticipated importance of language skills in professional communication:

Skills	Very important	Important	Not very important	Unimportant
Reading	7	**31**	10	2
Listening	**25**	23	2	0
Speaking	**47**	2	1	0
Writing	20	**26**	3	1

10. The anticipated usefulness of topics:

Topics	Very useful	Useful	Of a limited use	Not useful
HRM	12	**28**	8	0
Management	**23**	22	4	0
Legal issues in business	14	**28**	9	0
Import and export	4	10	**30**	5
Finance	16	**22**	10	2
Negotiations	**33**	13	4	0
Marketing and advertising	**24**	19	5	1
Sales and supply	13	**23**	10	3
Accounting and taxation	13	16	**18**	3
Challenges of the career path	10	**21**	14	1
Presentations	**21**	18	10	1
Relations with clients	**36**	10	3	0

11. Other topics: social media, writing professional documents, relations in business, finance and accounting, **IT terminology**, business email writing, business meetings, logistics, cultural aspects, communication in business, motivation, networking, brands, law, negotiations, problems at work, real job scenarios, informal language at work, technology in business, politics and job interviews.

L4B Business English Course Evaluation Survey

1. Did you attend the course regularly?
   YES/ALMOST/HARDLY/NO
2. Have you found the course requirements clearly stated?
   YES/RATHER YES/RATHER NO/NO
3. How do you rate the grading system?
   FAIR/RATHER FAIR/RATHER UNFAIR/UNFAIR
4. Was the lecturer helpful for the students?
   YES/RATHER YES/RATHER NO/NO
5. Was the material of the course relevant and up-to-date?
   YES/RATHER YES/RATHER NO/NO

6. Were you able to take notes during the class?
YES/RATHER YES/RATHER NO/NO
7. Did you make use of the consultation opportunities?
YES/NO
8. If YES, did you solve the problems you had?
YES/SOMETIMES/RARELY/NO
9. How do you find the balance of each skill during the course (tick one in each skill)?

Skills	**Too much**	**About right**	**Too little**	**Not at all**
Reading				
Listening				
Speaking				
Writing				

10. Which of the topics do you find most/least useful for your future career (tick one in each topic)?

Topics	**Very useful**	**Useful**	**Of a limited use**	**Not useful**
HRM				
Management				
Legal issues in business				
Import and export				
Finance				
Negotiations				
Marketing and advertising				
Sales and supply				
Accounting and taxation				
Issues at work				
Challenges of the career path				
Presentations				
Relations with clients				

11. Have you had the occasions to use the knowledge you gained in business situations?

YES/NO

12. If YES, in what circumstances?

....

13. Are there any other topics you consider important at the Business English course?

....

14. Is there anything you would like to change in the Business English course?

The results of the L4B Business English Course Evaluation Survey

1. Did you attend the course regularly?

YES – **22**, ALMOST – 8, HARDLY – 0, NO – 0

2. Have you found the course requirements clearly stated?

YES – **21**, RATHER YES – 9, RATHER NO – 0, NO – 0

3. How do you rate the grading system?

FAIR – **20**, RATHER FAIR – 6, RATHER UNFAIR – 2, UNFAIR – 1

4. Was the lecturer helpful for the students?

YES – **20**, RATHER YES – 8, RATHER NO – 2, NO – 0

5. Was the material of the course relevant and up-to-date?

YES – **21**, RATHER YES – 8, RATHER NO – 1, NO – 0

6. Were you able to take notes during the class?

YES – **24**, RATHER YES – 5, RATHER NO – 1, NO – 0

7. Did you make use of the consultation opportunities?

YES – 8, NO **– 22**

8. If YES, did you solve the problems you had?

YES – **8**, SOMETIMES – 0, RARELY – 0, NO – 0

9. How do you find the balance of each skill during the course (tick one in each skill)?

Skills	Too much	About right	Too little	Not at all
Reading	1	**26**	2	1
Listening	1	**21**	8	0
Speaking	0	**19**	11	0
Writing	0	13	**16**	1

10. Which of the topics do you find most/least useful for your future career (tick one in each topic)?

Topics	Very useful	Useful	Of a limited use	Not useful
HRM	4	**23**	2	1
Management	10	**17**	3	0
Legal issues in business	12	**13**	4	1
Import and export	7	**13**	4	2
Finance	10	**20**	0	0
Negotiations	**15**	10	5	0
Marketing and advertising	**15**	12	2	1
Sales and supply	**14**	**14**	2	0
Accounting and taxation	11	**14**	3	2
Issues at work	11	**16**	3	0
Challenges of the career path	10	**12**	7	1
Presentations	**14**	9	5	2
Relations with clients	13	**15**	1	1

11. Have you had the occasions to use the knowledge you gained in business situations?

    YES – **17**, NO – 13
12. The students used knowledge gained during the course in the following situations:

    in a corporation, during internship (5), at work (8), during team meetings concerning projects, making business presentations, customer service, emailing, telephoning
13. Other topics considered important at the Business English course included:

    customer service, job interview, more accounting and finance
14. Suggested changes in the BE course: more classes, no presentations, more public speaking, more speaking (2), more writing (3), more listening, **legal issues in business**, job interviews.

The Development of Basic Business Correspondence Skills by English Philology Students

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Abstract

The present study aims to investigate the development of basic business correspondence skills by English philology students over a period of three months. Special attention is paid to the difficulties encountered by the students and the challenges business correspondence poses to both teachers and students. The course focused on the layout, content and style of letters frequently used in business correspondence, such as enquiries, replies and covering letters. It was based on the books by Ashley (2003) and Taylor (2004), enriched with some examples from the Internet.

The results reveal various problems, from the layout, through inappropriate salutations and complimentary closes and too informal a genre, to language mistakes. Arguably, although business professionals pay more attention to pragmatic factors than to language accuracy (Zhang 2013), accuracy is also important, as some language mistakes can cause misunderstandings. However, the acquisition of the proper layout of a business letter and of formulaic language characteristic of this genre can also be quite challenging. Consequently, even though regular correction by the teacher can eliminate certain errors, learning business correspondence requires considerable practice in order to acquire the genre.

Keywords: business correspondence, skill development, Business English.

1. Introduction

The purpose of the present study has been an investigation of the development of basic business correspondence skills by English philology students. Given the limited period of time over which the study was carried out, it is possible to observe some tendencies in the acquisition of Business English as a genre, but it has to be assumed that mastering business correspondence requires much more time and effort. Consequently, the study focuses on the difficulties encountered by the students at the early stages of acquiring business correspondence skills and the challenges this process poses to both teachers and students. However, any improvement observed in the students' writing will also be taken into consideration.

Even though the style of business letters often depends on the context, including the cultures of the countries involved and even the practices of the company itself (Carrió Pastor and Muñiz Calderón 2012; Waldvogel 2007), it is assumed here that some basic rules should be learnt as universal, and only while working for a particular company can one acquire, for example, a less formal style if this is the style used by the company. As will be shown below, despite some variation, which can also be observed in Business English textbooks, business correspondence can be regarded as a genre whose rules are relatively fixed, which is why learning it often involves analysing and imitating model letters (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). Finally, it will be attempted to propose some implications for teaching and learning business correspondence, as well as some perspectives of further research.

2. Business English as a genre

In general, Business English constitutes a very special genre of English language writing for the following reasons: On the one hand, it is a branch of English for Specific Purposes and, as such, it is to some extent interdisciplinary, because understanding Business English terminology involves some knowledge of economics, business, finance, banking, etc. (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 6–9). On the other hand, English being the world language nowadays, it is very often used in communication between native and non-native speakers, or even between non-native speakers only. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 53) point out, "most English-medium communications in business are non-native speaker to non-native speaker (NNS-NNS) and the English they use is International English, not that of native-speakers (NS) of English-medium countries […]." As a result, as Barnham and Oates (1991, as quoted in Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 54) have remarked, it is often easier for non-native speakers to understand each other than to understand native speakers and to be understood by them.

The purpose of International English is effective communication, but it does not require non-native speakers to speak English like native speakers; in fact, native speakers of English also have to learn International English in order to participate in international business communication (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 54). However, even though International English, especially English as a lingua franca (defined as "a contact language used only among non-mother tongue speakers," Jenkins 2006: 160, as quoted in

Berns 2009: 192) involves some simplifications, for example, in the area of pronunciation and morphology (Jenkins 2009), it must be assumed that it has to be mutually comprehensible. Arguably, this is even more important in written than in spoken communication, as speaking allows immediate corrections and explanations, while errors which rendered a business letter incomprehensible might require the recipient to contact the sender, perhaps also by letter or email. As Ashley (2003: 5) puts it, "[u]nclear or confusing correspondence can cause many problems, and can lead to misunderstandings, delays, lost business, and poor relations between individuals, departments and companies."

Moreover, the quality of business correspondence reflects the sender's competence and professionalism (Ashley 2003: 5) and it can also be assumed to be an advertisement of the company. It should therefore be effective not only in terms of meeting the sender's communicative goals, such as making an enquiry or quoting a price, but also in terms of meeting the standards of the genre. Undoubtedly, a business letter which contains grammatical mistakes or is too informal may be perfectly comprehensible, but it will not be perceived as fully professional.

At the same time, achieving comprehensibility in business communication requires business professionals to follow certain standard patterns of vocabulary use (Carrió Pastor and Muñiz Calderón 2012: 6). In fact, as Carrió Pastor and Muñiz Calderón (2012: 6) point out, Business English "is a genre with lexical patterns internationally established in order to communicate fluently." However, appropriate vocabulary use is not limited to single words, but it includes "collocation, clustering, colligation, semantic prosody, genre and on to a supra-generic ordering" (Carrió Pastor and Muñiz Calderón 2012: 6). In fact, some fixed phrases, or formulaic language (cf. Bolander 1989), used in Business English have to be learnt as wholes, though allowing for some modification of the data involved (dates, names of products, etc.). A number of examples of such more or less ready-made phrases are given in Ashley (2003) for instance: "I would like to thank you for your enquiry of 10 May 20-, and am pleased to tell you that we would be able to supply you with the…" (Ashley 2003: 48), or: "We would be grateful for an early reply" (Ashley 2003: 41). On the one hand, such phrases are useful and facilitate writing, but on the other hand, they also sound professional and are more comprehensible than, for example, a non-native speaker's attempt at translating a formula word for word from his or her native language into English.

Still, given its interdisciplinary character and the variety of contexts of its use, Business English is quite difficult to define. According to Pickett (1986: 16, as quoted in Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 54), business communication has different aspects and some of it is "a lot nearer the everyday language spoken by the general public than many other segments of ESP." Indeed, as Waldvogel (2007) has shown, the choice of greetings and closings in professional email largely depends on cultural and sociolinguistic factors, such as status, social distance and gender, as well as on the rules established in a particular company. In her study (Waldvogel 2007: 470), there were considerable differences between both companies under investigation in terms of men's and women's use of greetings; at the same time, the differences in the use of closings were much smaller. At the same time, even though greetings reflected social distance in both organisations, they also "contributed to constructing relationships as more or less distant" (Waldvogel 2007: 468). Similarly, in international business correspondence, despite the existence of fixed patterns and phrases, there are some differences in the lexical choices of people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Carrió Pastor and Muñiz Calderón 2012). It can thus be supposed that, even though the basic rules of business correspondence as a genre are relatively universal, learners should be aware of the possibilities of variation within the genre in order to be able to adapt to the standard practices of a particular company or cultural context. Indeed, as Platzer (2000: 29) has remarked, "possible deviations from the expected style choices might be incorporated into the teaching of business correspondence." However, some deviations should be avoided, for example, the use of contractions instead of full forms (Platzer 2000: 48). Still, at the beginning level, it is better to learn the standard style and, possibly; to learn to diverge from it later.

In fact, also in real correspondence, the continuum of styles goes from a standard, formal style adopted at the beginning, towards a more relaxed style at a later stage when the business partners know each other better. As Gimenez (2000: 242) has shown, a style resembling spontaneous speech is used in professional emails by customers who have "already established a business/correspondence relationship with the company than in those which requested information for the first time." This supports the statement by Charles (1996: 33, as quoted in: Gimenez 2000: 249) that business interactions involve a progression from standard behaviour in new relationships towards greater freedom in long-time ones. However, this is not always the case, as some companies, which "have a permanent legal status" (Gains 1999: 90, in: Gimenez 2000: 246), maintain the standard conventions of formal business communication, even in emails.

Moreover, as Zhang (2013: 149) has observed on the basis of his own study and earlier research, business professionals evaluate business correspondence differently from linguists and English language teachers.

While teachers are mainly concerned with linguistic accuracy and meeting formal requirements, business practitioners take a broader view that includes content, process knowledge, rhetorical purpose, etc., which all contribute to the effectiveness of communication and the maintenance of the corporate image. This indicates that there is still a gap "between the classroom and the profession" (Zhang 2013: 153) and that a high level of genre knowledge is not sufficient to understand the more subtle aspects of business communication. Indeed, as Zhang (2013: 153) concludes, "no prescriptive identity of an international business professional can be identified," so it can be assumed that certain features of business correspondence can only be acquired by long-term professional practice.

As to the more specific rules of business letters, obviously, they have to possess a standard layout (Ashley 2003; Taylor 2004), which includes, for example, the sender's address, the inside address (that is, the recipient's address, especially if he or she is an employee of a company), the date, the salutation and the complimentary close, as well as a formula used in a particular text type (for example, in a covering letter, one usually includes a reference to the job advertisement one is replying to). Another important feature is the compatibility of salutations and complimentary closes, for example, in the case of "Dear Sir or Madam", the corresponding complimentary close is "Yours faithfully", while "Yours sincerely" is used with less formal salutations, such as "Dear Mr Brown" (Ashley 2003: 11). According to Ashley (2003: 11), old-fashioned phrases, such as "Respectfully yours" should be avoided. By the same token, neither Ashley (2003), nor Taylor (2004) list such informal closings as "Best wishes" or "Best regards" as possible options; they only appear in some examples of emails, for instance, Taylor (2004: 26) includes the closing "Best wishes" in an email addressed at "Dear Suzie", which indicates an informal relationship between the sender and the recipient. Similarly, no example in either book is limited to "Sincerely", as it always occurs in the phrase "Yours sincerely". Therefore, even though the closing "Sincerely" can be observed, for example, in online petitions (Włosowicz, in preparation a), it cannot be regarded as a polite complimentary close in business correspondence and cannot thus be accepted in students' writing.

In summary, teaching Business English has to take into consideration the features of business correspondence as a genre on the one hand and the requirements of effective communication on the other (that is why, for example, excessive formality, such as the use of old-fashioned phrases, should be avoided). At the same time, being part of English for Specific Purposes, teaching Business English should follow the rules of the didactics of ESP in general.

3. The didactics of Business English

By and large, as has already been mentioned above, Business English constitutes a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 1), a theory of ESP should either be based on the nature of the texts that learners have to master, or on the learners' needs and the nature of teaching based on needs. Moreover, "all ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 4) and, although language constitutes one of its defining features, activities should depend on the genres and registers that students have to acquire in a particular area. The role of students' needs is therefore very important, although, it might be supposed that there is a considerable difference between the needs of business professionals who know the field very well, both in terms of content acquired in their native language and of the rules of business communication, and only need to master the genre and vocabulary used in this area in English, and those of English philology students who have chosen to specialise in Business English, but who still have little knowledge of the field as such.

In general, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 4–5) define ESP in terms of absolute and variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics include meeting learners' specific needs, using the methodology and the activities of the corresponding disciplines and focusing on "the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 5). On the other hand, among the variable characteristics, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 5) list the fact that ESP "may be related to or designed for specific disciplines," it may use a teaching methodology different from that of general English, it is often designed for adults, studying either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional setting, and it tends to assume basic knowledge of the language, so it is mainly taught to intermediate or advanced learners rather than to beginners. As for the content of ESP, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 11) divide it into the carrier content and the real content. For example, a text on the life cycle of a plant can be used as the real content of a biology class, or as the carrier content of a grammar class focusing on the sequence of tenses (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 11–12). The present study focuses on the real content of Business English classes, although the choice of a particular example, such as ordering computers and related equipment can also be regarded as the carrier content of a class on the layout of an order as a business letter, rather than the real content of a class devoted to IT vocabulary.

Moreover, unlike a general English teacher, an ESP practitioner has a far more complex role. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 13), he or she is a teacher, a "course designer and materials provider," a collaborator, a researcher and an evaluator. In fact, in a professional setting, the teacher does not necessarily have to know the content better than the learners. Sometimes achieving genuine communication in the classroom requires the teacher to draw upon the students' knowledge of the subject matter. Moreover, the role of the teacher as a provider of materials is particularly important if no suitable published material exists. However, there is a danger that the teacher may ignore existing published material, which may result in what Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 15) call "re-invention of the wheel." At the same time, the ESP teacher should keep up with the research on ESP in order to apply the findings to needs analysis, course design or the preparation of teaching materials. As a collaborator, the teacher may, for example, provide a carrier content for English language classes that is compatible with the subject matter studied by his or her students, or prepare the learners for a business presentation. Finally, as an evaluator, an ESP practitioner has a double role: he or she has to evaluate both teaching materials and the students' language skills.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 55) divide English for Business Purposes into English for General Business Purposes (EGBP) and English for Specific Business Purposes (ESBP). Courses in English for General Business Purposes are usually designed for learners who either have no professional experience yet or are at the early stages of their career, which is also the case of English philology students. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 55), they resemble general EFL courses, with the exception that the materials are "set in business contexts." By contrast, courses in English for Specific Business Purposes are designed for experienced business professionals who bring their own knowledge and skills to the classroom and, as a result, such courses have to be carefully adjusted to the learners' needs and focus on specific language skills and communicative events. Still, in such contexts as that of the present study, involving English for General Business Purposes, it may be assumed that the learners' needs are less specific, first, because they have to acquire the basics of Business English in order to know what they are going to specialise in later on, second, because the knowledge and skills taught at this level are still very general, so they serve as an introduction to Business English rather than the satisfaction of particular needs. For this reason, the teacher ought to follow the syllabus and only enrich it with some extra materials, rather than asking the students about their needs and expectations and focusing on fulfilling them.

As for the teaching of business correspondence in particular, a key element in professional communication is the knowledge of the genre (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 115; Zhang 2013: 145–146). It involves understanding the expectations of the discourse community, as well as the conventions concerning "the structure, the language and the rhetoric of the genre" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 115). An important role is also played by intertextuality, or reference to texts as well as the interaction of genres within the discourse community and recurring readers' responses to particular text types (Zhang 2013: 145). It is therefore important to make students familiar with business letters that can serve as models for their writing.

Still, the development of business correspondence skills should not be limited to following "ready-made" examples. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 114–115) postulate a social constructionist approach, which combines the advantages of both the product and process approaches. On the one hand, the product approach focuses on the features of the text as the end-product and starts with the presentation of a model text, followed by its analysis and manipulation, which results in the creation of a parallel text (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 116). However, this should not be the mechanical manipulation of a text, but rather a conscious process which involves reflection on what happens in business writing. On the other hand, the process approach is based on problem-solving and concentrates on the notions of thinking and process (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 117). After the thinking stage, at which a plan is made, at the process stage the plan is converted into sentences and paragraphs, then the first draft is reviewed and revised, and so are the subsequent drafts. Yet, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 117) remark, the process approach "does not take into account the broader context of the writing process," although writing constitutes a social act and the social contexts imposes some constraints on it. As a result, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 18) postulate that teaching ESP writing should include the following stages: reading model texts in order to develop rhetorical awareness, practising specific genre features, carrying out "writing tasks showing awareness of the *needs of individual readers and the discourse community* and *the purpose of the writing*" (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 118, their emphasis), and, finally, the evaluation of the writing. Certainly, on a business writing course, there is usually no recipient other than the teacher or another student, but, as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 115) remark, the student should at least imagine a possible reader of his or her letter.

Yet, putting this approach into practice can be actually quite difficult. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 119) remark, even though writing requires time for reflection and revision, which is not very feasible in the classroom, learners need help while writing and not only afterwards. Consequently, it is the teacher's responsibility to strike a balance between giving the students explanations ("*talking about* writing", Dudley-Evans and St John 1998: 119, their emphasis) and administering in-class writing tasks.

Finally, as Zhang (2013: 154) points out, "business genres need to be taught in a holistic way." In his view, "the production of a professionally recognisable text requires enacting the relevant professional role by displaying the formal process, rhetorical, and subject-matter dimensions of genre knowledge" (Zhang 2013: 154). At the same time, students should be encouraged to regard themselves as researchers in order to develop language and genre awareness, as well as strategies necessary for performing actual business writing tasks (Zhang 2013: 154).

4. The study

4.1. Participants

The study was carried out with fifty-one English philology students who specialised in English for Business at the University of Ostrava, Czech Republic. Twenty-six of them were female and twenty-five were male, and they all had Czech as their L1.

Thirty-one of the participants were second-year full-time students and eleven were second-year extramural students following a business correspondence course taught by the present author. The syllabus was the same in both groups, as regards the letter types the students were expected to master, but the amount of time available was different. While the full-time students had a business correspondence class every week, the extramural group, who had classes at university only once a week, had business correspondence classes alternately with an introduction to Business English, which mainly consisted of business terminology and the underlying concepts. As a result, there was less time for in-class work and the extramural students had to write more business letters in the form of home assignments.

On the other hand, the study also takes into account texts produced by nine third-year extramural students, who had Business English and English for Tourism with the present author, while business correspondence was taught to them by another academic teacher. The third group is taken into consideration for comparison, because as they were more advanced in business correspondence, it could be supposed that they already knew the basic rules of this genre.

4.2. Method

The method adopted in the present study is an analysis of the end products of the writing tasks the participants performed over a period of three months. The course was mostly based on two books: *Oxford Handbook of Commercial Correspondence* by A. (Aasheim) Ashley (2003) and *Model Business Letters, E-Mails and Other Business Documents* by Shirley Taylor (2004), enriched with some model texts from the Internet. However, in case of differences, the main point of reference was Ashley's book, as it was the main item on the syllabus. Therefore, for example, the date was consequently placed on the right hand side, below the sender's address, as in Ashley's examples (for example Ashley 2003: 9, and throughout the book), and not on the left hand side, above the inside address (Taylor 2004: 7). Similarly, though Taylor (2004: 314) requires a CV to be dated at the bottom, this is not done by Ashley (2003: 274–275) that is why the students were not required to date their CVs.

As the second-year students were beginners in Business English, rather than meeting their specific needs, the course was based on the syllabus imposed by the university, which included writing such business letters as enquiries, replies to enquiries, CVs, covering letters, complaints, replies to complaints, quotations and advice of payment. The focus was on making the students acquire the characteristic features of the genre, such as the layout of the business letter, the language from the point of view of the standard level of formality (students' attempts to write informal emails to imaginary long-time business friends were excluded for not being representative enough) and of fixed phrases, as well as the kind of information each letter type had to contain.

The text types analysed in the present study are as follows: an enquiry written on the basis of an enquiry presented in Ashley (2003: 9), paying special attention to the layout of a business letter, a CV, a covering letter, an enquiry written in class and the reply to it. In the latter case, the students were asked to work in pairs, starting by writing enquiries and then replying to the partner's enquiry. Four students also wrote some other letters included in the syllabus, such as quotations and complaints, but as they did it ahead of time and the other students did not perform the same tasks, those letters can only be analysed apart from the rest. Similarly, the analysis takes into consideration the complaint to a hotel or a restaurant and/or the reply to such a complaint, which the third-year group wrote as a home assignment for one of the English for Tourism classes.

As there were no actual business partners, the possibilities of applying a real social constructionist approach were limited, but the students were at least encouraged to imagine a possible addressee and to view themselves as employees of a company of their choice, possibly an imaginary one (Włosowicz, in preparation b). The approach was to some extent a product approach, as the students were expected to read model letters and to construct similar ones. However, apart from analysing ready-made examples, the classes included writing business letters together; the teacher (the present author) would improvise a letter on the blackboard and the students were encouraged to come up with their own ideas, for example, of what kind of experience to include in the CV or how to present oneself in the covering letter. As such co-operative writing involved some revision and correction, the course can be said to have applied a process approach too.

The research questions were as follows: First, what does the students' writing reveal about the process of developing business correspondence skills over the period under study? Are there any differences between the full-time and the extramural groups?

Second, what does the present study reveal about the challenges that business correspondence poses to teachers and students?

4.3. Results and discussion

4.3.1. Analysis criteria

The analysis takes into account the numbers of business letters containing particular kinds of errors and deviations from the models adopted as the norm. The error categories taken into consideration in the evaluation of the business letters are: the lack of a sender address, the lack of an inside address, the lack of a date, an inappropriate order of presentation (for example, the date is given below the inside address and not below the sender's address), insufficient information, an inappropriate salutation and/or complimentary close (for example, "Dear Sir or Madam" followed by "Yours sincerely" instead of by "Yours faithfully", or writing "Dear Sir" to a company where the recipient may also be a woman and the appropriate salutation would be "Dear Sir or Madam"), language mistakes, an inappropriate style (colloquial, impolite, etc.) and other errors (for example, the lack of the addressee's name in the inside address, followed by "Dear Mr Houston" in the salutation). On the other hand, the error categories detected in the CVs are: insufficient data, an inappropriate order, language mistakes, the use of Czech (for example, the untranslated names of schools and institutions), inappropriate data presentation, an incorrect temporal sequence (counter-intuitively, it is better to present one's former jobs from the most recent one to the earliest one

(Ashley 2003: 274; Taylor 2004: 313); apparently, recruiters are busy and the first item might not be representative enough – for example, a part-time job during one's studies – and, still, it might make the wrong impression), a lack of precision (for example, mentioning one's knowledge of English without indicating one's level of proficiency) an inappropriate style, and other errors (for example, including an inappropriate photo; even though photos were not required, two students included them, one of whom used a photo of himself from the waist up, wearing a suit and a bowtie).

While certain kinds of errors, such as the lack of a date or an inappropriate layout, could appear only once in a letter, language mistakes and stylistic ones could be quite numerous. Consequently, the quantitative analysis takes each letter containing a particular type of mistake into consideration only once: for example, in the first enquiry (hereafter called Enquiry 1), in the full-time group, four letters lacked a date and twenty-four letters contained a larger or smaller number of language mistakes. In other words, the analysis takes into consideration types rather than tokens and, in the above example, the numbers shown in the table are four and twenty-four respectively. However, it does not focus on language mistakes, unless they are relevant to business correspondence skills, for example, because they sound impolite. The percentages of the occurrences of each type of mistake are calculated every time for the number of letters of a particular type that has been turned in. As a result, even though the same number of errors of some kind has been made by both groups, it may correspond to a different percentage of business letters in each group.

The numbers of letters containing particular error types in the full-time and the extramural groups are then compared by means of a chi-square test in order to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between the groups, that is, whether the number of problems detected depends on the group. Finally, in the full-time group, the numbers of errors detected in Enquiry 1 and Enquiry 2 are compared by means of a chi-square test in order to see whether there is any statistically significant difference between them, or more precisely, whether any visible progress made by the students can be observed.

4.3.2. Analysis and discussion of the results

As the results show, business correspondence can be said to be a difficult skill to acquire for several reasons. First of all, keeping in mind the right layout of a business letter, including the right position of the sender's address, the inside address and the date can be quite difficult, as it is not normally part of academic writing, which mainly consists in writing essays, which, by definition, do not require any dates and addresses. Secondly, as will be shown in more detail below, language issues are quite important. On the one hand, the students still have some problems with linguistic correctness. Even though this was not the main concern of the business correspondence course, as they were studying practical English language skills separately, language mistakes were also corrected by the present author in order to show the students that the accuracy of writing is also a part of the corporate image. As Taylor (2004: 42) puts it, "[o]ne error is too many." On the other hand, apart from grammatical and lexical correctness, business correspondence requires a particular style and, even though some variation is possible, it has to be sufficiently formal and polite, which was not always the case in the students' writing. Thirdly, as the students' letters show, it can be difficult to provide the right amount of data and sometimes the data were actually insufficient.

The first business letter provided by the students was an enquiry. The corpus contains twenty-six enquiries written by the full-time group and twelve enquiries provided by the extramural group; one extramural student, for some reason, turned in two enquiries. The results of the analysis of Enquiry 1 are shown in table 1.

Table 1. The numbers and percentages of different types of errors in Enquiry 1, as well as of fully correct letters

	Fully correct	No sender address	No inside address	No date	Inappropriate order	Insufficient data	Wrong salutation/ close	Language mistakes	Style	Other
Full-time	0	0	0	4	8	8	8	24	6	10
	0%	0%	0%	15.38%	30.76%	30.76%	30.76%	92.3%	23.08%	38.46%
Extra-mural	0	0	0	1	3	2	6	11	2	0
	0%	0%	0%	8.33%	25%	16.67%	50%	91.67%	50%	0%

Source: own study

As the results indicate, there were no fully correct business letters, as all of them contained at least one mistake (mostly one or more language mistakes), even if they met the other requirements. As to the layout, both groups remembered that a business letter, in this case an enquiry, had to contain the sender's address and the inside address. However, the need for dating a letter was probably less obvious to the participants, as a minority (four students in the full-time group and one in the extramural group) forgot to include a date.

The most frequent type of errors were, of course, language errors, but, as such, they are less relevant to the present study. By contrast, there were some problems with the style, ranging from contractions ("I'd like to order […]," "It's a new line of organic lipsticks […]"), through too informal a style ("we have seen in your company promo video […]"), to phrases which sounded impolite ("I am writing to you because I want to ask about the mobile phone […]," instead of: "[…] because I would like to ask about the mobile phone […]").

Furthermore, the order of a business letter posed the students a problem (30.76% of the full-time group and 25% of the extramural one made mistakes of this kind), and examples of this include: putting the sender's address after the sender's signature at the bottom of the letter, placing the handwritten signature after the printed one instead of before it, or placing the date before the sender's address, rather than after it. Similarly, it seems quite difficult to learn the appropriate salutations as well as combinations of salutations and complimentary closes, as the following examples show: "Dear Mr Liška […] With kind regards" (instead of: "Yours sincerely"), "Dear Mr Lagerfeld […] Best regards", "Dear Sir" (instead of "Dear Sir or Madam", as the addressee was a company, so the recipient could be either a man or a woman), "Dear Sir or Madam […] Sincerely", or: "Dear Sir or Madame." An interesting mistake is also including a woman's name in the inside address ("Ms B. Kaasen") and greeting her with the salutation: "Dear Sir or Madam", which was probably due to insufficient reflection on the student's part.

Finally, the "insufficient data" category was quite miscellaneous, but it included, for example, limiting the inside address to one line, without the recipient's name, which was known to the sender; here, the salutation "Dear Mr Jarek" suggests that the sender knows the recipient's name, but it is not included in the inside address, nor is the city, as the inside address is only given as "Tomiova 1129", that is, the name of the street and the number.

The results obtained by the full-time and the extramural group were then compared by means of a chi-square test, df = 5, as the categories "fully correct", "no sender address", "no inside address" and "language mistakes" were excluded, the former three because there were no fully correct enquiries in either case, nor were there enquiries lacking either address, and the latter, because the focus was on the students' progress in acquiring the conventions of business correspondence and not in English grammar and vocabulary. At $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2_{crit} = 15.0863$ (Brown 1988: 192), while $\chi^2_{obs} = 6.0068$. Therefore,

$\chi^2_{obs} < \chi^2_{crit}$, which means that the difference between the groups is not statistically significant.

On the other hand, the numbers of different types of problems detected in the covering letter are presented in table 2. The corpus contains twenty-five covering letters written by the full-time group and ten written by the extramural group.

Table 2. The numbers and percentages of different types of errors in the covering letter, as well as of fully correct letters

	Fully correct	No sender address	No inside address	No date	Inappropriate order	Insufficient data	Wrong salutation/ close	Language mistakes	Style	Other
Full-time	0	2	3	5	9	7	5	21	15	6
	0%	8%	12%	20%	36%	28%	20%	84%	60%	24%
Extra-mural	0	2	2	2	4	3	3	10	4	1
	0%	20%	20%	20%	40%	30%	30%	100%	40%	10%

Source: own study

Again, none of the covering letters is fully correct, for the same reason as Enquiry 1. Yet, even though some progress can be observed in the use of salutations and complimentary closes (however, one student started a letter with "Dear Sir or Madam" and ended it with "Sincerely", and seven other students also failed to use the standard forms), where the errors are less numerous, such errors as the lack of the sender's and/or the recipient's address have appeared and, by the same token, the percentages of letters lacking a date have increased. It can thus be supposed that it was difficult for the students to keep in mind the necessity to include such information, as they were focusing on the content rather than on the layout. Consequently, remembering to include both addresses and the date in a business letter might be described as procedural knowledge which requires considerable practice in order to be automated, and the same can be supposed with regard to the order of presentation of information.

A considerable number of errors have also been observed in the "style" category, for example, overusing the phrase "As you will see", boasting ("My education is ideal to analyse and understand the market", "I am your best choice to accomplish your goals described in your job offer"), or using informal language ("Have a great day!", "great presentation and negotiating skills") and contractions ("[…] then I'm the person you're seeking"). Other stylistic errors involved the use of forms which were not polite enough, for example: "I will take the liberty of calling you next week in hopes of scheduling a personal interview," and: "I will call you on Monday to see when that can be arranged" (a better option would have been a question, for example: "Could I, please, call you on Monday […]?").

A comparison of both groups by means of a chi-square test, df = 7 (in this case, only the categories "fully correct" and "language mistakes" were excluded). At $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2_{crit} = 18.4753$ (Brown 1988: 192), while $\chi^2_{obs} = 2.78546$. Therefore, $\chi^2_{obs} < \chi^2_{crit}$, which means that, again, the difference between both groups is not statistically significant.

A topic related to the covering letter is, obviously, that of writing a CV. The full-time group turned in twenty-four CVs and the extramural group turned in eleven, and the results of the quantitative analysis are presented in table 3.

Table 3. The numbers and percentages of errors detected in the students' CVs, as well as of fully correct CVs

	Fully correct	Insufficient data	Inappropriate order	Language mistakes	Czech	Inappr. data presentation	Inappr. temporal sequence	Lack of precision	Style	Other
Full-time	0	17	2	14	5	3	11	11	5	8
	0%	70.83%	8.33%	58.33%	20.83%	12.5%	45.83%	45.83%	20.83%	33.33%
Extra-mural	0	6	4	9	5	0	3	9	1	4
	0%	54.54%	36.36%	81.81%	45.45%	0%	27.27%	81.81%	9.09%	36.36%

Source: own study

Unlike the other types of business writing, a CV appears to be relatively simple, as it consists of a list of fairly universally acknowledged items, such as education, work experience, etc. However, some items which used to be included in CVs in the past, such as marital status, children or age, are generally no longer necessary, although this varies from one country to another (Ashley 2003: 274). Even so, as the results show, writing a CV is not so easy.

Apart from language mistakes, which were also frequent, but which are not very relevant to the CV as a genre, the students' main problems were the presentation of insufficient data and a lack of precision in presenting the data. For example, listing two jobs which overlapped in time might be confusing to the reader, unless it was specified, for example, that at least one of them was a part-time job. Similarly, an example of a lack of precision are IT skills listed as "Additional information", or calling the Czech secondary school they had graduated from a "grammar school", which is specific to the British educational system. Similarly, one student included her language skills in the category of "Interests" and wrote: "Except for English, I like to improve in French and Spanish." Apart from the language mistakes ("Apart from English" and "to improve my French and Spanish" would have been better), it was not a good idea to treat foreign languages as hobbies, especially in the case of an English philology student. Instead, she should have listed her languages under the heading of "Language skills" and indicated the proficiency levels.

As has already been mentioned, the chronological temporal sequence is not really a mistake, as it is still sometimes used (Ashley 2003: 275), but the preferred order is from the most recent events (jobs, diplomas, etc.), as they are the most up-to-date, to the earliest ones, and the present author has also often been advised to use this order. As a result, the students were encouraged to use the reverse chronological order, while the traditional one is considered in this analysis as a mistake in the light of what they were supposed to acquire. In fact, the traditional temporal sequence was used by a fairly large number of students (45.83% in the full-time group and 27.27% in the extramural one).

Moreover, given the format of a CV, there are few possibilities of making stylistic errors, however, some examples of informal language have also been observed, for example: "Creating tailor-made luxury holidays to suit clients […]", or: "For example, I love travelling because there is always a million things to learn."

Last but not least, one student filled in the Euro Pass form and three used what seemed to be a ready-made CV form too. In a way, they coped with the task and did what they might have actually done while applying for a job, but filling in a form instead of writing one's own CV on the basis of a model was not really the purpose of the assignment.

The CVs of the full-time and the extramural groups were then compared by means of a chi-square test, df = 7 (excluding the categories "fully correct" and "language mistakes"). At $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2_{crit} = 18.4753$ (Brown 1988: 192), while $\chi^2_{obs} = 11.3899$. Therefore, $\chi^2_{obs} < \chi^2_{crit}$, which demonstrates that the difference between both groups, the full-time and the extramural students, was not significant again.

Furthermore, the full-time group performed an in-class writing activity which consisted in writing an enquiry and then replying to another students' enquiry, as a way of revising and consolidating knowledge about writing enquiries and learning to write replies to enquiries. The corpus includes thirty-three enquiries and twenty-five replies; apparently, some students turned in more than one enquiry, perhaps because they were not satisfied with the first one and had a better idea, or because they wanted to practice more. On the other hand, it appears that not all of them managed to write replies.

Table 4. The numbers and percentages of different types of errors in Enquiry 2, as well as of fully correct letters (written only by the full-time students)

	No sender address	No inside address	No date	Inappropriate order	Insufficient data	Wrong salutation/close	Language mistakes	Style	Other
0	6	4	8	8	10	8	33	11	14
0%	18.18%	12.12%	24.24%	24.24%	30.3%	24.24%	100%	33.33%	42.42%

Source: own study

On the one hand, these results may seem disquieting, because the number of enquiries lacking a date, the sender's address or an inside address had increased in relation to Enquiry 1. The number of inappropriate salutations and/or complimentary closes had also increased in relation to the covering letter (such examples as "Dear Sir or Madam […] Yours Sincerely," capitalised by the student, can still be observed, as well as informal closings, for example, "Many thanks"). Another frequent problem was insufficient information; in other words, the letters were simply too short. Sometimes they also lacked a politeness formula, such as: "Thank you very much in advance," which would have been appropriate in the context. However, this may be due to the time constraints; writing in a hurry, the students concentrated on the contents and skipped information which might have seemed redundant to them, such as inventing the addresses of imaginary companies.

On the other hand, stylistic errors were also quite frequent (33.33% of the enquiries contained them) and ranged from contractions ("I won't need any trade references") through informal, personal language ("But I am a bit afraid that they will not look the same in reality"), to relatively impolite sentences ("Now, here are my questions"). Finally, errors of the "other" category were quite numerous (42.42%) and included, for example, placing the postscript before the sender's name, rather than after it, or using an unexplained abbreviation.

The results of the analysis of Enquiry 1 and Enquiry 2 were then compared by means of a chi-square test; df = 7 (again, excluding the categories "fully correct" and "language mistakes"). At $p < 0.01$, $\chi^2_{crit} = 18.4753$ (Brown 1988: 192), while $\chi^2_{obs} = 8.5612$. Therefore, $\chi^2_{obs} < \chi^2_{crit}$, which indicates that the difference between the results of both tasks is not statistically significant. In other words, Enquiry 2 shows neither progress nor regression. It can be supposed that the students still needed more time and practice in order to master the necessary skills.

Table 5. The numbers and percentages of different types of errors in the replies to Enquiry 2, as well as of fully correct letters (written only by the full-time students)

Fully correct	No sender address	No inside address	No date	Inappropriate order	Not enough data	Wrong salutation/close	Language mistakes	Style	Other
0	9	10	12	5	4	8	18	7	8
0%	38%	40%	48%	20%	16%	32%	72%	28%	32%

Source: own study

As the results show, the number of replies lacking a sender address, an inside address and/or a date increased, even in comparison to Enquiry 2. It is possible that the main reason was the time limit, as they were trying to finish the replies by the end of the class (even so, some of them did not manage and sent them to the present author by email later). Still, some of the students' deviations from the norms of business correspondence indicate that they did not all take the task very seriously, but rather treated it as a fun activity, for example: "Please accept my apology and don't worry be happy!", followed by the informal closing "Love."

Finally, the complaints and replies to complaints written by the third-year extramural group were fairly exhaustive, but their correctness, both in terms of linguistic accuracy and meeting the requirements of the genre, varied from one student to another. Of the nine students, only three included sender and inside addresses, and only five dated their letters. Similarly, while six of the letters contained the appropriate salutations and complimentary closes, one lacked any salutation or closing altogether, one student used the salutation "Dear managers" (with a lower case letter) and ended the letter with "Kind regards", and one used the forms "Dear Sir, Madam" (a better option would have been: "Dear Sir/Madam") and "Regards". This suggests that even third-year students, who had been studying business correspondence longer, still had some problems remembering and using the right layout and politeness formulae. It can be supposed that, just as certain grammar rules and the different shades of meanings of certain words have to be acquired from a considerable amount of input and need to become part of procedural rather than declarative knowledge, it is also the case with the rules of business correspondence: one may know what elements a business letter should contain and in what order they should be arranged, but implementing such rules in spontaneous writing seems much more difficult.

On the other hand, the letters written "ahead of time" on the basis of the syllabus varied in terms of correctness. Some of them were almost perfect, containing only small language mistakes, while others contained a variety of errors, from language mistakes, through problems with the layout, to incompatible salutations and complimentary closes (for example, "Dear Mr. White […] Yours faithfully"). In fact, the quality of these letters largely depended on the student and his or her skills, especially because the students wrote them on their own, only on the basis of model letters available in the textbooks.

5. Conclusions

To answer the research questions, first, the process of developing business correspondence skills is highly complex and, apparently, non-linear. In other words, though progress may be observed in some areas, such as the use of salutations and complimentary closes, the students may simultaneously forget about the need to include the sender's and the recipient's addresses and/or the date. It can therefore be supposed that three months is not enough time to master even the basics of business correspondence, in spite of the use of model letters and regular feedback from the teacher. In fact, this does not even seem to depend on the number of classes attended by the students. Rather, it might be supposed that a more important factor is the depth of processing, which is related to language and genre awareness. Although at first sight the extramural group might seem to have made more mistakes than the full-time group, the differences between both groups' performance on the particular tasks are not statistically significant.

Second, as for the challenges that teaching and learning business correspondence poses to teachers and students, it may be concluded that some aspects of business correspondence are more difficult to acquire than others, but the levels of difficulty seem to vary from one student to another. Undoubtedly, they include features of business letters which do not occur in essays, nor in ordinary letters, such as the layout of a business letter. However, salutations and the corresponding complimentary closes, which also posed the students considerable difficulty, are used in different kinds of letters, not only in business correspondence, so it would be advisable for all students of English to learn them. At the same time, it is necessary to acquire the features of style specific to the genre, especially the right level of formality. Indeed, as has been argued above, such features should become part of procedural knowledge, that is, they should be realised automatically, without the need to retrieve and verbalise the rule one is supposed to follow.

Last but not least, even though linguistic accuracy does not constitute the core of business writing and it is not the main aspect taken into consideration by business professionals (Zhang 2013), it should also be developed, as it contributes, on the one hand, to the shaping of the corporate image, and on the other hand, to a particular person's reputation. Not only do linguistically correct business letters sound more professional, but also a person looking for a job may have a bigger chance of success if he or she writes his or her covering letter correctly, especially if it is a language professional, as in the case of English philology students.

As for the practical applications of this study to teaching and learning business correspondence, one has to agree with Zhang (2013: 154) that students should view themselves as researchers and develop greater awareness of the genre as well as learning and writing strategies. At the same time, as Zhang (2013: 154) postulates, business writing, even in the case of students, should be treated as a business activity from the start. Indeed, students who are aware of learning a practical business activity are more likely to treat it more seriously, even though some elements of fun and imagination (Włosowicz, in preparation b) can be useful too. Still, it seems that the classroom does not provide sufficient input or opportunities for practice, even if it is combined with regular home assignments. Consequently, traineeships which involve working for a company and writing for it seem to be the best solution to complement classroom learning. However, in order not to risk any misunderstandings, such letters written by trainees should be corrected by an in-house expert on business writing. Undoubtedly, the acquisition of the genre requires a considerable amount of time and effort, and students should be aware of this.

Finally, future research might investigate, precisely, the development of procedural knowledge in the area of business correspondence, as opposed to declarative knowledge. Similarly, longer-term studies would be advisable in order to observe, possibly, visible progress in the students' writing. However, in the case of former business professionals, there might be some research on the attrition of Business English, as the opposite of development: just as general English language skills are subject to attrition if a non-native speaker does not use English, in ESP the attrition might be even faster, as the skills are not used in everyday life, unless one works in the area of business.

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Authentic Materials in the LSP Classroom – Responding to Demands of the Job Market

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Abstract

English has reached a dominating position in business contexts and has been used worldwide as a lingua franca in business communication (BELF). Therefore, there is a growing demand for teaching LSP to future business specialists and the courses of Business English proliferate. The EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) classroom is the simulation of the real world situations, however printed materials often cover general topics and do not satisfy the learners' needs as they do not reflect the specificity and the most common topics of the local business environment. Thus, authentic materials in the LSP classroom bring the scent of reality to the artificial situations because contain a naturally-occurring language, meaningful and relevant contexts which help students concentrate on work and act as a motivating factor for students to stimulate the production of the spoken and written language.

This study aims at demonstrating how authentic materials are used at the Business English course taught as part of a BA programme „Linguistics for Business" at the University of Łódź in the second, third and sixth semester. It attempts at incorporating the materials pertaining to local business problems and correlated with the syllabus of the course in order to facilitate students' lexical competencies and the use of advanced syntactic structures related with real-life situations. Moreover, by using authentic materials in the EBP classroom the teacher aims at developing learner's autonomy and motivation by providing suitable input: knowledge on a given subject field and terminology adjusted to their language competencies and needs.

Keywords: authentic materials, EBP classroom, Business English, Input, Output, classroom interaction, project work.

1. Introduction

With the expansion of companies to overseas markets, English has been dominating in business contexts. It has become a lingua franca in business communication and is referred often as Business English as a Lingua Franca (BELF) (Sim 2012; Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken 2007). Therefore, the growing demand for teaching EBP to future business specialists is on the rise and the courses of Business English flourish. As the markets require narrowly specialised professionals, the course participants' expectations towards the contents of the specialised language courses have become more and more precise.

The EBP (English for Business Purposes) classroom replicate real world situations, however printed materials often cover the most recurring topics and do not meet the learners' requirements fully as they do not mirror the specific conditions of the local business environment. Thus, authentic materials used a the EBP course bring the scent of reality to the artificial situations because contain a naturally-occurring language, meaningful and relevant contexts which help students concentrate on work and act as a motivating factor for students to stimulate the production of the spoken and written language.

2. Authentic materials in the EBP classroom

Initially, a Business English lesson concentrated on the analysis of economic texts and practicing role-plays in typical business situations (Sim 2012). Only at the end of the 1980s did the scope of the interest move towards developing "effective business communication skills" (Sim 2012: 2). Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken (2007) discuss Nelson's corpus analysis of published materials who found that there was a discrepancy between the language in printed materials and 'the actual language being used' in real-life business situations (Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken 2007: 96). The authors point out that the materials in the Business English classroom should concentrate on "the kind of language actually used to 'do business' in real meetings, real emails and real negotiations" (Bargiela-Chiappini, Nickerson and Planken 2007: 96). Therefore, authentic materials provide a motivating stimulus for students to communicate in 'realistic' contexts because 'they reproduce an immersion environment' and introduce the pragmatic aspects of learning a specialised variety of the foreign language (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 89–90).

ESP learners are 'more interested in job-related content' and possess more subject-field background knowledge that allows them to deal with more difficult materials (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 90). Since EBP students are rarely beginners, at Linguistics for Business the required student's level of English is B2, authentic materials "provide a good setting for introducing roughly-tuned input in a comprehensible way" (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 90). Authentic texts are in particular demand in the EBP classroom and "the ESP instructor must always incorporate authentic texts that are locally meaningful" (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 91; Alibec 2014: 60).

3. Pros and cons of using authentic materials

Authentic materials in the EBP classroom are on the one hand a valuable teaching tool, but may also be problematic, both for the teacher and students.

3.1. Pros

Authentic materials give the scent of authenticity as they reflect real-life situations in the classroom and provide a motivating stimulus for students because they "relate more closely to learners' needs" (Sim 2012: 6; Alibec 2014: 60). Authentic texts also provide a wide variety of 'grammatical and lexical features' that are particularly relevant in specialised contexts where standardisation is a leading tendency in communication. Moreover, authentic texts stimulate 'the production of language' (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 90) as they "illustrate some points made during the task based activities and thus make them more memorable" (Alibec 2014: 60).

3.2. Cons

On the other hand, the use of authentic materials might be a hindrance. Adjusting authentic materials for the classroom needs might be time-consuming and they constantly need to be up-dated (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 90; Alibec 2014: 60). Moreover, the relevance of such materials might also be questioned. Another problem is the level of difficulty: authentic materials might be 'too difficult linguistically' and contain 'unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures', 'causing lower levels have a hard time decoding the texts' (Torregrosa Benavent and Sánchez-Reyes Peñamaría 2011: 90; Sim 2012: 6). Finally, authentic materials might also be the culturally biased (Sim 2012: 6).

4. Interaction in a specialised language classroom

Authentic materials in the EBP classroom are to simulate real-life situations in order to boost students' motivation. Having a scent of reality, they are more likely to communicate in English during the class than by using printed materials. Therefore, by using an authentic input, the interaction in the classroom is more easily achieved, and as a result, students' speaking skills improve.

A specialised language classroom, is a component of many various interactions. Each activity of a student and a teacher can be described as an interaction, though it must also be noted that the interactive process takes place in many areas, among which verbal, non-verbal, social, affective and cognitive areas can be distinguished (Targońska 2013: 94). Interaction in the process of teaching/learning a professional jargon in a foreign language is extremely important because of the development of linguistic competence, including the development of speaking skills in specialised contexts. It is also about providing students with input on the basis of which they build their structured knowledge. Through the discourse not only does the teacher introduce new information, but also gives students expert knowledge, adapting terminology to their needs (Guzik 1996: 256). The verbal aspect, in turn, determines the existence of output and contributes to the creation of appropriate relationships between a learner and a native speaker.

4.1. Input, Output and Interaction

Gass (2003) discusses what information students need to master a foreign language, he indicates three elements: the Input, the Output and the role of interaction. Input, as Pawlak (2009) notes, is contact with data in a written or oral form that illustrates standards in the target language as well as information on incorrect forms which could take the form of clarification or grammatical correction. According to Gass, there must be input for the learning process to exist. He cites Swain (1995) claiming that output is no less important part of mastering the target language as it affects not only the development of lexical resources, but also the advanced use of syntax. Thanks to it, the teacher receives feedback relating to the understanding of the class content by students. These elements are key components of the interaction process, and this has an impact on the language acquisition, which can be also adapted to specialised language learning.

Integration is a complex process, for example Klippel (2000) distinguishes three groups of interaction action: interpersonal interaction, interaction taking place between people and things (e.g. a student – an educational game) and intrapersonal interaction (processes inside the body of the learner). Vollmer (2000) classifies the concept as follows: interaction between the learner and the environment (e.g. the impact of the family home), the interaction between the learner and the learning environment (e.g. the impact of teaching materials) and the interpersonal interaction (the same as the group selected by Klippel wherein the interaction is seen from the perspective of two or more variables).

The course of interaction is affected by various factors. According to Henrici (1995), these are: neurophysiological factors (e.g. a linguistic ability, the ease of memorising, intelligence quotient), biological factors (e.g. age, gender), cognitive factors (e.g. cognitive style, extroversion/introversion), affective factors (e.g. motivation, attitude to learning a foreign language) social and economic, political, environmental and social and cultural factors. Other researchers often point out individual factors (Komorowska 2005), or psychological ones (Kalińska 2009). Both subgroups can, however, be qualified as factors covered by the classification of Henrici. The attitude of authorities, communication roles and processes, linguistic repairs, output, the language of the teacher, as well as any symbols, strategies and even routine also seem to affect the interaction in a Business English classroom.

As mentioned above, Input is a factor affecting interaction and it is associated with the notion of meaning and form negotiation. According to Vollmer (2000), it is a strategy a teacher intentionally uses to induce a student to improve their own expression. In the course of interaction between a teacher and a student the Input may be misunderstood. Then, the teacher, as an entity that knows the language better, tries to modify its input to be appropriate for the recipient. Thus through interaction, i.e. asking questions, asking for an explanation, students may indicate their request to be provided with the tailor-made input. Thanks to the provision of new forms, i.e. synonyms, paraphrases, etc., they are able to fix their own Output through its transformation or repair. As Eckhert notes (2003 citing Tesch 2010), meaning is not negotiated automatically in the classroom, the action of the teacher is crucial. It is the teacher that makes students realise the structure of interaction that acquaints them with the characteristics of the oral and written discourse, and provides them with appropriate vocabulary used to express the intention of the language.

4.2. The role of the teacher

In the EBP classroom, the teacher, as an organizer of activities, affects the interaction of students by providing them with the content (subject matter) of communication, by determining the people allowed to speak, by initiating real or simulated situations. Encouraging interaction is possible if the conditions prevailing in the classroom are right. As noted by Żydek-Bednarczuk and Zeler (1996) students become communication partners, and therefore, like a teacher, they have the right to speak and express their thoughts. The teacher's task is to draw attention to the content of the message of the student and rather than pursue the strategic objectives. An important aspect is the (verbal and non-verbal) immediacy of the teacher having a positive impact on the atmosphere in the classroom. Therefore, instructions for the performance of exercises and tasks, guidance and organizational matters will be made visible via the control function. This function aims to guide the interaction in the classroom in order to strengthen the self-control processes of the learners. It should be remembered, that the language of the teacher should be understandable and concrete, so that students know what is required of them. As noted by Solmecke (2000), massages worded clearly and precisely control the lesson process in terms of linguistics, as well as reliably put the student in the role of an equal communication partner. Frequently, the teacher's questions directed toward the student are not a manifestation of the desire to know the student's opinion on the matter but to check the command of structures mentioned in class, they are accompanied by feedback. Questions are also a teaching strategy, resulting in the enrichment of the lesson, by moving away from a lecture and activating learners with the control of the interaction by the teacher at the same time. Their form is very important, a skilful control of the questions involves first directing them toward the whole class, then to its individual members. In order to arouse interaction questions should also be systematised starting from the simpler ones in order to consistently reach for the slightly more difficult ones. Basically, the questions should encourage students to think, give them the opportunity to express their opinions, to explain phenomena or events. They should not be too simple or too obvious, and cannot contain too much information either. Interaction by means of questions in the Business English classroom affects the quality of the student's relationship with the teacher; therefore it is likely to contribute to better interpersonal relations at the effective level (Edmoson and House 2000).

Initiating or maintaining interactions by means of questions involves feedback aimed at students which may be affective or cognitive. The former refers to the relationship between affective partners; the latter refers to the content provided by one of the interlocutors. Feedback is also of assessing or correction nature. On the one hand, the students get feedback on their utterance and a suggestion of its repair, on the other hand, feedback can involve praise of the work in class to date. Only feedback that will motivate the student to self-develop their own internal system of language and thus will support their thought processes will have a positive impact on the further integration. Henrici (2000) claims that the behaviours positively affecting the interaction include: explicit confirmation, reformulation of utterances, supplementing utterances, asking additional questions on issues by students or any explanation related to the topic of the class. Feedback is not always associated with verbal communication; it also refers to tests and assessments. When it is clear, it can affect the way in which students will continue to learn (Tschirner 2000).

5. Teaching techniques

School, and university conditions in particular, determine discourse where the position of teacher is privileged. There are, however, some teaching techniques which, when skilfully used by the teacher, can activate students and enable them to achieve genuine communication purposes. These techniques include the following (Pawlak 2009):

- questions asked during a lesson, tailored to the lesson objectives, the specificity of the task, the group level, preceded by thorough familiarisation of students with the subject matter and adequate linguistic measures;
- negotiation of forms and meanings of language by signalling problems with understanding of an utterance, asking for clarification or provision of the correct form;
- communication, compensation and interactive strategies used by students after a preceding strategic training;
- limiting the use of the mother tongue when the discourse is approaching genuine communication;
- planned work in groups, monitoring its course, feedback on achieving the communication objective set;
- tasks connecting the achievement of communication objectives with simultaneous understanding and use of a specific language form;
- correction of linguistic errors while stimulating the negotiation of forms, making comparisons.

The course of discourse is also determined by non-verbal communication: any pauses, response time, and moments of silence. Research shows that the probability of obtaining a response from student involves prolonged time of waiting for its production (Chaudron 1998). The possibility of extra time also has a positive impact on the length of utterances and their spontaneity (Śniatowski 1996). However, one should not wait too long to ask a student for an utterance as extensive pauses disrupt existing interaction. In addition, according to Nuam and Lamb (1996) it is often not the time, but the type and nature of the question that determine the length of the utterance of an indicated person.

Interaction is also influenced by other educational factors. One of them is the method used by the teacher to teach. Depending on the approach, a larger or smaller percentage of a lesson will be dedicated to the interaction. If the teacher decides to hold a class using the communication method, the student will have an opportunity to repeatedly enter into the interaction with the teacher, since this approach places a strong emphasis on the development of the discursive competence. Another factor activating students is the language activity manifested in an increasing group interaction. It can take the form of language games or the form of social work, e.g. individual work, pair work or group work. Another criterion of interactivity is associated with a particular phase of the lesson; during the introductory phase interaction will be of a different character than during the implementation or summary phase. This is mainly due to the pursuit of different goals and objectives assigned to a particular class frame. The material available during the class, texts from the textbook and any copied handouts prepared by the teacher are of great importance. The truth is that a textbook is directed to an anonymous learner, the teacher may, however, knowing their students, control work so as to select the relevant materials from the textbook and incorporate them into the class discourse. Solmecke (2000) notes that it is not the content (texts) discussed that affect the behaviour of the student, but the instructions contained in the textbook. On the one hand, they are responsible for the language system, on the other hand for the conveyance of the message. The progression of the material and consolidation of the knowledge are also of a significant influence, it is important that social interaction gives way to the individual interaction, since each student perceives the process of acquisition of a foreign language, and a professional jargon, in a different way. An adequate number of teaching hours allocated to language classes certainly leads to an increased interactivity. Those teachers who have fewer lessons at their disposal usually focus on the curriculum and its implementation than dedicating more minutes to communication. Yet, objectives that have been set realistically are another factor influencing the relationships in the specialised language classroom. The main task of the lesson is to develop students' competences taking into account the discursive competence, covering the curriculum in itself should not be this task. The material should, however, become a subject of the educational discourse, thus lead to various interactions. According to Sztejnberg (2006), increasing students' activity is associated with making students realise the purpose of learning a foreign language and its specialised variety. Short- and long-term objectives set appropriately can encourage students to cover the material, and consequently to interact.

6. Group work and lesson discourse

In the Business English classroom, we deal with group work in the classroom when several groups bigger than pairs work on solving a task. To make this process efficient, group work should be carefully planned. The teacher should determine the composition of particular groups, select the tasks and formulate instructions clearly enough for students to be able to do the tasks assigned to them correctly. The teacher should also determine the time to complete the task.

Determining the composition of groups should not be a spontaneous activity, but should involve a planning period (Mihułka 2013). Each class is different, made up of different individuals; a method that is successful in one class will not necessarily have to be effective in another one. When thinking about the future division of students, a teacher can use the following division: neighbourhood groups, random groups or selected groups. According to Komorowska (2005) the biggest difficulty for the teacher will be to choose whether to connect individuals with similar or different language skills into groups. It seems that the best solution are mixed groups, since weaker students often happen to be those who are more creative, thinking in an unconventional way and bringing energy into the group. Those achieving good results, in turn, can be introverted, focused on learning, interaction with the group therefore affects the development of their communication and decision making skills. One cannot say, however, that the above selection is one hundred percent perfect because it can also promote silence of the weaker students and boredom of the better ones.

Another aspect when planning group work is the selection of a task. According to Storch (1999) the effectiveness of the language acquisition increases if certain tasks are done in groups, he lists the following types of tasks:

- mapmaking, collecting arguments, justifications, creating boards, word boxes;
- picture-based conversation or discussion;

- tasks enabling discovery of grammatical rules or elements characteristic of specific texts;
- creating/inventing stories, preparing statements to images;
- project-based work;
- educational games.

The teacher is responsible not only for the selection of tasks, but also for the preparation of guidelines for it. Students should be given instructions to the task and have time to get acquainted with them. In the case of language tasks, it is good to put the most important phrases on the board, which will save additional questions while doing the task. Komorowska (2005) advises students to have their roles distributed or to be allowed to make a choice. As a result, on the one hand, our students will feel important and it will be easier for the teacher to verify the individuals' results of their tasks on the other. The author suggests the following duties: taking the time, taking care of a positive atmosphere, noting major things, correcting errors, presenting the work to the class. When the groups are less numerous, the teacher can assign two functions to one person, or can opt out of assigning certain functions.

The course work in groups is closely associated with a specific amount of time spent on the task. In this case, one must determine the "reasonable time to complete the work, leaving no free time during which lack of discipline will immediately sneak in." In addition, one should also not forget that some groups do the task faster than the others, then the teacher should have another activity prepared in advance. It should be enjoyable for students, perceived "as a reward, not a punishment for their diligence" (Komorowska 2005: 63). Students will be satisfied with the work performed and more motivated for the next task as a result.

The introduction of group work does not mean no work for the teacher. The teacher should monitor the implementation of the tasks of particular groups and their members. As pointed out by Brown (2001 cited by Pawlak 2009: 329) the care of a teacher increases the involvement of individuals, reduces the use of a mother tongue and also allows for a quick response when it is needed (e.g. modification of the task). The teacher should be available to students, respond to their needs, provide support and settle disputes.

Working in small groups used in specialised language classes allows for achieving such a form of discourse which is similar to natural everyday situations in business contexts. According to Pawlak (2009) it leads to the individualisation and development of a learner's autonomy and also helps to reduce the level of fear of an utterance in the target language and makes it easier to negotiate the meaning and form. Kast (1999) also stresses that, by working in groups, students become confident, they acquire greater confidence in their own abilities and skills, they are not afraid to publicly present their ideas, they can hold a discussion and refer to the ideas and arguments of others and are more tolerant towards the rest of the class.

7. Authentic materials at the L4B Business English course

This study demonstrates how authentic materials are used as the input at the Business English course which is taught at a BA programme „Linguistics for Business" at the University of Łódź in the third semester of the studies. The project work for creating a social ad is an example of the follow-up exercise, practising vocabulary and revising a part of the course contents, speaking skills and presentation skills. The instructions for the project serve as the input and the source of the teacher-student and student-student interaction in- and outside the classroom and the created advert serves as the output.

The rationale behind the method is to incorporate real materials pertaining to local business problems and correlated with the syllabus of the course in order to facilitate students' lexical competencies and the use of advanced syntactic structures related with real-life situations. Authentic materials are used as supplementary exercises to immerse the learners in the variety of problems they might encounter in their future career. Working in a multinational or in a business enterprise that requires the command of a foreign language will necessitate the ability to discuss local business issues in a foreign language.

7.1. The profile of the student

The participants of the course are second-year BA students, graduates of the general secondary school with the expected level of language competence: B2 (in accordance to the requirements set by CEFR). The learners possess some or no working experience. Their prospective workplaces are multinational companies or local businesses with contacts overseas.

7.2. Students' project work

The materials for the analysis stem from the second semester contents of the Business English course which is taught at the second year of Linguistics for Business at the University of Łódź. The participants were divided into project groups of 4–5 students. The groups were assigned a task of creating a social

ad for a set of topics (6) selected by the teacher from the Łódź Participatory Budgeting Projects for 2014 which include:
– Building city bike facilities in Łódź;
– Building the infrastructure for the free city Wi-Fi;
– Improving the well-being of stray dogs at the city kennel;
– Buliding a skatepark in Widzew (a district in Łódź);
– Jan's Ponds Park Regeneration (a neglected park in Łódź);
– The prevention of youth pathology by providing sports facilities for young people in the Bałuty district.

The topics for the projects were selected from the local current issues in order to emphasise the importance of business at the local level and to provide them a stimulus to talk about local issues in a foreign language. This skill might be helpful in their future career, e.g. during a job interview held in English as such topics might arise during the meeting. The groups were to create an advertising spot (the output), either printed, audio or audiovisual, by brainstorming and group work (the interaction) using the theoretical input they were given at previous Business English classes.

7.3. Stages of the project

Project plan: creating a social advertising spot

Date:	27 October and 3 November 2014
Group:	2nd year of Linguistics for Business
Number of students:	45 (2 groups of about 22 participants)
Level:	B2
Educational institution:	University of Łódź
Teacher:	Aleksandra Makowska

Aims: practicing advertising and marketing vocabulary, improving speaking skills, interaction, project work, public presentation skills.

Stage 1. Introduction

The teacher hands out copies of the project and posts them on the screen in the classroom. Students read the copies and the teacher introduces the project work: the creation of the social advertising spot or an advertising campaign pertaining to the local themes/problems. The instructions below were provided in Polish to encourage students to make their own translations and thus simulate real-life situations at work.

Stwórz projekt własnej reklamy społecznej. Wybierz dowolny środek przekazu i zastosuj takie elementy, które zwrócą uwagę odbiorców na propagowany przez Ciebie pomysł: W0073 Skatepark na Widzewie przy Lasku Widzewskim Lokalizacja – teren w południowej części tzw. Lasu Widzewskiego Realizator – Wydział Gospodarki Komunalnej L0082 Łódzki rower miejski Realizator – Zarząd Dróg i Transportu L0095 Poprawa warunków bytowych zwierząt w łódzkim schronisku Lokalizacja – ul. Marmurowa 4 Realizator – Schronisko dla Zwierząt L0145 Utworzenie bezpłatnej, ogólnomiejskiej sieci bezprzewodowego Internetu Wi-Fi na terenie miasta B0071 Wyciągamy dzieci z bramy – przeciwdziałanie patologii społecznej wśród najmłodszych mieszkańców dzielnicy Bałuty Lokalizacja – obiekty o charakterze sportowym na Bałutach w obrębie ulic: Krzyżowej, Żabiej, Łagiewnickiej, Dolnej, a także w okolicach ulic: Marysińskiej, Okopowej, Górniczej, Marynarskiej Realizator – Wydział Sportu G0010 Rozkwit Parku „Stawy Jana" Realizator – MOSIR Koordynator – Wydział Sportu

Stage 2. Division into project groups

The teacher divides the whole into project groups of 4–5 people and asks them to rearrange the classroom desks so that they have enough space for work. The teacher writes the participants' names of each project group on the list.

Stage 3. Brainstorming

Students are told to use only English. Students decide on the topic of their project: choose one of the 6 topics provided by the teacher. The participants discuss the type of the advertisement they are going to create, which medium they are going to use (both of which were discussed during the previous classes dedicated to marketing and advertising) and make a plan/script of the advertising spot. At this stage they revise useful vocabulary and knowledge of advertising and marketing principles to produce a social advert. The teacher walks around the classroom and monitors the brainstorming phase, providing advice and help for students. Learners, when in doubt can freely ask questions concerning the project. At the end of the class, they are given a home assignment to prepare an advertising spot and its presentation for the rest of the learners.

Stage 4. Home assignment

Students continue making a project on their own and prepare the presentation of the project for the whole group. Learners are encouraged to do research and produce a creative advertisement for a given topic and are asked to prepare the explanation for their ad and for the in-class discussion. Finally, each project group is to send their project to the teacher's email address or hand in. As the Business English classroom is the simulation of real-life business situations, the groups need to meet the deadline.

Stage 5. Presentation of the project

During the next class each group comes to the front of the class and presents the advert or advertising campaign with the use of the multimedia presentation and other means. The presenters listen to the comments of the rest of the group and discuss the project.

Stage 6. Feedback

Each group is given feedback of their performance from the teacher, based on the special evaluation form which marks the functionality of their ad, language correctness, clarity of the delivery (the whole evaluation form is provided in the appendices). The Project Evaluation Form is to ensure objectivity so as the students are given fair grades.

8. Evaluation of the project

The project proved to be a success as students produced high quality social adverts with very sophisticated vocabulary. The participants were eagerly involved in almost every stage of the process, but sometimes were reluctant to use English to communicate during the brainstorming phase. For this reason, the teacher had to monitor the group work very strictly. Surprisingly, the students did not oppose the idea for local themes and the instructions in

Polish (the Input). They treated the presentation stage very seriously, were prepared in every detail, which proved their attitude towards the project. The ads or the whole campaigns were well-thought out and professional: either printed, audio or audiovisual, some of which are available online:

– Łódź city bike: http://www.capzles.com/#/d464ac95-5bbe-4851-9b69-e2124ecbeb30/;
– Free Wi-Fi: http://wifilodz.weebly.com/;
– Dog kennel: http://voice.adobe.com/v/HDfEug_UY78.

9. Conclusion

The use of authentic materials is considered to be extremely motivating for learners, however the selection of materials introducing a project task is crucial and determines the rate of success of the task. The project work with local topics introduced at the Business English course at Linguistics for Business proved to be very successful – students produced very creative solutions and were very involved in the process. They worked more efficiently with authentic materials and they tended to be more engaged in the process of learning. They actively participated in classes and tried to cooperate with one another. As a result, they created high quality adverts which were given the highest marks. Furthermore, the project was a inciting prompt for learners, because the topics pertained to the problems of the local business and reflected the situation on the local market and followed the popular motto: think globally, act locally. Moreover, the topics provided were not detached from the local business and gave the students a chance to talk about familiar issues in the target language. Apart from that, the task of producing the social advertising spot meets the methodological criteria. The six selected topics from the Łódź Participatory Budgeting Projects are the input, the brainstorming and the production phases comprise the interaction and the product, i.e. the advertisement is the output. The aims of the project were to incite the teacher-student and student-student communication and the free production of the target language in business settings, using vocabulary and grammatical structures which were taught at previous lessons, which were fulfilled.

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APPENDICES

Date: ____________________

Project Evaluation Form

TOPIC: ____

Presenters: ____

____

Project and Presentation Effectiveness Criteria

How did the project and presentation represent the following features?	Yes	Needs Work	No	Comments
Clear communication of the purpose				
Organisation of the presentation				
Understanding of the topic				
Preparedness and functionality of the presentation				
Command of the foreign language				
Media usage				
Presenters response to audience's questions and comments				
The effect of the project and presentation on the audience				

What are the strengths of the project?

Which aspects of the presentation need improving?

University Cooperation with Business Environment in the Digital Era

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Abstract

The article aims to point out the possible areas of productive interaction between the university and business – their tensions and dynamics. The authors do it from the point of view of the history of ideas as well as recent management reflection. Then they try to outline disruptive innovation in the area of higher education, resulting mainly from MOOCs and development of Big Data. The main part of the paper focuses on the case study report from The iProfessional (iPro) project – Erasmus+ project aimed at setting up a pilot collaboration between HEIs and VET providers in 8 European countries in order to investigate the potential for a closer collaboration between the world of the interactive media and arts design business and the higher and further education institutions for Media and Arts Design Studies.

Keywords: humanities, management, curricula, iPro project, Erasmus+.

We start with a short description of the main areas of tension and dynamics between the world of the university and business. We do it from the point of view of the history of ideas as well as recent management reflection. Then, we try to outline the disruptive innovation in the area of higher education, resulting mainly from MOOCs and development of Big Data. Education is becoming a social service. Basic skills are needed either traditional or elaborated. In the core mission of the University of Łódź there is slogan inscribed: Truth and Liberty and this slogan is the formula of the fundamental task of the university: to create an environment for the engagement and liberty, research and creativity resulting in the autonomy of students. So we have to focus on basic soft skills as well as specialisation and narrow academic disciplines. If student satisfaction is to be a basic compass for the university, we have to think also about alumni satisfaction and in this context university has to be open to the environment. Then, we describe a case study, an educational project called iProfessionals.

It is quite common to think about universities regarding oppositions especially when taking into consideration their relationship with the professional world as a background. Universality and specialisation, creativity and productivity, time to reflect and busy time – those oppositions are just a few used to describe the differences between the world of university and the world of business. Professionalisation means very often the need to enter a narrow field of action, sometimes even on a microscopic level (think about nanosurgery, for instance), and universities are meant to cover themselves as broad space as possible, that is why they are called comprehensive universities. A professional man is intended to be productive, that is that his/her action must result in something measurable, his/her action has to be effective. On the other hand, a learned man has the mission to create even new fields of discovery and action, so he/she must think the unthinkable, imagine the unimaginable and it is not necessary to have immediate results from this thinking and imagining. That is why a business man is a busy man; an academic man is thought very often to have plenty of time to reflect. Universal reflection needs nursing in time, the man of action reminds rather a soldier than a monk, and a learned man was often compared in the past with a monk, not a soldier.

However, despite the fact that we often think about the comparison in question in terms of oppositions, we also know common threats: social networking, ever-present communication, and interest in human resources are to be found either in universities or the business world. We must add that research and development are areas of concern for both worlds: schools do research, and the business community is interested in the development which is impossible without doing research into new fields and areas. Social networking is vital for making business, and it is quite often that we think about university studies as focused not just on getting new knowledge but also on social life, which makes our communicative and other skills stronger. The most valuable in the business world are people with an open mind and open network of contacts so that the university world can feed such needs.

Recent developments in the field of higher education in the western world were called innovative to such a degree that the innovation can be called disruptive. So the area of life which had been dominated by change for decades has just started to be disrupted by innovation. The most important phenomena in this innovation one can summarise in three terms: student-focused teaching and learning, globalisation, and digitalisation. It is important when thinking about the student-based learning that students nowadays are leaving in the globalised and digital environments: students, like many other people in the contemporary world, sleep with their smartphones and engage with digital games. Those things come together with higher mobility, which has always been tied to the university world, but the movement nowadays is omnipresent: one can do research everywhere, libraries are in our pockets. And one can acquire and produce knowledge in a moment; online resources are getting more and more available, very often in open access. There are many applications on smartphones which are connected not just with vast libraries and bookshops but also with a network of similar students and/or real experts. It is especially visible development with the area of foreign language learning: one can consult not just vast libraries but also native speakers for their real life expertise when learning languages on many levels.

This experience can give us useful insights into disruptive innovation provided not just by new technological tools associated with the digital world but also with new methods of learning: as research is omnipresent we often think of learning as inquiry-based learning, it is active learning, and not just reproductive of the repetitive way of learning. With this kind of education, we can gather a lot of data which can be used on a metacognitive level when thinking about teaching and learning. So we can have Big Data in the field of academic metacognition: in tests in real-time writing exercises, reproductive results are as well important as mistakes made during the exercises. With this Big Data we must think about a phenomenon which itself deserved naming it disruptive innovation: Massive Open Online Courses. MOOCs were called in 2013 by the Economist the most important event in the year, gradually the revolution was not such disruptive and revolutionary as it seemed to be then, but regardless this phenomenon means new challenges for the regular and traditional world of knowledge. Such characteristics as more engagement of students, massive amount of students and learning without teachers, the democratisation of assessment, the higher satisfaction of students, and new ways of certification (open badges, nano degrees) are worthy of attention to anybody, who thinks about higher education in terms of learning outcomes and real results. It is true that massive courses are quite often limited – from 60 000 of student enrolment only 3000 can have the resulting nonodegree in the form of open badge, and just 30 can have a real degree after contacting real university giving real degrees, but still – the results are stunning and very satisfactory for all parts involved.

With this democratisation involved education is becoming a social service: we are all learning by teaching others but if a student is learning by teaching others and if the phenomenon is massive it means qualitative challenge. All traditional and elaborated skills associated with university learning are strengthened by the recent development called disruptive innovation. Traditional core competencies are communicative skills, toleration, and cultural knowledge: these skills are coming from more and more knowledge. If people know more and more, they tend to see things as more complex and human nature is also perceived as compels. Primary elaborated skills are determination, life-long curiosity for new knowledge and creativity. It requires maturity of personality to create confidence, curiosity and creative approaches to different challenges and dilemmas in the world. It seems that the traditional basic skills are possible to achieve by MOOCs and other e-learning programs. But such complex phenomena as determination and creativity are difficult to get outside of real face-to-face and long-term communicative actions. That is why traditional, so-called residential universities in which students live, learn, having meals together, doing sports, etc. 24 hours 7 days a week are better at that necessary elaborated skills.

Motto of the Report on University and Business Cooperation[1] was: Just as castles provided the source of strength for medieval towns, and factories provided prosperity in the industrial age, universities are the source of strength in the knowledge-based economy of the twenty-first century.

Lord Dearing, September 2002

And it is crucial to bear in mind that we live in a century of the knowledge-based economy. Data and Big Data are everywhere, and it is critical to change the traditional structure of academic disciplines and academic curricula accordingly. Knowledge today is dispersed, education today is also collaborative, and it happens, like learning itself, everywhere and anywhere. The development of Open Educational Resources makes the situation more comfortable and more sophisticated. Knowledge today comes with the digital culture.

An excellent example of such an attitude is the case of The iProfessional Project (The iPro Project) we were engaged in under the scheme of Erasmus+ (2013–2015). The project aimed at setting up a pilot collaboration between HEIs and VET providers in 8 European countries to investigate the potential for a closer cooperation between the world of the interactive media and art design business and the higher and further education institutions for Media and Arts Design Studies. The collaboration focused on the detection of possible skills and competences mismatches between education and the professional world and consequently put in place a draft mechanism to address this mismatch by designing and piloting a curriculum design framework for use in this particular sector.

[1] http://ec.europa.eu/dgs/education_culture/repository/education/tools/docs/uni-business-cooperation_en.pdf, 31.08.2011.

1. Case Studies: The iPro Project[2]

The aim of the project was to build, test and then distribute a research based on a model framework that would assist the education sector and especially VET and the Higher Education Institutions to match, in a digital way, the curriculum of their students in Media and Arts Studies with the professional requirements expressed by the international community of media and arts businesses.

Digital Media, Arts and Culture, in general, are increasingly globalised, both regarding consumption markets and business creation. Trade agreements, international co-productions, legal issues such as IPR are no longer contained by borders. It is, therefore, paramount that the workers in this area are also internationally savvy and that they recognise besides the importance of local qualities and requirements of the media and arts, the international and intercultural issues. Businesses expect from education that alumni come prepared to the profession with a good view on the present state of the art of their trade, and that includes obviously these important international aspects of multilingualism, multi- or intercultural competencies.

The idea behind the project, therefore, was to design a survey instrument that supports the design and development of the curriculum framework in this project but that can be used afterward by institutions and interest groups to continuously measure the dynamics of professional requirements and workers profiles in this particular professional area. In that sense, it would be designed to be an open resource that can be translated and adapted and that will follow the trends and changes in the industry and education. The iProfessional survey succeeded in collecting a good set of data about the skills and competencies of professionals working in digital media and arts in 8 European countries. The wealthy and complex data that are the result of the survey are sufficient to continue to search for meaningful conclusions, particularly with respect to the impact of education on the worker in his professional environment including the effect of the internship. Many conclusions can be drawn from this first analysis. The survey has allowed us to make a quantitative and limited qualitative analysis of the profiles of media workers. Particularly with regard to the competencies, skills and attitudes they possess related to media businesses, such as artistic skills, technical expertise, business processes knowledge, communication, project management, structuring of content, teamwork, problem-solving, time

[2] Based on internal reports and project's materials elaborated by the iPro project consortium, including Jarosław Płuciennik and Michał Wróblewski (2013–2015).

management, etc. The survey resulted in a comprehensive list of transversal skills and competencies that required by the professional digital media and arts worker set off against those acquired in formal education as well as on the job. This survey does not provide accurate conclusions on the many different innovative and highly technological subjects that are emerging and for which creative HEIs are creating an offer that meets the demand from young students. What professionals furthermore expect from Higher Education is a clear, up to date and concrete link between studies and the profession, practice-based learning, internships, up to date learning content, quality teachers and exposure to the professional environment (teachers from the professional domain, mentors). An important observation from the survey teaches us that a very significant portion of the target group has not had any education in the area of digital media and arts at all. And they are entering into the profession from a Higher Education programme that is not related at all or even from a professional career in an entirely different domain. These people seem to be receiving formal training on the job, but from the survey, it can be deducted that this does not meet their professional expectations (1 out of 3 professional workers is not satisfied with the academic preparation for his/her job). For this strong group, specific training programs may be required, and HEIs are a preferred option to provide these programs (CPD or other). It emerges from the survey also that what the professional worker in this area expects to learn besides these highly specialised subject are: legal issues, regulation and IPR; accountancy; business competencies (writing for business, marketing, understanding business processes, etc.); programming; managerial competencies (change and people management, HRM, international collaboration and project management, etc.). This list can give the education community (Higher Education as well as VET and CPD) an opportunity to relate to the own learning, training, and capacity building trajectory or curriculum.[3]

The results of iPro survey helped us develop a reference framework of competencies required by developers of digital multimedia content from within the perspective of Higher and Further Education curriculum design. The competence framework defined a set of knowledge, skills, and attitudes for professionals within the new media sector, needed to achieve measurable outputs according to the expectations of the industry. This framework included creative, technical and business competencies used by the project consortium as guidelines to define learning outcomes and develop the pilot

[3] See the project website for all outcomes and details: http://ipro-project.eu/project/outcomes, September 2013.

training curriculum for digital media professionals, to be tested and validated against the existing or within newly developed curricula. Multidisciplinary framework structure incorporated key areas of digital media development, various phases of media projects, descriptions of theoretical and practical competencies required to fulfil vocational and generic tasks and links to the European Qualifications Framework (EQF) and the European framework for key competences, beside the specific professional competence frameworks that already exist (such as SFIA). A modular approach was used to break down the competence framework in small units that can be easily modified or replaced by new units in order to address rapid technological changes and meet the new media industry needs and the requirements and constraints of the Educational Institutions, for example in relation to the national, regional or institutional context. These modules are planned to be used as simple building blocks in the development of new training programs.

The piloting was scheduled between 1st May–31st July. The chosen units, tools, and methods have demonstrated that the target audience has no difficulties in using them and that the learning can be effective that way. The evaluation results from the point of view of the participants was encouraging: the content was appreciated, and e-learning method was accepted as appropriate and exciting. On an international level, we saw that majority of respondents would prefer this way of informal learning.

The milestone of this stage of the project was to evaluate the model curriculum and its modules by collecting feedback from respondents who represent the potential target group: iProfessionals.

Table 1. Courses within the iPro curriculum

No.	Course code (type/ identity)	Course name	Lect. hrs	Labs hrs	Extra training hrs	Credits
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
01.	CORE/001	Foundations of digital media an art	20	20	30	8 p.
02.	CORE/002	Computer generated digital media	20	20	30	8 p.
03.	CORE/003	Digital Cultures and Development for Creative Practice	20	20	30	8 p.

Table 1 (cont.)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
04.	CORE/004	Legal issues, regulation and IPR	20	20	30	8 p.
05.	CORE/005	Accountancy	20	10	30	6 p.
06.	CORE/006	Marketing competences	20	20	30	8 p.
07.	CORE/007	Programming	30	30	45	10 p.
08.	OPTN/001	Business competences	20	10	30	6 p.
09.	OPTN/002	Management competences	20	10	30	6 p.
10.	CORE/008	Digital media competences	10	20	30	7 p.
11.	COMP/001	Digital photography and animated graphics	20	20	30	8 p.
12.	COMP/002	Audio and video clips and movies	20	20	30	8 p.
13.	COMP/003	Television and Radio components	20	20	30	8 p.
14.	COMP/004	Web graphic design with 2D and 3D animations	20	20	30	8 p.
15.	OPTN/003	Mobile applications	10	20	30	7 p.
16.	OPTN/004	Computer games	10	20	30	7 p.
17.	COMP/005	Project scope, time and cost management	20	10	30	6 p.
18.	OPTN/005	Project resources management	20	10	30	6 p.
19.	OPTN/006	Project delivery management	20	10	30	6 p.
20.	COMP/006	Project quality and risk management	20	20	30	8 p.
21.	COMP/007	Project communication management	20	10	30	6 p.
22.	COMP/008	Business entrepreneurship	10	20	25	6 p.
23.	COMP/009	Management of growth	10	20	25	6 p.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	OPTN/007	Entrepreneurship in Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs)	10	20	25	6 p.
25.	OPTN/008	Project management in entrepreneurship	10	20	25	6 p.
		Summary hours in education	380	380	630	152 p.

Source: iPro WP5 Report 2015 – project's document for internal use

The piloting of the iProfessional model curriculum was conducted as a collaborative effort. The provided pilot was the end-stage of the project, demonstrating the results from the advanced curriculum and the courses/modules on online platforms. The iPro project has created all modules as online (mainly Moodle, except one MOOC) courses, which are standard tools for the education of our participants. The majority of the members have the interest of enrolment of the modules because they filled the value of the training for their future jobs. Participants appreciated the possibility of e-learning as well as the content and structure of a course presented. The participants have found that the pilot modules are useful in comparison to their university curriculum. At the same time, they fill the pilot modules will give to them the appropriate knowledge and skills needed on the labour market. For their future jobs, the participants found the most useful the following tools: Educational portals, Skype or other communications, e-books, educational software and the discussion forums. The pilot modules have been supplementary to the current education in an efficient way, and their content was developed well. In the process of conducting the pilot, the tutors and participants found that the face-to-face contact with the members is not necessary but still important. In this context, Moodle may be considered as an anachronistic tool with not sufficient technological possibilities. Basically, all pilot modules were evaluated useful in comparison to the curricula students were familiar with, as an introduction to more encompassing courses, as practical and field-specific, and as a long-term benefit for the students. They also agreed that the courses with the developed modules are useful for employability of young professionals in the field of digital media labour market despite the fact of its changing character.

Based on the successful piloting experience we could be confident that all the outputs of the iProfessional project have substantial exploitation potential which can secure their long-term sustainability. The outputs from the participants and the tutors showed that project-based learning and learning by doing is the most desired option.

The iPro case study argues that participants working as professionals in digital media are interested in self-improvement and life-long learning. They are interested in the proposed contents, and they perceive them as a valuable addition to their knowledge and skills. However, professionals have very different niches of work, different backgrounds, varying levels of ICT skills and very different time-management habits. The format of the courses needs to be very flexible – some just need curated lists of resources (lists of tools and links to tutorials), some need to be condensed, concise information that can quickly be skimmed, some prefer to have as many suggestions for extra readings as possible and some want to interact with people with similar interests and learning needs. A blended learning solution with online modules complemented by face-to-face meetings, workshops, and practical activities is probably the best option. Participants are not motivated by diplomas and certificates, but by the perceived usefulness and applicability of the knowledge and skills they learn in their particular line of work, so we need to design evaluation in a flexible way, allowing participants to develop their projects in the context of the courses. Running such courses in a centralised way does not seem like the best solution as there are always technical issues that may arise in the context of using e-learning platforms. Tutors and platform managers should be able to solve any problem faster locally.

When professionals are given an opportunity to add certain skills, competencies or knowledge to their professional capacity, then they are likely to accept such offers certainly when they are free and flexible. There is a clear need to create a tender that is directly related to their needs and requirements, which is why the results of the survey are useful as indicators, but of course not as the only and exclusive symbols. It is paramount to involve professional organisations in the targeted domain area to create relevant course materials in time and in a format that suits the audience best.

The chosen tool and method both Moodle and MOOC have demonstrated that the target audience has no difficulties in using them and that the learning can be quite useful. Maybe we can say that the learning impact is better than the impact through other informal learning as measured in the iPro survey where just over 40% of the study respondents assessed their level of competence acquired through informal learning as moderate or high. Even on an international level, we see that more than 50% of respondents would prefer this way of informal learning. MOOCs are in our opinion at present one of the most appropriate answers to this need. They give an opportunity to combine the goals of the education sector and those specific to the labour market within the frame of digital communication and social media, which is nowadays impossible to avoid.

2. Conclusions

The iPro project shows that we have to think about student and alumni satisfaction concerning communicative skills which are different when taking into consideration the dominant digital culture. University has to collaborate in this respect with potential employers to make sure that we provide skills and knowledge relevant to the new jobs emerging in the new job market. University is not a vocational school but all universities have to think about alumni satisfaction and therefore to be more open for educational challenges and changes. The iProfessional as a project is a good argument for thinking about our curricula with a different perspective. Training future iProfessionals with our traditional university curricula is impossible.

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Links

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BFFs or False Friends? Internationalisms and Their 'Equivalents' in Croatian Musical Terminology Standardisation[1]

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Abstract

The majority of contemporary musical terminology is based on classical Greek and Latin foundations, and has been continuously complemented with local expressions since the early modern period. The first systematic attempts at establishing musical terminology in the Croatian language date back to the mid-19th century, and these were generally restricted to calques from German or loanwords from other Slavic languages. The majority of these neologisms were coined from Slavic roots in accordance with the main principles of Croatian morphology, but a large number were nevertheless soon overtaken by international equivalents. Internationalisms were predominant throughout most of the 20th century until the restoration of language purism in the early 1990s, which appeared alongside the process of Croatian political emancipation. The proscription of internationalisms (such as *muzika*) in favour of Croatian variants (e.g. the Slavic-rooted *glazba*) led to a sudden resurrection of some forgotten 19th century calques, as well as to the formation of new terms based in the native language. Internationalisms have survived in certain language registers, however, and some have even re-established their former prestigious position, while their newly coined and obsolete equivalents were doomed to disuse. There seems to be no absolute concordance between the still coexisting internationalisms and their Croatian synonyms. Many pairs of former equivalents – intra-linguistic and cross-linguistic false friends – reveal significant differences in current usage, spanning from semantic and syntactic disparities (collocational value) to

[1] This work is fully supported by the Croatian Science Foundation (www.hrzz.hr) under project number IP 5355-2013, CONMUSTERM – Problems in Basic Contemporary Musical Terminology in Croatia; project supervisor: Nikša Gligo.

various sociolinguistic nuances (variation in frequency, register, regional distribution, speech and discourse communities, etc.), which should be taken into account during the process of establishing a contemporary lexical norm for an LSP. The paper presents the results of an ongoing interdisciplinary research project, Conmusterm, aiming at standardising basic musical terminology in Croatian.

Keywords: false friends, musical terminology, LSP standardisation, usage variation, English, Croatian.

Despite the need for unambiguous and consistent communication among experts in the field, Croatian musical terminology contains numerous vague and polysemous terms. Most of them entered Croatian through the process of language borrowing, initially as internationalisms that underwent various stages of adaptation to the recipient language system. Today, they often occur alongside a set of semantically closer or more distant synonymous and paronymous expressions, mostly as a result of the aforementioned polysemy. A step into multilingual communication reveals a further number of these so-called *false friends*,[2] internationalisms that reflect divergent meanings in different languages in spite of their mutual *etymologia remota*. False friends are usually approached from a cross-linguistic perspective due to the abundance of internationalisms in European languages, but they are also worth examining in the monolingual context, although they are less frequent than the cross-linguistic ones.

Translating technical terms that are largely based on classical Greek or Latin lexemes seems a difficult task. Firstly, many translators automatically transform internationalisms from a different language system by literally translating their affixes, relying solely on their own linguistic intuition, without consulting experts in the field. Secondly, even experts in the field (even bilingual ones) are not always aware of the fact that the ontological structure of terms are not identical in different language communities, as they rarely take into account the complex means of lexical borrowing that preceded the introduction of an international term into a target language, or the changes that took place inside the target language system in the meantime. When they are introduced into a given language, internationalisms interact with other lexical units on the syntagmatic and paradigmatic level, and thus experience extension changes and modifications (Ivir 1996: 248). In order to understand current problems with false friendship among internationalisms in Croatian and other languages, the issue must be approached from a diachronic perspective.

[2] *False friends* [*faux amis*], coined by Kœssler and Derocquigny in 1928, were initially defined as “terms that appear the same but have very different meanings” (Kœssler and Derocquigny 1928: XI).

Most contemporary musical terminology is based on classical Greek and Latin foundations, and it has been continuously complemented with local expressions since the early modern period. Apart from some rare isolated examples,[3] Latin remained the language of written music theory in Europe until the turn of the 18th century.

The mid-18th century saw a great deal of lexicographic activity throughout Europe, and can thus be considered to be the beginning of modern European musical terminology. Despite the fact that Latin lost its privileged position in written discourse on music, technical terms derived from classical Greek and Latin were still dominant in treatises and referential literature. The first lexicon of musical terms in German and the first encyclopaedic lexicon in history was Walther's *Musicalisches Lexicon*, published in 1732 in Leipzig. The front-cover inscription confirms the presence of a large number of internationalisms in the German musical terminology of the period: "Die in Griechischer, Lateinischer, Italiänischer und Französischer Sprache gebräuchliche musikalische Kunst – oder sonst dahin gehörige Wörter" (Walther 1732: front). Shared lexical structures could be discovered in other European languages likewise (cf. Tansur 1742; Rousseau 1768). Simultaneously, however, musical treatises by authors born on the territory of contemporary Croatia were without exception written in either Latin or (later) Italian until the mid-19th century. However, rare isolated examples of Slavic-rooted folk musical terms can be found in general bilingual and multilingual dictionaries, like Belostenec's *Gazophylacium* (1740) or Jambrešić's *Lexicon* (1742).

The first systematic attempts at creating musical terminology in Croatian date back to the mid-19th century. They were encouraged by the Croatian National Revival (cca 1830–1874), the constitution of the Croatian Musical Institute, then called *Musikverein* (1827), and the foundation of the first public music schools (*Musikverein* in Varaždin, Croatia's former capital, in 1828, etc.). These terminological attempts were generally restricted to calques from German or loanwords from other Slavic languages. Croatian lexicographer Bogoslav Šulek borrowed some basic musical terms from Slovenian authors (particularly from German-Slovenian dictionaries, e.g. Janežič 1851) in order to avoid foreign but already entrenched international terms – examples include the word for music itself, *glasba* (Cro. = Slo., Šulek 1860: II/934; Janežič 1851: 366; contemporary Cro. *glazba*) and the equivalent for *piano*, *glasovir* (Cro. = Slo.; Šulek 1860: I/759; Janežič 1851: 314). Other

[3] E.g. *Definitioni di musica*, written in Italian in 1530 by Venetian musician and theorist Giovanni del Lago (Coover and Franklin 2001).

terms were newly coined from Slavic roots in accordance with the main principles of Croatian morphology, e.g. loan translations for *composition* (Cro. *skladba* < Ger. *Composition*, Šulek 1860: I/293) and *composer* (Cro. *skladatelj* < Ger. *Componist*, Šulek 1860: I/293). The new Croatian terms were initially meant as absolute synonyms of their international counterparts and seemed to remain BFFs, but in contemporary usage they show considerable divergence in terms of meaning and/or register as a result of various socio-linguistic influences.

Šulek himself allowed the parallel use of internationalisms and their Croatian equivalents, but Franjo Kuhač (originally Franz Xaver Koch), a naturalised German Croatian music teacher who calqued the majority of basic musical terms into Croatian, tended to forbid the use of any foreign-rooted expressions. The preference for domestic terms became a matter of national identity. "I think that we must exert efforts to arrange our technical terms according to their actual sense and to exalt appropriate words of our own language so that they can take an honourable place in the terminology of our art, because if we fail to do so, we shall always remain other people's slaves who do not own anything in their domain" (Kuhač 1875: XI).[4]

Kuhač, who never fully mastered Croatian, is today considered the father of Croatian musical terminology. This circumstance is also a source of manifold contemporary terminological issues as a large number of his neologisms did not fit into the Croatian language system, and have therefore met with significant resistance among experts in the field. The majority of Kuhač's domestic-rooted terms were soon overtaken by their international equivalents.

Throughout the course of the 20th century, internationalisms continued to be predominant, although some Croatian terms still coexisted in the discourse of music experts. Most international terms and their Croatian equivalents were still considered absolute synonyms, although many Croatian variants were silently disapproved of in favour of their international counterparts.

After the Second World War, Croatian was forced into a linguistic union with Serbian, which had a significant influence on terminology in various fields. The subsequent orthographic norm, published in 1960, included a chapter on terminology that strongly recommended the use of internationalisms and Serbian terms. Many contemporary Croatian linguists share the opinion that "the intent was clear enough: to introduce Serbian terminology, and in order not to be too obvious, Croatian terms would firstly be substituted by internationalisms" (Frančić, Hudeček and Mihaljević 2005: 201). Musicology, however, generally accepted the obligation to use

[4] All quotations have been translated into English by the authors.

internationally recognised terms as a matter of prestige, and did not show much resistance.

With the restoration of language purism, which appeared along with the process of the Croatian political emancipation and the Croatian War of Independence in the early 1990s, national terminology once again became an issue of the utmost importance. "[…] new national states and democracies […] are promoting their national language as a means of confirming their cultural identity. […] In the case of Croatia, statehood resulted in the reinstitution of the national language" (Šarčević 2004: 130, 132).

The proscription of internationalisms (such as *muzika*) in favour of the Croatian variants (e.g. the Slavic-rooted *glazba*) also led to the sudden resurrection of many forgotten 19th century calques, as well as to the formation of new pseudoarchaic terms founded in the native language.

Internationalisms have survived in certain language registers (mostly in colloquial usage among music experts and amateur musicians). Some of them have even been reestablished to their former prestigious position, while many newly coined and obsolete equivalents were doomed to fall into disuse (e.g. *stanka* < Ger. *Pause*; Cro. r.t.: *pauza*). At the time, internationalisms and their Croatian counterparts began to diverge, which led to a process whereby both international terms and their Croatian calques underwent semantic specialisation as well as diverged in terms of register, resulting in considerable terminological inconsistency.

Many pairs of former equivalents and intralinguistic[5] and cross-linguistic false friends[6] reveal significant differences in current usage, spanning from semantic and syntactic disparities (collocational value) to various sociolinguistic nuances (variations in frequency, register, regional distribution, speech and discourse communities, etc.), which should be taken into account in the process of establishing a contemporary lexical norm for an LSP apart from the usual terminological principles (ISO 704/2009, etc.). Semantic categories can be systematically divided into four groups (according to Ivir 1968: 150f):

1. Pairs with identical denotative meanings (complete overlap) in the two languages under consideration, but some of which may still differ in their range of collocation, frequency, levels of use, etc.

An example of this is the term *muzika*, today less common then its former equivalent *glazba*. Although they are most probably interchangeable in

5 E.g. *stupanj* ↔ *stepen* [Eng. *scale degree* ↔ *step*] or *muzika* and *glazba* [Eng. both *music*]), which will be discussed later.

6 E.g. Eng. *composition* ≠ Cro. *kompozicija* ↔ *skladba*; the English term encompasses the meanings of both *kompozicija* (Cro. r.t. for the discipline) and *skladba* (Cro. r.t. for a composed piece of music).

any context, general linguistics recognises the semantic specialisation of the word *muzika* in vernacular usage, where it activates the conceptual domains of relaxation, amusement, dance, drunkenness, etc., while *glazba* activates serenity, art, festive athmosphere, etc. (Belaj and Tanacković Faletar 2007: 17f). Normativists generally sanction the use of *muzika*, considering it a luxury loan, a product of language snobbism (Mihaljević in: Božić 2015). The usage of these terms in musicology significantly diverges from the vernacular: *muzika* often denotes the *discipline of music* (thus: *Muzička akademija*, *magistar muzike*, etc.), while *glazba* represents the art itself. However, not all musicologists agree on this issue.

2. Pairs whose meanings overlap to a certain extent, but whose range of meaning in the first language (here: Croatian) is narrower than in the second (here: English).

This case is most common in Croatian musical terminology due to the fact that most international musical terms have Croatian-root equivalents and one or both Croatian terms are usually modified through semantic specialisation. Similar to the aforementioned example of the term *composition*,[7] the English noun *composer* can be translated either as a localism, *skladatelj* (r.t.), or as an internationalism, *kompozitor*. The former is dominant in contemporary usage,[8] while the latter, *kompozitor*, seems to be restricted to denoting a composer with a university degree. Musicologists generally prefer the Croatian term, *skladatelj*,[9] which is a true friend of the English *composer*. Regardless of the contemporary usage, both Croatian terms are still treated as absolute synonyms in most dictionaries.

Another example of semantic restriction in the target language is the English word *repetition* and its false friend, the Croatian word *repeticija*. In English musicological discourse, *repetition* cannot be considered to be a technical term because it is used without restrictions in its general meaning. In Croatian musical terminology, *repeticija* is a very restricted technical term denoting the repetition of integral formal sections of a musical piece, a meaning very similar to Eng. *repeat*.[10] *Repeticija* is obligatorily notated in the score with a special sign (Eng. *repeat sign*),

[7] See footnote 6.

[8] A search of HJK shows 159 tokens of *kompozitor* and 3,145 tokens of *skladatelj*; HNK recognizes 148 tokens of *kompozitor* and 5,909 tokens of *skladatelj* (both accessed on 10.08.2016).

[9] Among the abstracts of articles in the Croatian Musicological Society's magazine, *Arti musices*, in the period from 2007 to 2016, only one abstract includes *kompozitor*, while *skladatelj* appears in 35 abstracts (search through http://hrcak.srce.hr/, 10.08.2016).

[10] "The restatement of a portion of a musical composition of any length from a single bar to a whole section, or occasionally the whole piece" (Tilmouth 2001).

and the English nouns *repeat* and *repetition* are intralinguistic false friends when used as musical terms (*repeat* may be regarded as a more of a technical term with a meaning narrower than *repetition*).

3. Pairs whose meanings also partially overlap, but the meaning in the first language (Croatian) is broader than in the second.
The authors’ research has not revealed any examples of this category. The dual nature of most Croatian musical terms derived from international roots regularly results in the semantic specialisation of one or both initially equivalent terms.

4. Pairs whose meanings are completely disparate (without any overlapping). For example, the English *parallel tonalities* do not semantically overlap with the Croatian *paralelni tonaliteti*. Although both describe possible relationships between a major and a minor tonality, there are no semantic commonalities because of the divergent concepts of parallelity in the English and Croatian musicological traditions. Eng. *parallel tonalities* should be translated as Cro. *istoimeni tonaliteti*, denotating a major and a minor tonality with the same chromatic pitch-class collection and the same tonic, while Cro. *paralelni tonaliteti*, or Eng. *relative tonalities* mean a major and a minor tonality with the same diatonic pitch-class collection and a different tonic.
So, are there any international BFFs in musical terminology in the end? An example *par excellence* is a large collection of Italian musical terms (*Adagio*, *con moto*, *forte*, etc.), which are most frequently adopted in their original form (usually even without transliteration) and are probably not likely to undergo any significant changes in the future, bearing in mind that they have not changed for centuries.[11] Terms with simple, specific, clearly defined meanings (e.g. Cro. *tetrakord* and Eng. *tetrachord*, four neighbouring diatonic tones/notes in a row) without a corresponding Croatian equivalent are more often true semantic friends than those that have a Croatian counterpart. Words with abstract meanings often have greater metaphorical potential and are generally more context-dependant, and thus more likely to find diverse semantic and collocational restrictions in different languages (Marcinkevičienė 2007: 51f).

[11] There are, however, examples of false friendship of Italian musical terms in other languages, such as a special case of metonymy resulting in homonymy when tempo markings (e.g. *Allegro*) become substantives and signify an entire section or a movement in a musical piece (and sometimes even form further complex terms like *Sonata Allegro*, meaning the first – quick – movement of a sonata cycle).

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Taking into account the complex set of problems regarding various semantic aspects of true and false friendships among cross-linguistic and intra-linguistic internationalisms, one should have serious doubts as to whether internationalisms should be favoured over localisms in terminology. Some authors always prefer localisms over internationalisms but allow the latter as admitted terms, while others prefer internationalisms due to their (assumed) transparency, which has been deconstructed in this paper. However, scientific and technical standardisation has favoured the use of a core of common loanwords in many European languages. A single answer cannot be provided, and the best solution would be to select equivalents on a term-by-term basis based upon a thorough corpus-based analysis of usage in contrasted languages or language registers.

Abbreviations

BFF – best friends forever (in this text: metaphor for absolute synonyms).
Cro. – Croatian.
Ger. – German.
Eng. – English.
HJK – Hrvatski jezični korpus [Croatian Language Corpus, http://riznica.ihjj.hr/philologic/, 10.08.2016].
HNK – Hrvatski nacionalni korpus [Croatian National Corpus, http://filip.ffzg.hr/cgi-bin/run.cgi/first_form, 10.08.2016].
r.t. – recommended term.
Slo. – Slovenian.

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