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IMEC 21

PROCEEDINGS

Szczecin, Poland
06–10 October, 2009
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MARITIME ENGLISH REQUIREMENTS
AND THE REVISED STCW

Abstract
The wording of the requirements regarding Maritime English instruction and application laid down in the revised STCW Convention of 1995 (hereafter STCW95) have to be regarded as progress compared to the original document of 1978. However, the former minimum standards with regard to the Maritime English competence for deck and engineer officers are set out explicitly only in three tables whereas more than one hundred rules, regulations, provisions, etc. tacitly require a sound command of Maritime English. This situation has frequently been criticized, especially by Maritime English instructors at MET institutions who understandably wish to relate their teaching to a clear legal basis which leaves no room for conflicting interpretations.

In this paper a suggestion is submitted on how to change the situation outlined above to improve the ongoing revision of the present STCW Convention thus meeting the justifiable request of Maritime English lecturers. The paper furthermore points out how this suggestion could be accommodated in the STCW Convention as revised to ensure that essential progress is being made which would considerably contribute to improving the quality of Maritime English instruction, and consequently to promoting safety at sea and in ports.

Keywords: STCW revision, Maritime English requirements

Introduction
The revision of the STCW 1978 Convention completed in 1995 (IMO 1995) has to be regarded as essential progress compared to the original document as special attention has been given to realizing competency-oriented rather than purely knowledge-based Maritime Education, Training (MET) and assessment. The human element was given higher priority and thus the emphasis was shifted to people, i.e. the development of skills, proficiency, knowledge, understanding and competency among those who have to fulfil the tasks and duties assigned to them on board. Requirements regarding Maritime English instruction for deck and engineer officers were also referred to for the first time, although it soon became obvious that this important area of MET had not been the prime concern of IMO when drafting the 1995 revision of the STCW.

In the past decade, however, new challenges facing the maritime industry have emerged. The IMO, considering the current and predictable developments in the shipping world, felt that a new review of the Convention had to be undertaken which “should provide global standards of training for seafarers for a considerable length of time” as the Chairman of IMO Sub-Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping (STW), Admiral Peter Brady recently postulated (Brady 2008).

Hence, accepting the advance launched by the STW Sub-Committee in 2006 (IMO 2006(1)), its superior Maritime Safety Committee (MSC) approved the areas of the Conven-
tion for a comprehensive review (IMO 2007(1)) and instructed the STW to undertake that re-
view in a systematic and organized manner with the target completion date of 2010.

All IMO member parties and bodies affiliated in one way or the other with the Organiza-
tion were invited to reasonably contribute to the STCW revision complying with the philoso-
phy and the corresponding principles established by STW (IMO 2007(2)) which are dealt
with later in this paper. The International Maritime Lecturers’ Association (IMLA), holding
consultative status at IMO, and especially its Maritime English Sub-Committee also felt chal-
lenged and saw that certain shortcomings in the STCW95 identified by the Maritime English
teaching community, were worthy of the Organization’s consideration.

2. The Problems

Criticism may occasionally be heard and read with regard to the relevant provisions in the
STCW95 in respect of Maritime English instruction. Such criticisms may be summarised like
this:

- Lack of a detailed breakdown of competence to be expected from deck and engineer of-
ficers; the standards mentioned are said to be not sufficiently precise to be applied with
the optimum results.
- The generalized standards and their assessment are said to be half-baked, ambiguous or
non-specific.
- Guidance for assessing oral Maritime English competence is said to be insufficient; no
indication of assessment procedure to certify such competence, so Maritime English
lecturers and MET administrations are left without direction or control in this respect
(Short, 2005).
- The ability of completing ships business and administrative correspondence is not re-
quired.
- Maritime English lecturers find it hard to derive appropriate teaching contents/methods
and curricula from the STCW95.

It is not the concern of this contribution to analyse in detail whether the above statements are
fully justified, but they have to be duly taken into account when the Convention is under review.

To do IMO justice, generally it may be said that when drafting the STCW95 the corres-
ponding requirements were deliberately worded in a generalized manner to give each national
administration the scope to adapt them according to the specific conditions prevailing in their
MET systems and to implement them creatively.

Furthermore, the current version was set at the lowest common denominator practically at-
tainable during many years of in-depth considerations at IMO as the conditions and pretexts
in MET and pre-MET areas of IMO member states vary considerably and could hardly be
placed under one umbrella. Those who are versed with the lyrics of drafting IMO legal docu-
ments will know that sensitive diplomacy is required and more than once has politics tended
to dominate subject-matter decision making.

With regard to Maritime English, the STCW95 actually sets out minimum standards re-
garding the knowledge and competence for deck and engineer officers in the field of Mari-
time English expressis verbis only in Tables A-II/1 and A-III/1 (English Language), and in
Table A-IV/2 pertaining to GMDSS radio opera tors. This nonetheless is progress when com-
pared to the STCW Convention of 1978, but a kind of “ideological” fallacy might occur with
those tables. Especially less experienced Maritime English teachers could be left with the
misleading conception that the issues listed reflect the entire contents of Maritime English instruction resulting in inappropriate conclusions being drawn, for instance, when creating Maritime English teaching aids or syllabi; this might probably be one of the reasons why senior ship officers, chief engineers and personnel managers of shipping companies complain that their junior officers, though having officially undergone training based on the STCW95, often do not meet the communication requirements they should render according to their certificates of competence (Short, 2005). Reviewers of the Convention occasionally remark that this document, having been effective for ten years now, fell essentially short of expectations in quite a few regards.

3. The Option

What has to be pointed out to Maritime English lecturers and designers of teaching/testing materials, methods and syllabi is that there are more than a hundred rules, regulations, provisions and other directive stipulations in STCW95, the enforcement of which tacitly and implicitly requires a sound command of Maritime English otherwise the corresponding requirements will not be met. Or, in other words, although “it is not directly mentioned for some competences, English language … is to be considered whenever communication is required as a competence” (Cömert et al., 2002). From a long list of examples (Cole & Trenkner 2008) two are selected here to illustrate the fact:

According to STCW Chapter II, Table AII/1 for the deck officer at operational level the following competence has to be rendered as a response to a distress signal: “Contingency plans and instructions in standing orders are implemented and complied with.”

Chapter III, Table AIII/1, requires of the engineer officer at operational level, when controlling the operation of the ship, the following competence: “Prevent, control and fight fires on board and the ability to organize fire drills. S/he has to be able of making reports and informing the personnel on board” (IMO, 1995).

Recalling that “mixed” crews on board foreign-going vessels are the rule nowadays it is practically impossible for them to fulfil the duties quoted from the STCW95 without exercising a sound command of Maritime English, which is not explicitly demanded by these regulations and others but tacitly taken for granted.

It is perhaps no exaggeration to hold that Maritime English is the comprehensively penetrating medium of the STCW Convention and will definitely remain so in the forthcoming revision (The SOLAS Convention 2004 … ).

Maritime English instructors at MET institutions wish to understandably relate their teaching and research to a clear legal basis which leaves no room for conflicting interpretations. This means that the problems outlined above have to be considered and ways found how to change the situation outlined for the better in the course of the ongoing revision of the STCW95, thus meeting the justifiable requests of Maritime English lecturers. Furthermore, a proposal should be offered on how an appropriate suggestion could be accommodated in the STCW Convention under revision, ensuring that essential progress is being made, which would considerably contribute to improving the quality of Maritime English instruction and research, and consequently to promoting safety at sea and in ports.

MSC 83 agreed upon nine basic principles (IMO 2007(1)), which have to be dealt with during the review of STCW95. Two of these are highly relevant to the topic of this paper:

- inconsistencies, interpretations, outdated provisions …
- requirements for effective communication.
Especially the latter may downright be regarded as an invitation to the Maritime English teaching community to take part in the revision and to submit suggestions matching the basic principles.

There are theoretically two options of how clearly to elucidate the vital impact Maritime English proficiency has within the context of the STCW Convention to be revised.

Firstly, for each individual regulation in question advice could be attached that corresponding communications Maritime English has to be used. Remembering that there are more than one hundred regulations etc. in the STCW95 requiring Maritime English proficiency for their realization, it is obvious that this idea is too circumstantial to be realized alone from the editorial point of view and even not necessary considering the other option.

This option is by far more convincing and reflects the author's view. Taking into account that almost 90% of the world’s merchant vessels presently sail with multilingual crews, and considering the communication problems involved, the EU Member States and the European Commission submitted the following suggestion to IMO relating to the forthcoming revision of the STCW95 which reads:

**Effective communication**

“Each administration shall hold companies responsible for ensuring that there are at all times on board all ships adequate means in place for effective oral communication and communication between the ship and the shore based authorities in accordance with Chapter V, Regulation 14, paragraphs 3 and 4 of the SOLAS Convention, relating to safety and security, between all members of a ship's crew, especially with regard to the correct and timely reception and understanding of messages and instructions” (IMO 2006(2)).

This suggestion of the EU is a remarkable step in the direction that the Maritime English teaching family fully supports if this advance should be agreed upon by IMO, it would give validity to, and entail far reaching advantages for Maritime English as a subject of instruction and research and its reputation as a comparatively newly established knowledge area.

However, considering the impact that Maritime English proficiency has on the best possible realization of the future of the STCW Convention, it is meaningful when the following concrete extension is added to the suggestion above with the intention of providing a substantial contribution to further promote the issue in question:

“Whenever a provision in the Convention requires language communication for its realization within an international context, the preferred medium for the interchange of corresponding intelligence among the personnel concerned should be Maritime English in specified forms; for safety related verbal ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore and on board communications the IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) should be applied in preference to other wording of similar meaning.”

This intent, preferably added to Chapter I, Regulation I/14a of the new Convention or introduced at another appropriate place therein, would dispose of any arguments regarding the imprecisely drafted Maritime English requirements and the other criticism mentioned, and it would make any further detailed reference to the use of Maritime English in the Convention superfluous. This approach would ensure that essential progress will be made and would considerably contribute to improving the quality of Maritime English instruction at MET institutions, thus promoting safety at sea and in ports (Cole & Trenkner, 2008).
4. Conclusion

It is felt that the activity of the Maritime English teaching community outlined above is fully in accordance with IMO’s pronounced strategy for the years to come:

The challenge for IMO is to place increased emphasis on the contribution of the human element to safer, more secure and environmentally friendly shipping and continuously to improve measures aimed at enhancing human performance in the maritime industry (IMO 2007(3)).

The International Maritime Lecturers’ Association in co-ordination with the International Association of Maritime Universities (IAMU), both holding consultative status at IMO, and probably further governmental and non-governmental organisations, are particularly invited to contribute to the revision of the document taking into account the justified requests of Maritime English instructors. Worth noting is that the German delegation to the STW has announced its full support to this proposal once a corresponding advance is made at the STW.

IMEC 21, which represents high profile body of expertise, is an appropriate forum and an excellent opportunity for views to be exchanged on the problems touched upon here. We all have a vital interest in the development of a qualified STCW Convention forming a sound foundation of teaching and research in the field of Maritime English.

The 41st meeting of the STW in February 2010 will be one of the last opportunities to submit our ideas to IMO. The IMEC 21 delegates will be asked to authorize the IMEC Steering Committee to pass on a corresponding note to the IMLA Chair for submission to the STW 41 with the deadline of November 20, 2009.

References

7. IMO (2006(1)). Sub Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping. STW 37/18, 2.
8. IMO (2006(2)). Sub Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping STW 39/7/11.
10. IMO (2007(2)). Sub Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping. STW 38/WP. 7.
15. The SOLAS Convention 2004 goes, in one detail, a little bit further than the STCW Convention 1995 when it requires "English shall be used on the bridge as the working language for bridge-to-bridge and bridge-to-shore safety communication as well as for communications on board between the pilot and bridge watchkeeping personnel" and advises the use of IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases in this context (IMO 2004).

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**Curriculum Vitae**

Prof. Dr. Peter Trenkner

- has been working for more than 45 years as a Maritime English/Maritime Communication lecturer;
- since 1994 he has been a full professor of Maritime Communication at Wismar University, Germany, Faculty of Maritime Studies, retired in February 2006 but continues lecturing at university and internationally;
- during his career he served as a training officer onboard merchant marine vessels;
- frequently he presented at conferences worldwide for which he was also scientifically responsible, and published numerous articles and relevant textbooks;
- the principal author of the IMO - Standard Marine Communication Phrases (IMO-SMCP);
- holds or held different influential positions in international associations such as President of the International German Association for Maritime English (GAME), member of the IMLA Committee and Chairman of the IMLA International Maritime English Conference (IMEC);
- got involved in various international R/D projects and is registered as consultant to IMO in Maritime English;
- in 2001 he headed an IMO Technical Assistance Team that visited the PR China;
- was honoured with the highest maritime decoration of the Federal Republic of Germany for “Extraordinary Merits regarding Navigation and the Sea”. Since February 2006 he is an Honorary Member of the International Maritime Lecturers’ Association and since 2007 also of the German Association for Maritime English.

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WHY ALMOST ALL THE VESSELS OF POLISH OWNERS
DO NOT FLY NATIONAL FLAG?

Abstract
1. Short historical note that presents the so called general statistics (number of owners, number of vessels, capacity of them etc.) that show the slowdown of Polish maritime potential over the last two and a half decades.
2. Main reasons that influenced the diminishing role of Polish maritime activity – especially for Polish shipowners.
3. Flags of Convenience – not always “cheap and substandard” – as a tool that helped to survive some of the Polish shipping companies.
4. What we have done and what we still have to do so that Polish flag returns.

Curriculum Vitae

Slawomir Jacek Balazy, MSc

– after graduating from the University, he joined Polish Steamship Co. in Szczecin in 1982. From the beginning he was employed in vessels operation division of the company as a specialist and manager;
– 1989 – 1992 he rendered his service as a representative of Polish shipowners (i.e. Polish Steamship Co., Szczecin, Polish Ocean Lines, Gdynia and Polish Baltic Shipping, Kolobrzeg) in Copenhagen, Denmark;
– 1992 – 1996 he was employed in Polish Steamship Co. as Manager of Shipping Policy Division and as Vice-President of Żegluga Polska SA, the main and the biggest subsidiary of the Polish Steamship Company;
– 1996 – 1999 he was appointed as a Managing Director of Polsteam Iberia SA in Madrid, a company that was the general shipping agency for the vessels of PSC Szczecin that called at Spanish and Portuguese ports;
– after coming back to Poland he was appointed (as) a Director of Economy Policy of the Polish Steamship Company, Szczecin and in 2001 elected President of the Management Board of Żegluga Polska SA.

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HUMAN ERROR – THE ROOT CAUSE OF MARINE CLAIMS

Abstract

The aim of this paper is to demonstrate different ways of using authentic materials to be encountered in the work of a seafarer. The materials in question comprise marine accidents’ reports available online, VHF communications, sailing directions, legal documents used in shipping, safety and/or security instructions.

At first sight it may seem difficult to find correlation between an issue of communication and marine insurance, but the longer I handle marine claims the more I’m inclined to agree that the link is extremely crucial.

The present paper is based upon my 25 years of experience in handling marine claims and it aims at giving the IMEC participants a better idea of what is happening in the world of marine insurance and how the communication impacts my field of activity.

The paper consists of three parts. Part one underlines the fact that insurance was born at sea and makes a comparison between marine and non-marine insurance. It is clear when we recognize the underlying cause of the financial losses born by insurers and reinsurers. The natural calamities are main wrongdoers in non-marine sector, whereas the human error is the root cause of marine claims. Moreover, we note the escalation of claims due to technology revolution, pressure of rapidly growing economy and new political risks.

Part two analyses the lack of proper communication at sea invoking many types of marine claims both in hull and machinery accidents and third party liability cases (P&I) as well as punitive damages.

Part three focuses attention on proper communication as a remedy of minimizing the aftermaths of marine accidents. Exploration of the insurance hot-lines, appointment of lawyers, adjusters and surveyors in order to gather evidence and assess an extent of damages and finally taking advantage of the International Conventions of Limitation of Liability facilitate the survival of the shipowners, even those being to blame for marine disasters.

Last but not least, it is vital being pro-active, as prevention is better than cure, hence all starts and ends with proper education and…our (i.e. marine insurers’) prosperity rests in your hands!

Keywords: marine insurance, marine claims, human error, lack of communication

It is a great pleasure to have an opportunity to say a few words about insurance during this special meeting. There is a double pleasure for me as for more than 26 years marine insurance is not only my favourite subject, but a true passion. At first glance it may seem difficult to find correlation between an issue of communication and marine insurance, but the longer I handle marine claims the more I’m inclined to agree that the link is extremely crucial.

Albert Einstein said that “Imagination is more important than knowledge” and keeping the above in mind I would like rather to enrich your imagination, to give you a better idea of what is happening in the world of marine insurance and how the communication impacts my field of activity, illustrating that with some practical hints and examples which should appeal to you better than producing a lengthy report full of statistics and dry as dust rules and conditions, which sometimes even for insurance practitioners could not be enough exciting.
Having received an invitation as a speaker at this conference I was really excited and, at the same time, worried, how to give you insight into the complex aspects of marine insurance within only 30 minutes and to prove that human error, being the root cause of marine claims, makes them so different from the property and casualty insurances (non-marine ones). However, there is no escape from at least a short introduction to the general meaning of insurance, in particular, for better understanding of the specific character of marine insurance industry. The differences pertaining to the marine and non-marine sectors will be addressed in part one of the presentations. In part two, an emphasis will be given to the lack of proper communication at sea and inevitable consequence of it: the man-made losses, as marine claims are used to be classified. The contrasting third part focuses attention on efficient communication as a remedy of tackling the aftermaths of marine accidents with particular stress on close cooperation with insurers, where one could paraphrase an old adage that: “speaking is silver, silence is gold, but efficient communication with your insurer is priceless”. And on top of it is the importance of prevention, as the symbolic light at the end of the tunnel, which in the best way would be illustrated by the chosen scenes out of the dedicated prevention series of DVDs created by one of the largest P&I Clubs – the Steamship Mutual, celebrating this year its 100\textsuperscript{th} anniversary. Last but not least, the most crucial aspect of prevention is your vital role in education of future officers and mariners to anticipate problems before they occur, and mitigate the losses by efficient communication. No doubt, our (i.e. the marine insurers) prosperity rest in your hands!

PART ONE

Marine and Non-marine Insurance

The best method, in which we could describe in a few words what insurance is for, would be a comparison to happiness and love. Unbelievable! But true. There is an old saying that “love is multiplied when shared” and the same you can say about insurance, when a loss comes, it can be made good (i.e. compensation multiplied) when shared by many. The insurance is very often described as a “price for peace of mind”, in short, someone cannot sleep (i.e. an insurer) to let others sleep well (the policy-holders) in exchange of a premium paid to insurer for protection and payment of an indemnity when an insured peril affects you or your property. Generally speaking, it is nothing else but a principle tool of risk management which guarantees a continuity of business in case of misfortune. “From the very earliest times of maritime trading it was appreciated by both trades and carries alike that maritime risks constitute a greater hazard than those encountered on land.” In order to minimise this risk, the merchants assisted their cargo sailing as “supercargo” on board. Despite their personal involvement and supervising both stowage, carriage and discharging operations, the losses had occurred; moreover, they could even lose their lives when disaster had happened [40]. Hence, a solution of sharing the risk of maritime adventure in a form of insurance agreement had appeared, confirming the common opinion that insurance was born at sea. But, nowadays, where the most common issue is the crisis, a vital question must appear: does the crisis affect insurers and can we indeed sleep well?

In the light of the above, some doubts may arise as to how it is possible that the insurance market is still able to compensate all of it. How is the insurance market organised?

Have a look at the Fig.1, in which the simplified division of insurance is depicted. Keeping the division in mind it will be much easier to imagine, where potential losses may go and who is going to pay for them. In particular, if we consider that in marine insurance the sum
insured is reinstated after payment of each claim, and what is more important, even without charging of additional premium for reinstatements.

As far as marine insurance is concerned, you do not need to be an owner of the ship (contrary to the property and casualty insurance) to buy an insurance cover. All you need is to have an insurable interest, in other words, to be able to prove that in the case of loss or damage to the insured ship you will be also affected financially by this damage or loss. “Anti-fraud rules prevent someone without an insurable interest buying an insurance policy” [43]. Therefore a group of potential clients of marine underwriters comprises shipowners, ship managers, charterers, banks (as mortgagees), shipbuilders, ship repairs, port operators, pilots and many others.

The earlier quoted truth about sharing the risks can be easily found even within the insurance market itself. The scale of risk and enormous financial exposure determinates further sharing of risks among the insurers themselves by ceding the risks to reinsurers. In short, reinsurance is insurance of insurance. Insurance, as a unique type of service is completely based on trust and clients must feel confident that their carrier (insurers or reinsurers) will be able to pay their claims in the long run [31]. How to be sure that we can trust the chosen one?

Thankfully, the financial market addressed the problem. The solution is the service of credit rating agencies – highly specialised institutions which enable commercial parties to assess the risk of non-performance of financial institutions by assigning credit ratings for corporations. The great importance is attached to the risk of getting downgraded by widely recognised companies like: Standard and Poor’s, A.M. Best, Moody’s, or Fitch Ratings.

In general, the more A’s are admitted to a company, the better. There is a kind of a short code for risk managers, for example A+ rating means that there is an insurer with strong risk-adjusted capitalisation and robust underwriting results, what translates that they have enough money to pay all outstanding and future claims arising out of written risks.

There is one more example that the insurance market is in the ongoing process of adaptations to clients’ needs. And again, in order to comprehend how considerable amount of money is at stake, we have to look at the figures below.

The insurance market is not only the world of insurers, re-insurers, P&I Clubs, brokers or rating agencies, and although they are the main players, there is also an enormous complementary industry including lawyers, surveyors, experts and consultants, Lloyd’s agents, clas-
sification societies, associations like IUMI, ILU, IMO etc. that coexist with main carriers creating the complex machinery of insurance market, a hive of activity.

![Graph showing total global insurance premium volume in 2008](image)

**Fig. 2. Total global insurance premium volume in 2008**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Value (in $m)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>1,753,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North America</td>
<td>1,345,816</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>933,358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America and Caribbean</td>
<td>104,933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania</td>
<td>77,716</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>54,713</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World</td>
<td>4,269,737</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To stay abreast of the insurance market it is worthy to recognise who plays the key role for marine insurance and which places are of the greatest importance for shipping industry.

Even a short analysis will give an answer why communication in English is of vital importance not only in shipping but in marine insurance business alike.

**Marine Premium – Market Shares 2007**

![Graph showing marine premium market shares 2007](image)

**Source: IUMI 2008.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cargo 11,9</td>
<td>UK 1,76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hull 5,9</td>
<td>Norway 0,51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energy 2,8</td>
<td>Japan 0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liability 1,4</td>
<td>U.S. 0,16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sweden 0,12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL 22,1 (100%)</td>
<td>Total P&amp;I Clubs: 2,73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source: IUMI 2008.**
Undoubtedly, Europe with London remains a key market for marine insurance. In particular, if we take into account that it is not only because of a remarkable corporation of Lloyd’s (since 1688), but also due to the fact that most of P&I Clubs – the unique institutions covering third party liability (TPL) of shipowners, ship operators and charterers, with ca. $2.5 billion of the TPL premium are mainly collected in London.

The P&I insurance offered by the P&I Clubs associated in the International Group is arguably the widest cover ever. Not only in the meaning of financial limits granted in billions dollars, but also due to the scope of cover contained in “the P&I Rules”. As an example of very specific cover, one may mention: excess of collision liability (once the hull and machinery limit has already run out), payment of unrecoverable cargo share in General Average due to the unseaworthiness of the vessel, towage and pilotage contracts where all the liability is assumed by the towed vessel etc.

Gross of Lloyd’s capacity is deeply engaged into all types of the property and casualty insurances, where premiums are much higher alike the natural catastrophes losses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American Club</td>
<td>148,473</td>
<td>111,171</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Britannia</td>
<td>242,897</td>
<td>298,879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gard</td>
<td>406,095</td>
<td>337,208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>231,299</td>
<td>190,876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>London</td>
<td>103,563</td>
<td>210,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North of England</td>
<td>213,015</td>
<td>157,853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shipowners</td>
<td>145,696</td>
<td>104,538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skuld</td>
<td>192,654</td>
<td>125,960</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard (Bermuda)</td>
<td>168,869</td>
<td>181,095</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steamship Mutual</td>
<td>268,538</td>
<td>267,347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Club</td>
<td>334,948</td>
<td>325,208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West of England</td>
<td>240,993</td>
<td>272,215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swedish Club</td>
<td>62,161</td>
<td>138,654</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: www.willis.com ; P&I Review 2008/09.
The biggest losses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Casualty</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Insured loss. (economical loss) in $U.S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>Typhoon Mireille</td>
<td>Struck Japan</td>
<td>7.3 bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>Hurricane Andrew</td>
<td>Devastation across South Florida and Bahamas</td>
<td>30 bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>The Northridge earthquake</td>
<td>Struck California</td>
<td>20bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>Hurricane Lothar</td>
<td>Western Europe</td>
<td>30 bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001</td>
<td>WTC</td>
<td>terrorism</td>
<td>30bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Ivan, Charley, Frances</td>
<td>Hurricanes in the US</td>
<td>45bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Katrina, Rita, Wilma</td>
<td>Hurricanes in the US</td>
<td>100bn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Hurricane Ike, Hurricane Gustav</td>
<td>In the Caribbean and the US</td>
<td>15bn (30bn)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>US</td>
<td>10bn (5bn)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Swiss Re, Insurance Day.*

The negative effect of disasters caused by natural calamities is obvious and clearly visible when we analyse the data of registered losses paid by the non-marine insurers and reinsurers (i.e. relating to the property and casualty insurance).

The costs of so-called “weather related claims” predominate. No wonder that rating agencies are more and more concerned with the effect of major natural disasters on insurance market [7]. In particular, in view of the latest threatening forecasts, anticipating that the pattern of adverse effect of climate change will continue in areas not previously exposed to such a risk.

A detailed research of the Swiss Re depicted in the Fig. 3 below shows a perfect comparison between catastrophic losses and man-made losses. This disastrous statistics says more than thousand words. But in case they are not persuasive enough, please have a look at the Hurricane Andrew’s afterwards in 1992.

![Fig. 3. Property and business interruption losses](image)

*Source: Swiss.*

Notably, the above graph depicts the insured losses only, but we should remember that they are only the tip of the iceberg, as overall economical losses were much bigger.
According to the Insurance Day: "so far in this century more than 800,000 people have been killed by natural disasters and more than two billion have been affected with costs from natural disasters reaching more than $800bn." The majority of natural disasters impacts the developing world where only thin percentage of losses is covered by insurers. For example, the last year’s biggest overall loss was caused by the earthquake in Sichuan in China which killed 70,000 people and caused damages of $85bn, whereas only 0.5% of these losses were insured [29].

The hurricane season runs from June 1 to November 30 and we will see whether this entire prognosis that the year 2009 is to be much milder than the previous years, will come true. Definitely, the world needs a breath of fresh air.

Coming back to the core subject of this presentation – marine insurance, it is worth to point out that contrary to the property and casualty insurance, the marine insurance industry suffers mostly due to the man-made losses, where the root cause is human error. One could risk the comparison that there is a completely different pattern with marine casualties. There is an area where a Latin saying “*humane errare est*” reaps a harvest. The comments quoted below as well as marine and casualty statistics gathered by the key players in the marine market unanimously confirm that the marine industry is heavily affected by the human factor. Moreover, claims are recorded both in well-managed fleets as well as in sub-standard vessels. In 2006 and 2007 policy years, the multi-million dollars P&I Pool’s Claims characteristic shows that “there was no obvious indication of sub-standard shipping involved. If anything, the notable characteristic was the number of casualties involving top quality operators (…) arising from navigational errors, resulting in groundings, contact damage and collisions” [46]. It seems to indicate that no one is immune to human errors. The surge in large claims led to the inevitable increase of the average cost of pool claims (around $500m each year) and had a detrimental effect on the policy year 2007/2008, which registered the worst ever underwriting result for the P&I market. The total claims paid by all 13 P&I Clubs exceeded the amount of $2.7bn and due to the long-tail characteristic may deteriorate further in the next years [46].

Human error was widely acknowledged as a major cause of marine accidents by many researchers, insurers, governmental bodies and international organizations like the IMO, which initiated implementation of many legislation acts and issued many recommendations to address this issue.

In 1990 the first UK P&I Club Analysis of major claims found human error accounting for 58% of all big claims (over $100,000) indicating that as many as 3 out of 5 major claims were directly related to human factor. In 2003, the UK Club updated their estimation of human error impact on marine claims with 62% share. The Nautical Institute (sponsored by the Lloyd’s Register), concurred with the above opinion, indicating even higher i.e. 80% human
share in all accidents at sea [2]. The later published opinions of a representative of science also identifying a human element as a dominant factor in approximately 80-85% of marine accidents [37]. Even the scrutiny of the U.S. Coast Guard QAT (Quality Action Team) found percentage of all accidents attributable to human error to be at 80% [47]. Fig. 4 illustrates principal causes and frequency of marine claims in the UK P&I Club.

![Figure 4](image)

*Fig. 4.*

*Source: UK P&I Club Analysis of major claims UK Club 1997, Table 3.7*

Unfortunately, since that time this adverse tendency has not changed for better, but even got worse. From the latest figures of the Norwegian Hull Club published in 2008, it became transparent that the alarming rise in accidents was observed to such an extent that “the ships are twice as likely to be involved in a serious incident today compared to five years ago” [48]. The surge in the number of marine claims refers mainly to human error – ca. 90% or more of all claims [38]. Figures revealed that 18 out of 22 huge claims amounting to more than $0.5m were due to navigational errors. The IUMI graphs presented at the Conference in Vancouver in 2008 confirmed the rising trend of serious losses.

![Total losses (1980-2007)](image)

*Source: IUMI 2008 (Cedric Charpentier).*

Serious and Total Losses by numbers (1994-2007)
Even in oil platform disasters human error has been found as the main cause. The case of *Piper Alpha* was the worst example of companies cutting corners [8].

The escalation of marine claims both in number and in size is now one of the major concerns not only for the shipowners but also for the insurance companies, who are paying bigger and bigger claims at the end of the day, and as a result, insurers are facing meaningful increases in claims ratios [42]. For better understanding, a claim ratio is a principle indicator of performance of insurer and reinsurer reflecting the outcome of their technical performance i.e. their core activity – underwriting. It simply shows whether an insurer gains profit or makes losses out of its primary activity (without taking into account any investment yields).

\[
CR = \frac{\text{Claims paid} + \text{outstanding claims}}{\text{Premium} – \text{cost of activity}}
\]

There is a comparison of paid and outstanding claims (those that have occurred but were unpaid at the time of computation) to the collected insurance premium upon deduction of cost of activity (administrative costs plus brokerage). If it exceeds 100%, it means that the activity is not profitable. In short, the lower the percentage, the better.

We live in an age of technology and automation and most of the subsystems on board of a modern ship are now controlled by omnipresent computers, moreover, an excellent communication network enables contact with vessels at any time, one may ask why the marine claims are growing then?

While answering this issue, we should not forget that the same enhanced technology has revolutionised not only the way in which ships are designed and built, but, first of all, changed the way of their exploitation. We are facing growing number of bigger ships, more sophisticated and saturated with IT, faster, more expensive and also carrying more precious cargo under command of multinational crew, flying very often “flags of convenience” – focusing on maximizing of shipowners’ profits/yields. It is associated with growing sensitivity towards environment and escalating the costs of salvage and wreck removal. No wonder that the cost of all sizes of claims becomes more expensive. According to the CEFOR [36] (the Scandinavia’s marine insurance association), the average hull-claim cost raised by 86% to $386,000 in 2007, compared with an average of $210,000 for the period of 1995 – 2003, with the cost of grounding from 2000 increased up 148% and collisions by 128%. The two last
categories of marine accidents together with contacts with fix and floating objects (FFO) accounted for 60% of the most costly incidents, which according to DNV (the Classification Society) have also doubled in number in 2003-2007. Given the continued growth of the world fleet and a shortage of experienced officers those days, the surging trend of marine claims was inevitable in the shipping boom [35].

Growing global trade and demand for transport combined with an unprecedented increase in shipping freight market, fuelled the increase of size of the world fleet, but the sudden outbreak of financial crisis has hampered further growth, leading again to the unprecedented downturn in global shipping industry. Considering the possible impact of the recession on the marine claims trend, many ask the question: Do the marine insurers have any prospects to improve their results?

It is not so obvious and even opinions among experienced observers are divided. Some of them indicate that slowdown and scrapping of old tonnage will at least reduce problem with insufficient crew, whereas others express concern over so called “postponed repairs”, where hidden “latent defects” being frequently discovered only under dry docking surveys and repairs. In addition, the unknown repercussions of going into long-term lay-ups for electronically equipped vessels are the concern not only for the insurers but also for the Classification Societies [39]. Moreover, in tough times the risk of fraud is generally growing along all the lines of insurance and marine insurance is no exception.

It is noteworthy that not only the economical and technological reasons affect the increase of marine claims, but there are also political risks like piracy and terrorism, which have been a true concern for shipping and insurance industry.

The issue of piracy is one of the favourite topics of the mass media. In particular after the spectacular seizure of the chemical tanker the Sirius Star (nota bene built in Szczecin Shipyard in November, 2008). Undoubtedly, the threat posed by piracy cannot be disregarded in view of the latest statistics gathered by the Insurance Day. “There have been more than 200 reported acts of marine piracy in the Gulf of Aden and off the coast of Somalia over the past year” [32] and 102 pirate attacks in Q1 in the same area. The upsurge is huge in comparison with only 53 attacks registered last year at the same time. What is extremely alarming is the impertinence of pirates. They are attacking up to 700 miles offshore, equipped with the hi-tech means of transport, communication and heavy weapon, demanding the growing amounts of ransom. Since the piracy has become a hot issue, the debate was fuelled among underwriters and P&I Clubs as to the scope of cover. Some of the underwriters still keep the piracy in
the hull policy; others excluded it and passed to the war policy. It is crucial to elaborate on this issue further, as the indemnity payments highly depend on the definition of the risk contained in the insurance policy. In accordance to the Oxford’s Law Dictionary, the piracy is “any illegal act of violence, detention or robbery committed on a private ship for personal gain or revenge, against another ship, people or property on the high seas. It also includes operating a pirate ship and inciting or assisting any other act of piracy. However, acts committed for political purposes are not piracy, nor are any acts committed by a warship or government ship.” The motive behind the attacks is what counts.

As no one is happy to pay million dollars ransom, there is an ongoing hot discussion whether it is piracy, terrorism or war risks, once again confirming the rule the devil is in details. For example, for the P&I Clubs, war exclusion inserted in P&I Rules may be sufficient to reject any claims arising out of incidents, where weapons of war are used. The clarity of insurance cover is of utmost importance for the ship operator, who is the first to be jeopardized to the piracy attacks, and in order to save his time, money and huge doze of stress, the new solution appeared in the London insurance market. There is one more example that necessity is the mother of invention and that the insurance market is pro-active and constantly developing to meet clients’ needs. The package “Vessel Shield” was designed and introduced by the SCR – the global market leader in kidnapping and ransom coverage, within the Faber & Duma’s group, which covers more than the pure necessity of paying ransom, but also includes ”a comprehensive package of services geared towards risk prevention and management in connection with acts of piracy” [22].

Although some disputes may appear between an insurer and an insured as to the meaning of definition, the final outcome may not always meet the clients expectations, mainly due to the fact that the wording of insurance clauses usually contains some constraints and exclusions of cover, the role of the insurer is undisputable in solving a problem and mitigation of losses where they appear. It is extremely rare or almost impossible to leave an insured without
assistance even in the case where at first glance it may seem that the cover should not be granted in this respect.

Most of the law systems do not compel a shipowner to insure his ship or his activity, with exception of some requirements relating to International Conventions such as the International Convention on Civil Liability for Oil Pollution Damage, 1992 (CLC) and the International Convention on Civil Liability for Bunker Oil Pollution Damage, 2001 (Bunker Convention), which impose a compulsory insurance [23]. In general, it is up to the ship operator to decide whether he is in need of insurance protection and assistance or rather prefers to stay “self-insured”. However, a decision to expose the property and third party liability (TPL) to risk without insurance may be a “short-sighted policy”. As far as a value of a ship is concerned, one may more or less assess her value, but with respect to TPL, even professionals are at a loss to anticipate a possible loss. It seems that the best way to be safe is to follow our ancient ancestors, who as early as 2,000 years ago commenced a process of sharing risks pertaining to marine adventures by application of the General Average practice [50]. Up till now, marine insurance is exceptional machinery that not only grants stability of international turnover but offers shipowners a uniquely wide scope of TPL Insurance through the P&I Clubs, on a mutual basis, what in the face of growing environmental awareness and more common strict liability regimes is a great benefit for shipping industry. The hull underwriters treat each client individually, they do not apply any stiff tariffs and fixed conditions, what is usually met in the property/casualty insurance, but prepare a “tailor made” cover, negotiating the best solution for the particular time and venue of vessels’ exploitation. Finally, the shipowners’ satisfaction is at the top of priority list what is common for all carriers in the insurance market. It would be ideal, if this satisfaction could be also shared by the insurers, who, at the end of the day, pay huge costs of marine claims, mainly as a consequence of human error, where lack of communication is one of the primary causes.
PART TWO

Human error and marine claims
Costly consequences of lack of communication

“Errare humanum est”, and dealing with human error is as old as human beings’ existence, and in marine insurance for at least two millennia. Given the uncertain behaviour of crews and masters from the very earliest time of shipping, special meaning was attached to the cover of “crew negligence”, which was explicitly listed in standard wordings of hull and machinery policies apart from perils of the seas, fire, seizures, restraints, jettison and baratery, and included into P&I Rules (covering any liability to a third party occurring during a sea voyage) comforting both the shipowners and the crew members. Keeping in mind all the marine casualty statistics identifying human error as the underlying cause of majority of marine claims, it is strange, why, in spite of the technological revolution, implementation of a great number of safety standards recommended by IMO with its flagship example of the ISM Code, the human error still leads to so many disasters?

In fact, “modern technology has revolutionised the way in which a ship is operated, but lack of the attention to the human-system interface, in terms of design, layout and integration of systems and training in their use, is the root cause of many accidents today” [2]. In other words many factors have an adverse impact on the growing frequency of marine claims. In the recent years, the booming economy accelerated entry of new buildings on unprecedented scale which were difficult to operate, firstly due to lack of qualified and experienced officers onboard of lean-manned vessels, secondly because of its highly sophisticated electronic systems, which instead of solving problems, made them more stressful and sensitive-to-failure and create a phenomenon of “over-reliance on electronic navigation”. If we add to it a heavy and condensed traffic and heavily crowded seaways in congested ports, plus enormous commercial pressure on financial performance, with the shipowners squeezing the crews due to the surging freight markets, with less and less comfortable accommodation on board by limiting the crews private space and recreational areas, a picture of very unfriendly human environment emerges.

It is not easy to stay day and night with the same few fellows for long months in a small crew cabin, susceptible to noise, vibration, badly ventilation and light, literally “packed like battery hens” and last but not least, without free time for relax in ports [38]. For sure, all of these may have a great influence on the seafarers’ mental and physical fatigue, increasing number of medical illnesses and violation of internal and international regulations, lack of proper communication and failure in respecting hierarchy on board [45].

It is undeniable that the lack of communication intensifies the risk area in the above exhausting and challenging environment, as there are multinational crews often with poor English language command, from different cultures and personal priorities. Undoubtedly, the language problems are critical in communication between vessels at sea and at ports facilities while berthing or bunkering operations. The great number of accidents happens as a consequence of compulsory pilotage, where poor communication between masters and pilots reaps a bitter harvest and because of cultural discrepancies as well as due to pride, which induces crew to carry out tasks single-handedly, which should be executed with assistance” [49].

Summing up, in order to better understand the contribution of human error in marine accidents, it is important to emphasize that while individual behaviour of a seaman is critical, the better recognition should be given to a potential impact of group and organisational factors on
a crew member committing an unintentional error. In fact, there is a mixture of factors, which all in all result in arising of marine claims associated with human error.

Fig. 5 illustrates the division into three main groups: individual, group and organisational factors.

Whereas most of the above-mentioned factors may be easily identified, the risk compensation is the one which is more specific and closely implicated by increasing automation and technological improvements. Simply, operators are more inclined to engage in unsafe practices due to a false sense of safety created by enhanced technology [5]. Similarly, relying on so popular GPS navigation while driving resulted in unexpected launching in nearby rivers or lakes.

The knowledge of complex human nature enables understanding of psychological aspects such as: over-confidence, unrealistic optimism, and tendency to ignore information that is inconsistent with personal beliefs, which permanently contribute to too many marine accidents.

Amid the organisational factors, some of them, like new regulatory requirements, could have an unintended impact on accident risk. The capsize of the car carrier *Cougar Ace*, while conducting a ballast water exchange in open seas (i.e. 200 miles offshore of The Aleutian Islands – as requested by the new regulations) was an illustration of same [5].

Considering the human-system interference, first of all, we should focus on a ship and her environment, i.e. circumstances surrounding the ship and interactions between the vessel and those offshore, on land and at sea, presented in the Fig. 6.

---

*Fig. 5.*

*Source*: Hand made on the basis of: Elise DeCola, Sierra Fletcher: “An assessment of the Role of Human Factors in Oil Spills from vessels” [http://www.pwsrcac.org/docs/d0028900.pdf](http://www.pwsrcac.org/docs/d0028900.pdf)
At every stage of these complex relationships, human error may occur resulting in serious casualties. According to the Norwegian Hull Club, more than 70% of their major losses would not have happened, if the human relation leadership and communication on the ship and ship-to-shore had been better [37].

It is important to know how to handle immediate consequences of any accident with vessel’s involvement and to know who, with high probability, will bear the cost and whom to notify first. For easy references, H means Hull Underwriter; P&I means TPL insurer, O means others.

Casualties on board:
- Machinery failure or damage to the hull (boiler bursting) (H).
- Fire (or combustion of cargo) (H+ P&I).
- Explosion (H).
- Heavy weather damage (H).
- Flooding (H).
- Break-up (H).
- Grounding (with salvage) (H+P&I).
- Sinking (H+P&I).
- Wreck removal (P&I).
- Injury or death of passengers, pilots or other persons on board (P&I).
- Crew accidents and illness (P&I).
- Piracy (H+P&I+O).
- Terrorism (H+P&I).
- War damage (H+O).
- Damage to cargo (P&I).

Casualties at sea and in port areas:
- Collision with other vessels (H+P&I).
- Collision with tugs during port towage (H+P&I).
- Contact with fixed or floating objects (H+P&I).
- Wash damage (P&I).
- Oil pollution (P&I).
- Injury or death of third parties on shore (P&I).
There is only exemplification of potential marine accidents and it is difficult to quote a complete list of various marine claims, but even these occurrences give an idea about complexity of marine claims and throw light on the issue of necessary communication between all parties involved.

The attention should be focused particularly on the most sensitive point where we have a stranger on board, i.e. a pilot, who in reality in many cases takes command of the vessel with easy permission of the Master. It is well recognised that in most ports the pilotage is compulsory and the Master has little or no choice and must welcome (admit) a pilot on board. Whereas in theory, the pilot’s role is nothing more than to assist the Master by providing unique knowledge and ensuring a safe passage of a ship via local waters. In practice, it is a pilot who runs a ship. If he fails by damaging the ship or anything else, the responsibility rests on the Master. In accordance with the STCW adopted in 1995, “the presence on board of a pilot does not relieve the Master from his duties and obligations for the safety of the ship”. Unfortunately for the marine underwriters, legislation in most countries limits the liability of pilots to certain and very often rather symbolic amounts and in fact limits even this small recovery to the cases with the pilot’s wilful act and gross negligence only [34]. Not many on board of sea-going vessels are aware of that fact, that at the end of the day it is a shipowner or his insurers who have to pay, even for the TPL claims arising out of pilot’s error while on board. Therefore, the utmost importance should be attached to the proper exchange of information between the Master and the pilot on navigational procedures, local conditions and the most important, ship’s characteristics. The Master’s role should be pro-active, not re-active, to increase efficiency on the bridge, as both parties usually act in stressful situations, under high time pressure. The only consolation for seafarers is that this specific liability assumed by towed vessel, similarly to towage contract liability under customary port towage (i.e. towage for the purpose of entering, leaving or manoeuvring within port) is fully covered by the standard P&I Rules [45]. Just to give you an idea how expensive it may be for the insurance industry, some sources rate that this cost of pilot’s error may generate even $500m per year.

It is unlikely that human error will ever be completely prevented but at least some lessons should be learned from the real-life events.

- **The Titanic** (1912) – a capsize of a legend vessel was the most spectacular example of human error. The vessel sank after collision with an iceberg in her maiden trip carrying 2,340 passengers and crew. “Despite all of its innovative technology the ship sank on a clear night (…) with the loss of more than 1,500 lives”. There was a spate of human errors on board of the vessel. Starting from the look-out, who had not use the binoculars and spotted an iceberg too late (500 yards instead of 1,000), and further with the wireless officer, disregarding warning messages and prioritising a dispatch of a private correspondence for the top passengers, finally with the Master, keeping the vessel at full speed instead of slowing down in view of ice field and the wrong last minute manoeuvre, which exposed the vessel to much bigger damages. However, the most critical one, resulting in so many casualties, was the inadequate number of lifeboats (16 instead of 32), as a result of managerial decision of the owner of the vessel, for whom papering of first class passengers was more important than safety of all people on board. In essence, the lesson learned out of this tragedy – “we should always expect the unexpected” (following the casualty, regulations were changed so there was a lifeboat seat for every passenger) [4].

- **The Torrey Canyon** (1967) – oil spill after grounding (the 1969 CLC and 1971 Fund Conventions were adopted).

- **The Tojo Maru** (1969) – the negligence of a diver rendering services on behalf of salvors resulted in explosion (following the loss, the right for limitation for salvers was granted in 1976, LLMC).
- The Amoco Cadiz (1978) – oil spill, shortly after grounding broke in two (the special compensation for the salvage operations with protection of the environment was implemented into the Salvage Convention, 1989 (SCOPIC)).
- The Exxon Valdez (1989) – improper navigation caused massive oil pollution. The captain, who fell asleep drunk and left an untrained officer at the steering wheel (the OPA’90 was passed by the U.S.) [19].
- The Scandinavian Star (1990) – fire, the Filipino crew could speak neither Norwegian nor English, was fresh on board and unfamiliar with the ship. They had never practiced a fire drill, and did not know how to respond to the fire. Many lives were lost.
- The Estonia (1994) – the bow doors had been left open after departure and water flooded the car decks (the new strict regulations for ferries were introduced).
- The Royal Majesty (1995) – grounding due to the over-reliance of the watch keeping officers on the automated features of the integrated bridge system [2].
- The Herald of Free Enterprise (1997) – alike the Estonia water flooded the car decks due to the bow doors left unclosed (the new regulations for ferries were introduced) [20].
- The Erika (1999) – oil spill, capsizel. The case illustrates negligence (following the disaster, the European Union passed the requirements of double-hulled tankers entering the waters of the EU by 2010).
- The Prestige (2002) – massive oil spill (the 2002 Fund was introduced) [27].
- The Tricolour (2002) was struck by ‘Kariba’ and sank as a result of the impact of the striking. The costs of the ship were: $40m, plus 3,000 luxury cars – $49m, and cost of salvage/wreck removal – $40m. The wreck has been twice hit before being completely removed in 9 sections by salvers. The series of navigational errors! [10].
- The American Cormorant (2004) – damage to the vessel $1,64m, the pilot’s error, who relied solely upon the buoy as a channel marker, neglecting other navigational equipment aboard and fixed objects ashore. The Master of the vessel was also to blame for failing to monitor pilot’s acts properly [11].
- The MSC Napoli (2006) – grounding with a partially broken back, due to a combination of human errors: an excessive speed in the heavy weather, lack of structural analysis and exploitation of the vessel close to or above permissible seagoing bending moment [12].
- The Ocean Victory (2006) – grounding broke in two, too late departing the berth for seeking of a shelter outside the port due to atrocious weather [13].
- The Hebei Spirit (2007) – major oil spill in South Korea, the safely moored tanker was struck by heavy crane barge Samsung-1. Cost of pollution exceeded $500m. Tackling the aftermaths of the spill was too slow and on inadequate scale to have reduced cost of spill [14].
- The Cosco Busan (2007) – struck the San Francisco Bay Bridge due to the pilot error, who failed to proceed at safe speed in the dense fog, failed to check the navigation equipment with the ship’s officers nor consulted the proposed course neither with the Master of the vessel [15]. Cost of oil pollution exceeded $60 million [16].

Much to our regret, there is a never-ending list of big casualties, as sea perils combined with human errors perennially bring us new marine accidents and casualties almost every day. Hopefully, coordinated efforts in rising awareness about the contribution of human factors and implementation of more strict safety regulation will be fruitful at least in preventing re-occurrence.
PART THREE

Mitigation of marine losses and preventing of recurrence – proper communication as a remedy

It is amazing: when the economy was booming, the alarm bells were ringing about escalation of claims; when we are facing the recession, they are similarly ringing, threatening acceleration of attrition and latent costs. One could note that notwithstanding the economic circumstances marine claims are to happen. While it is not possible to eliminate human error contribution once and for all, we should target to mitigate marine claims and learn from past mistakes focusing more intensively on prevention measures. Travestying the old saying “speech is silver, silence is gold but proper communication with your insurer is priceless”. There are at least several reasons why immediate notification of any accident to the insurer may be very helpful in tackling the aftermaths of marine casualties, in particular if they are more complex than the damage to the ship herself, comprising an alleged TPL loss such as: illness or loss of life of passengers/crewmembers, damage to other vessel, loss of or damage to cargo, oil pollution and injury or death of any person onboard (pilots, stevedores, cargo representatives, port authority officers etc).

For many, claims handling is a satisfactory and fulfilling job as each case is different and should be carefully considered in the light of specific circumstances surrounding the occurrence and in view of agreed “tailor made” insurance conditions.

Firstly, there is usually an experienced staff within the Claims Department and established network of co-operating surveyors, average agents or correspondents worldwide, who are ready to assist the shipowner and the vessel in distress 24 hours a day. Taking advantage of insurer’s hotline, an urgent advice may be received in the critical first few hours after the casualty. If there is a necessity of salvage operation, the salvage master (a person dedicated to support the Master and crew at distress) may join a vessel to coordinate any salvage action.

Secondly, bearing in mind the risk of claims of third parties involved in the casualty (TPL) and in the light of the recent tendency to rise the liability regimes and impose a more severe “strict liability regime” on the shipowner as well as increased environmental liabilities under the 1992’CLC and Fund Convention, bodily injury and property damage under the Athens Convention – an appointment of a reliable and reputable law firm may be critical to the outcome and potential cost of any court proceedings [17].

The legal assistance may be recommended in order to:
- Collect evidence on the spot/at the casualty.
- Obtain a legal advice of a choice of law governing the claims settlement.
- Exchange of securities/guarantees.
- Defend the crewmember facing criminal prosecution.
- Exercise the Limitation of Liability.
- Amicable (out of court) negotiation and settlement of claims.
- Presence and support in court proceedings.

Finally, the general advice is to “keep an ice in your stomach”, both at the critical time of the incident and shortly after it. It is not easy, as a great dose of stress, irritation and uncertainty is imposed on all parties involved. Barely anyone is thinking of the long-perspective financial consequences of the accident. However, an experienced claims handler, assisted by a clever lawyer can cut future costs and time-consuming proceedings at stake. All we need to tackle the problems is a full access to all the information available as soon as possible.
First of all, stay assured that you are most probably fully insured and trust your marine insurer and share your doubts. There is of utmost importance neither to assume any responsibility without prior thorough consultation with your insurer and/or his lawyer, nor to accept signing any agreements whatsoever without approval of your insurance company. If there is a huge pressure on it, any statements/claims letters may be signed with an obligatory remark — “for receipt only” or even better — “without prejudice to the liability”. This issue should be highlighted to the shipowners (and all policyholders), as many insurance policies include strict exclusions of Insurer’s/P&I Club’s liability in the case the insured assumed liability without prior written consent of the insurer/the P&I Club. There is the most painful example of lack of communication between an insurer and an insured. Hence, both parties should be deeply interested in staying in touch!

The next important thing is to ban entrance of the opposite side’s representatives on board of our vessel and deny any access to the crews’ evidence such as witness statements, vessel’s logbook, photos, diagrams, footage etc. The same practice should be adapted to any other persons including media representatives. How expensive can tackling of the aftermath of incident be, when it is placed in inconvenient jurisdiction, only insurers can tell you, as in most cases they are the last payers.

According to the UK P&I Club, third party liability (TPL) claims cost the shipping industry – ca. $2 billion annually.” Personal injury claims represent the 2nd most expensive class of claim and the crucial decision, whether any of these claims could be successfully defended lies in the quality of evidence collected by the vessel’s interest at the time of incident. Undoubtedly, the vessel’s crew statements and other evidence are of utmost importance in proving/disproving a case.” [21]. In particular, calling at the U.S. threatens with unanticipated losses, if we stick with the U.S jurisdiction, where:

+ indemnities are huge (in million dollars),
+ costs of court proceedings are on non-recovery basis,
+ risk of punitive damages is imminent (in billion dollars vide Exxon Valdez),
+ limitation of liability is more severe than in the EU and the right to limitation is at the discretion of the judge (OPA’90).

For better understanding of an idea of giving punitive damages some more explanation is needed. There are extra damages added to a jury verdict to punish especially egregious conduct by a civil defendant rather than to compensate the plaintiff for the harm done. They are permitted under the national laws of many countries; however, they are extremely high in the U.S. It seems that they are given to prove that “tort does not pay” [1]. Taking the above into account, there is one more argument for careful consideration of a choice of the laws and jurisdiction governing our dispute with claimants. Whatever we may think about the lawyers, it seems that in a serious case, there is no escape from their precious involvement.

It is not the U.S. jurisdiction only which may pose a risk of skyrocketing cost to be paid and demands to be met. The recent introduction of the Environmental Liability Directive (ELD) across the EU with its remediation element of the obligation of a wrongdoer to return a damaged area to its baseline state, may be very costly and far beyond the financial capabilities of many businesses, including the shipowners [30]. The Directive imposes strict liability on the operator (which includes shipowners) for costs of preventing and remedial actions for environmental damage arising from among others, transportation by inland waterways or by sea of dangerous or polluting goods. Although the ELD retained the right to limit shipowners’ liability in accordance with the Global Limitation Convention (LLMC, 1976 amended by the 1996 Protocol), there is a high risk that in Italy, Portugal and Slovakia, who are not party to
the said Convention, the costs for the actions taken pursuant to the ELD, are potentially subject to unlimited liability [44].

One can fully recognise the importance of the jurisdiction when the issue of recovery of costs is considered. It is not an isolated case when the costs of legal assistance and court proceedings are nearly as high as the claim itself or can even exceed in some complicated matters. There is a necessity to duly acknowledge this aspect while assessing the prospect of recovery or mitigation of losses.

In my long claims practice I have never met a lawyer, who had explicitly discouraged me from further proceedings, as always from one side or another they had been able to find some prospects of recovery (bright sides of life).

The current general rule that the loser pays the winner’s cost as well as his own is not followed in the U.S. In fact, even a completely innocent person can be faced with a huge bill for his/her defence, whereas in most European countries the winner will recover most of its costs. “Germany, for example has a system of fixed recoverable costs for cases of all values, depending on the stage reached in the litigation and a number of other variables. Likewise in Canada the successful party will expect to recover about 50% to 60% of the cost incurred.” [34].

Finally, in some countries lack of tradition and recognition of marine claims and treating marine matters in regular civil proceedings (no Maritime Courts or Admiralty Courts) may pose a great uncertainty as to the final outcome in non-complex matters. Despite an excellent lawyer’s service often rendered in these cases, the court’s decisions confirm the saying that “you never know what befalls you”. In one of the collision cases in France, the local court has applied the division of liability 80/20, but refused to accept the cost of repairs of our insured vessel (being blamed for the collision in majority) without giving any reasoning whatsoever. That is majesty of law (in the name of the law). The latest verdict of the French Court in the famous case of m/v Erika (1999) has again surprised all and arguably will be much more painful for all the losers, than anticipated. The fact that France was a signatory to the two international conventions at the material time: the CLC’92 and MARPOL, was ignored by the French court and all four main defendants (including the RINA – the classification society) “were found liable to pay €192 million (ca. $272) by way of civil compensation (considerably in excess of the shipowner’s limit of liability under the CLC’92 and of the IOPC Fund’s limit under the Fund Convention’92, the total of which (under both conventions) was at the time SDR135 million (ca. $204m)” [6].
There is one more reason why the traditional and reliable English Law and Jurisdiction is so widely applied and agreed even between non-English parties. And again communication with lawyers and the need to stay abreast of the changes in law requires fluency in English as the source of information is being mostly collected in English.

The right to limit liability is a unique tool, which enables a shipowner to escape from his liability to compensate the other side (third party) full extent of damages by seeking a decree of limitation. There is no uniform liability system throughout the world and variety of differing legal national systems may be applied to our case.

In general, there are two main systems in use: the value-based system (based on the post casualty value of the vessel [28] or on the sound value) and the tonnage system. The amount of fund may further differentiate depending on one of the three applicable regimes and limits of liability. Two of them were introduced to the International Convention on Limitation of Liability for Maritime Claims (London Conventions) 1957, 1976 and the third one as amended by the 1996 Protocol to the 1976 LLMC Convention. Apart from three different limits of liability, there is also a shift in burden of proof, as under the 1957 Convention it is up to the shipowner to prove that the loss or damage happened “without their actual fault or privity”, whereas the 1976 Convention reversed the burden of proof, which lies with the claimant [24].

Bearing in mind that the ratification of the London Convention, 1976, even being the most recognized liability convention adopted by 52 countries, is not yet widely performed, therefore, before the decision of a commencement of any legal proceedings is taken, a legal consultation with insurers’ lawyers seems to be indispensable, as the potential differences in liability regimes may count in million of dollars. The knowledge is the power, hence being familiar with the general concepts of liability regimes and attaching importance to international conventions seems to be in our best interest, saving the shipping industry millions of dollars. In the Fig. 7 emphasis is put on an application of three different regimes related to a historical tragedy of the Titanic in 1912 assuming that the heavy casualties would have happened these days.

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<td><strong>$91,805</strong></td>
<td>SDR 46,666 x 1,224= SDR 57,119,184= <strong>$89.1m</strong> but according to the LLMC the ultimate cap of SDR25m= <strong>$39m</strong></td>
<td>SDR175,000 x 2,500 = SDR 437,500,000 = <strong>$682.5m</strong></td>
<td>SDR400,000x2,500= SDR1,000,000,000= <strong>$1.56bn</strong></td>
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Fig. 7. Simulation of a Limitation Fund of the Titanic

*“If the carriers payments under the Athens convention threaten to exceed the limits contained in the 1976 LLMC, the carrier may limit liability to the 1976 Limitation Convention limits”, as it prevails in accordance with paragraph..... [9].

** The article 4 “…shall be an amount of 175,000 units multiplied by the number of passengers which the ship is authorized to carry according to the ship’s certificate…”.


The most reliable update about the process of ratification of particular conventions by state parties is available on the IMO website; therefore no additional statistics are included in this
presentation [26]. The limitation of liability is an extremely interesting and unique solution in the legal systems; however, the time limit does not permit further collaboration on that issue.

In essence, at this stage it is important to learn that such an institution still exists and guarantees many shipowners and their insurers to stay in business nearly unscathed despite causing terrifying damages, which could be easily insured in the world insurance market. However, general conviction that this right to limit liability granted solely to shipowners is an anachronism and unfair privilege for the exclusive group of people, supported by a principle rule that the person to blame must make the damage good, resulted in strong criticism of that institution worldwide [50].

Summing up, there is an obligation to stay in a day-to-day contact with your insurer, if you want to survive the detrimental effects of the casualty in much better conditions.

Finally, once a big casualty has occurred, there is one more party on the spot – the mass media. The proper communication with press and other information media is extremely crucial, as there is the reputation and good name of the company at risk, even the escalation of potential claims may happen with poor media performance. The professionals in the public relations area suggest that serious preparations should be taken far before anything might happen, and a designated person should co-ordinate external and internal communications. Remembering that the most critical is to address the human aspect of casualty, the spokesperson (ideally if it is the CEO of the company) should express his sympathy and true concern about the people involved into the casualty, both own personnel as well as potential claimants. Adhering to the recommended Golden Rules of communication with Media, there is a chance to avoid “negative impact” on the company.

<table>
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<th>GOLDEN RULES of communication with Media</th>
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<tr>
<td>– Always respond as fast as you can</td>
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<td>– Never say “no comment”</td>
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<td>– Always tell the truth</td>
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<td>– Never lose your temper</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Always return calls</td>
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<tr>
<td>– Never try to be funny” (tell a fairytale)</td>
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Source: Caroline Wagstaff [3].

Frankly speaking, the above rules one might as well apply to any other form of communication, including even the marine, port and custom authorities, insurers, etc., but please do keep in mind that the admission of liability without prior consultation and a written consent of insurer may bring about your ruin (leaving you without insurance cover), where it is literally stipulated by the insurance contract.

Detailed investigation is necessary not only to mitigate losses but also to learn lessons and prevent recurrence. There is also a saying that it is “better prevent than cure” and it does not relate to your health only but to the casualty of marine accidents as well. Many insurers and P&I Clubs fully acknowledged meaning of prevention and developed special prevention programs and projects with the intention to assist shipowners in identifying, minimising, and controlling of risks they encounter in their routine operations. The most important is data collection about marine accidents including near miss situations and the cause which led them to happen. It is obvious that you cannot control something when you do not know and quantify it
properly. Having recognised the root causes, the next step is to let the shipowners know about it and spread out this knowledge to all seafarers preventing them from recurring.

In summary, the implementation of the prevention measures should effectively target the human factors alike on individual as well as on group and organisational levels. It cannot be successfully performed without:

- better data collection of marine accidents associated with human error and wide exchange of information (so far, even if they are collected, they are kept confidentially) in order to have lessons learned from the past and to anticipate losses before they occur;
- focusing on crew endurance management (reducing fatigue and advocating changes in watch schedules, adjustment of unrealistic demands of performance);
- adaptation of vessels to be more human-friendly both in the meaning of their accommodation and atmosphere on board (English communication, respect for different cultures and human and time constraints);
- promotion and application of best industry practices and safety culture including highlighting the risk-adverse performance (constant education and training [33], testing, monitoring) as well as application of award system for adhering to safety procedures;
- implementation of new regulations supporting the above efforts on universal, global level across the maritime industry [5].

The insurers and P&I Clubs, while implementing the prevention measures used to apply differentiated forms of approach – starting with publications, circulars, seminars and even using the newest technologies – recording DVDs highlighting the hot issues in a form interesting not only for mariners. Several of such DVDs were produced by The Steamship Mutual, the P&I Club, with whom the Insurance and Reinsurance Company “Warta” SA has been cooperating for many years. All the prevention series of these films are dedicated to be widely used onboard of the vessels insured by the Club. I believe that my compilation of different scenes taken out from the complete films will be the best summary of all important issues which, due to time limit and attention constraints, I could barely touch during this presentation.


I hope that at least few of my remarks will be remembered and will inspire you to search for better details on your own, in order to pass them further to the seafarers-to-be. As I have already mentioned, the best prevention is the proper education and rising of awareness of risks and potential consequences of human error resulting mainly due to lack of proper communication. Thanks to your hard continuous educating not only in excellence and fluency in English, but in all other aspects of effective communication on board, our future prosperity
(as you may remember with lower claim ratios) rests in your hands and in the name of all marine insurers – thank you in advance for all your efforts. Also, I would like to express my appreciation to Chris Adams – Director of the Steamship Mutual for his valuable support making this presentation more vivid thanks to the DVDs and pictures of casualties, which I had an opportunity to show you.

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Curriculum Vitae

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Abstract

Research has shown that the weakest link in Maritime Education and Training (MET) is the identification of the communication problems due to lack of standards for Maritime English. Communication failures have caused many accidents and incidents in the past. There have been many attempts to reduce communication failures and improve both the content and delivery of Maritime English. A recent EU Leonardo Project MarEng was considered a great success in enhancing the current efforts in improving content and delivery of English Courses by MET providers. However, there are no international or European standards yet for the evaluation, assessment and testing in Maritime English to measure students’ competence and performance in this very important subject.

To address this deficiency, MarEdu (TUDEV–CFF Partnership) with support from several EU member states as well as Norway instigated a major Leonardo Project known as MarTEL (Maritime Test of English Language) in 2007. The first phase of the project is near completion and final report to EU is expected in October 2009. MarTEL is expected to be a unique solution to improve the Maritime English competency of seafarers. MarTEL solution contains a series of study units supplemented by a set of tests in Maritime English. Pilot studies on MarTEL have shown to motivate cadets to learn English as MarTEL study units encourage learning English in the context of the maritime profession. This new and standardized method of delivery and assessment of Maritime English competency is expected to reduce the extremely high percentage number of accidents and incidents at sea and at ports, and save many lives.

Last year TUDEV became advisory partner of the new Leonardo Project MarEng Plus which aims to improve the usability and to widen the user group of the web-based Maritime English Learning Tool MarEng. This has provided a great opportunity for MarTEL and MarEng Plus to establish close coordination and cooperation. During the last partner meeting of MarEng Plus in May 2009, partners agreed to consider closer cooperation between two projects for joint valorization and dissemination. Considering the number of partners in both projects (32 in total), this will be a historical event if the two project groups come together. This paper intends to inform participants about MarTEL and possible cooperation with MarEng Plus. IMEC will be an excellent platform to discuss outcomes and to invite other interested groups to join these exciting and worthwhile projects.

Keywords: Maritime English, testing, study units, EU Leonardo Programme

1. Introduction

Shipping is perhaps the most international of the entire world’s great industries and some of the most dangerous. Safety of life at sea, the marine environment and over 80% of the world’s trade depend on the professionalism and competence of seafarers. It has been reported that over 80% of accidents and incidents are due to human error. One of main causes of accidents and incidents are due to poor standards of Maritime English. The language of the sea is
Maritime English and many ships and, to a lesser extent, ports are manned by multinational crews. Hence, good communication in Maritime English is essential for creation and maintenance of effective working environments and safety of the crew, and generally safety at sea and at ports. There are many reports and papers (MCA–MSC 82/15/02 and MSC 82/15/03, Ziarati, 2006) identifying poor communication as one of the most significant factors in accidents at sea and at ports. There were several attempts to overcome this important issue; however EU wide standards to be employed by all MET institutions are still need to be developed.

The importance of skills in English Language competency was highlighted at the recent IMO Maritime Safety Committee (IMO MSC 82, 2006). Papers presented by the Turkish and UK delegates clearly stated that language competency is a problem. The papers led to discussions at the Human Element Working Group (HEWG), where it was reported that many seafarers have problems with expressing themselves in English and with using maritime terminologies. It was agreed that STCW Convention had to be revised in this respect and IMO’s Maritime English course model’s (based on SMCP) minimum requirements are no longer acceptable. The inadequacy of Maritime English standards has been a major contributory factor in causes of accidents, some involving loss of life, large numbers of injuries and extensive financial loss (Deniz Ticareti, 2006; MAIB, 2006).

The MarTEL project is in line with Loginovsky (2002), which reports on the significance of English as the working language of the international shipping industry and that the overall performance and safety of the international fleet depends on the skill to apply it correctly. He states that the ability of a non-native speaker to have a good command in Maritime English is very much influenced by the ability to think in it in the framework of the maritime profession. He concludes that to make the teaching and learning processes more effective, it is required to power up the thought activity of a seafarer using English. This project has taken note of the recent papers at the IMO MSC event (2006) and recommendations of several international papers (Ziarati, 2006; Loginovsky, 2002) concerning lack of standards or an appropriate underpinning knowledge and skill for Maritime English.

Considering the severe shortages of personnel with seagoing experience (Ziarati, 2003; Pourzanjani et al., 2002, Schroder et al., 2004), which is expected to get worse shortly (IER, 2005 report sponsored by ISF and BIMCO), the need for the better qualified seafarers with enhanced English language communication skills is expected in the near future to become the most important human element issue for shipping companies, which are desperately seeking seafarers to run their vessels safely and efficiently.

2. The birth of MarTEL

A transnational project team composed of some eight European countries, funded through the EU Leonardo programme, was established to identify the need for such standards. The work of the transnational team leads to the development of a proposal known as MarTEL (Maritime Test of English Language). The project was submitted to the National Agency responsible for coordinating the work of Leonardo programme in the UK. The project was subsequently approved with a budget of 400 000 EUR to conclude the work of the MarTEL project team.

MarTEL aims to address major problems relating to competency in Maritime English for the well-being of seafarers and those working in the shipping and maritime industries including ports. The problem is addressed at its very roots, that is, helping to improve the language competency of those wishing to embark on a career in the Merchant Navy as rating and offi-
cers in partner countries at three key stages: 17/18, 21/22 and 23+ years old, through an inte-
gerated and interrelated standardised assessment system catering for all classes of seafarers as outlined in the project summary. The project is concerned with the establishment of standards of Maritime English for all classes of seafarers and for those working at ports. The standards are expected to be recognised by international professional bodies and the licensing authorities. To ensure these developments are implemented effectively, it has been suggested:

- to develop supporting training programmes for the intended standards by formation of pilot groups initially in one of the partner countries and then re-run them and/or validate them in other partner countries;
- to establish a network of transnational partners to support the development of the project, to surpass excel the minimum of standard of Maritime English set by IMO;
- to design a programme for the trainers and assessors development and their certification, for application of the intended standards and subsequent tests, as well as for the internal assessment and verification process, in line with European vocational qualifications for Assessors and Verifiers;
- to facilitate secondment of trainers and assessors to partners’ establishments on short assignments in order to familiarise the trainers and assessors with the necessary skills and good practice;
- to form a committee to monitor the progress and make the necessary changes when required, applying a quality manual instigated in the course of developing this project, and to develop bridges for maritime personnel through these standards so that they can take advantage of other programmes, some leading to higher vocational qualifications.

All tests for officer and senior officer levels will have weight on different skills. The officers are expected to reach certain levels of proficiency and competency at given ranks/duties by their companies or potential employers.

### 3. Transfer of innovation

The current practice in many non-English speaking European member countries as well as countries outside Europe is that institutions involved with education of seafarers provide either short course programmes in English for industry or develop six months to one year English preparation programmes for cadet officers prior to commencement of the main education programme. Every year thousands of cadet officers come to the UK through various schemes and pathways, and they enrol on various merchant navy education and training programmes for different classes of seafarers. For instance, in some colleges these cadets are sent on 6-months general English courses prior to the admission onto merchant navy programmes. In Turkey, for example, generally all officer cadets undergo one year of English preparation. Review of the arrangements for other European countries for training of English seafarers clearly indicates that there are no standards of competence and the actual period of education and training in English language is also different in various countries for given classes of seafarers. These programmes are often not related to the vocation of seafaring, irrespective of type or level, particularly those concerning cadet officers, and are grammar-based (TOEFL, IALTS, etc) MarTEL will establish given standards for all classes of seafarers. The partners in this consortium would wish the contracting organisation to take a lead in realisation of the project aims. The UK partners and the silent partners (see www.mardeu.co.uk) would also benefit immensely by standardising the English tests for each and every class of seafarers so that thousands of overseas students coming to the UK (who, incidentally, in the majority of cases
will eventually work for European-based shipping companies) would achieve a common stand-

dard in English competency prior to commencing their main programme of study and train-
ing.

The establishment of standards is expected to help partners to set up test centres offering
a valuable and profitable operation at their own institution benefiting professionally and
financially from such an undertaking. One innovative aspect of the suggested project is that
two standards will be offered at elementary and intermediate levels which could be used for
industrial updating of present seafarers employed in ship operation companies at the

elementary and intermediate levels.

One other innovative feature is that the standards are intended to be skill-based, and each
standard will be provided with a sample unit of study. The unit of study is an attempt to
provide the necessary learning and training support for candidates aiming for a particular
merchant navy qualification, and hence, a given standard of Maritime English.

4. Benefactors

4.1. Target Group

MarTEL is a maritime language competency assessment programme for the language
certification of main target groups outlined in the project summary.

The language preparation programmes in EU member states for education and training of
seafarers is not standardised, neither in terms of level nor duration of study. For cadet officers,
the duration of the initial English preparation programme could range from one to three years,
and the examination standards are often set at a local level. Some institutions use standards
such as TOEFL and IALTS, which are not designed for students following a vocational
programme. There are many cases where IMO requirements are integrated within a degree
programme at a university. Again, in many cases, the examination is not based on European
or international standards, and if standards are applied, these are of the type mentioned earlier.
In all cases reviewed, the English programmes are the same for all classes of seafarers. Hence,
the existing arrangements do not differentiate between the language skills requirements of
different classes of seafarers. Furthermore, the level of competency varies significantly across
institutions in a given country, and this is even more inconsistent across the EU. In the
majority of cases, English preparation programmes are grammar-based in order to satisfy the
need of standards such as TOEFL and IALTS. A distinction has been made between the
English requirements, say for a deck officer of watch and the one for an engineering officer of
watch. The intended standards are also underpinned by a sample unit of study to encourage
vocational reference and ensure that the programmes supporting these standards focus on
skills as well as grammar. The unit of study for each class of seafarers would also set the
scene for maintenance of standards in the future and act as a guideline for development of
training/learning/testing material.

In non-English speaking countries, many seafarers, especially below officer levels, have
serious problems with English language. To this end, two of the foundation standards
(elementary and intermediate) can be used to target this particular group. The standards are
being designed so that industry could use them to assess the competence of their employees at
particular standards suggested.
4.2. Potential users

Potential users will be lower and upper secondary school leavers, ‘lycee/lise’ cadets, young unemployed and all those employed in the water transportation industries (all ratings, officers and above, deck as well as engineering) as well as all education and training centres concerned with the formation of Merchant Navy personnel.

There is no standardised Maritime English testing system in Europe. The level of English competence among merchant navy officers is inconsistent. The experience of running merchant navy officer programmes by the partners has indicated major language deficiencies and inconsistency. This has been acknowledged by many EU member state delegations to IMO. Poor comprehension has been a major cause of accidents and incidents at sea and ports as reported in several European accident analysis reports (Deniz Ticareti, 2005) and IMO’s accident analysis reports.

As mentioned earlier, one of the main reasons for the intended standards is that shipping companies and organisations could use them to assess the competence of their employees at a particular standard suggested. To this end, all personnel working in the maritime industry could benefit from these standards as specific tests for specific vocational requirements for different ranks of seafarers.

Every year thousands of cadets enrol on various education and training programmes to follow a career in merchant navy. The largest user group are the cadet officers studying/training becoming an officer of watch either as a Deck officer or An Engineer. The advanced foundation tests could be used to standardise the level of competency for both engineering and deck cadet officers before enrolling on their main programme. The tests are designed to ensure that, if successful, the cadets have reached the required level of competency for progression onto the main programme of study. Later in their career, they can take advantage of the tests designed for senior officer for progression to higher ranks, working at sea or at ports.

4.3. Pilot tests and teaching material

Up to now, teaching material and tests for all three levels have been completed. In the preparation of teaching material BTEC standard format was used to comply with other teaching units for the inclusion in the approved BTEC/EDEXCEL Programmes. Summary of each phase is as follows:

**Phase I**: To create a test that assesses the English Language Proficiency level of a candidate cadet who wishes to enter a Maritime Academy or a Training Center, which aims to educate its cadets with well established English language skills and comprehensive Maritime English.

**Bases for the phase I** are: TOEFL Structure, Authentic Material, Maritime Vocabulary, Scientific Terminology and Real World Requirements.

**The Formation of Phase I Test (Upper Intermediate)**:
- **structure**: 25 questions, all with multiple choice answers, 25 minutes duration, 20% assessment weight ratio.
- **reading**: 3 written paragraphs followed by 5 questions each, all with multiple choice answers, 20 minutes duration, 20% assessment weight ratio.
- **listening**: 2 voice-recorded conversations followed by 4 questions each, 2 voice-recorded passages followed by 5 questions each, all with multiple choice answers, 30 minutes duration, and 25% assessment weight ratio.
– speaking: 2 written questions followed by spoken answers, 2 written passages with voice-recorded conversations and each followed by 1 or 2 spoken answers, 1 voice-recorded passage followed by a spoken answer, 20 minutes duration, 20% assessment weight ratio.
– writing: 2 written passages followed by 1 written question each, written down answers, 40 minutes duration, and 15% weight ratio.

**Phase II /III:** SMCP Proficiency: Standard Communication Rules Test in one part, 15 questions, 20 minutes duration, 25% of the full score.
- Reading Skill: Written reports/messages/passages in 2 parts, a total of 14 questions, 35 minutes duration, 15% of the full score.
- Listening Skill: Recorded situations and questions, 15 questions, 25 minutes, 25% of the total score.
- Speaking Skill: Recorded questions/situations given and an oral response for each is expected, 15 questions, 25 minutes, 25% of the total score.
- Writing Skill: Written situations given in two parts and the test taker is expected to construct a written report/letter/message on a given situation, 40 minutes duration, 10% of the full score.

**Study guidelines**
Part I, The Introduction: Gives the rationale for the test and describes the approach of the test. States basics for the Study Units.
Part II, The Language Skills: Examines the needs for each skill in the light of the test. Describes “LFA” approach for preparing the Study Units.
Part III, The Curriculum: Lists topics and sub-topics of Maritime English curriculum applied in TUDEV and their relation to the language skills.

5. **E-Learning and assessment**

The experience of various partners in maritime education and training, most of them in English, has provided an added value to the existing efforts in partner countries. The fact that the standards and the study units underpinning them can also be used as means of self-learning and self-assessment which would provide an added value to widen the demand for the standard in the intended target groups. The partnership intends to seriously support the development of e-learning and e-assessment, which have been assigned to two leading partners involved in such developments. This is expected to increase the existing interest in the project and its dissemination. The partnership is convinced that the intended plans to link the e-platforms (or one single integrated one) to the website and Internet portals holding the test materials and providing the connection to other databases would substantially enhance the possibility of wider audience within the stated target groups. This project would not have been possible without the support from the Leonardo programme. This programme has motivated the partners to come together in a worthy cause and innovatively transfer the existing knowledge and know-how, being developed simultaneously with recent and current Leonardo projects (SOS, 2005-07 and E-GMDSS, 2006-08).

6. **Co-operation with MarEng and MarEng Plus Projects**

The web-based Maritime English Learning Tool MarEng was finished in the spring 2007 as a result of a transnational Leonardo da Vinci project MarEng with the aim of promoting the
Maritime English language competences of those working in the various maritime professions in Europe.

MarEng brings together sixteen partners from six EU Member States: Belgium, Finland, Latvia, Poland, Spain and the United Kingdom. The partner group consists of a wide variety of maritime institutions, and involved in the project are education and maritime experts such as English teachers, researchers, training managers, seafaring professionals and representatives of the maritime industries.

Encouraged by the huge feedback and enormous interest generated by the MarEng Learning Tool, the project partners were eager to improve and add new features to the tool and thus decided to embark upon the MarEng Plus Project involving the creation of a new elementary level in addition to the previous intermediate and advanced levels, the addition of two new topics, the creation of a teacher’s manual and the transfer of the MarEng Glossary of maritime terms into a mobile phone environment.

The existing MarEng Learning Tool consists of intermediate and advanced level learning material on different maritime topics. The material is based on an idea of a virtual vessel that during its journey encounters different language usage situations in port and on board.

The aim of creating new material into the MarEng Learning Tool is to widen the user base of the Tool. As a result of the MarEng Plus project, two new topics, as well as elementary level learning material and a Teacher’s manual, will be added to the Tool.

Based on the feedback received, the tool is missing some relevant content. All over the world more attention is given to issues related to security and the environment, and the same goes with maritime sector. Therefore, the new MarEng Plus project will work to create new material under the themes of transport security and the environment.

The feedback has also revealed that the lower level English learners are in the need of a (beginner) elementary level as the MarEng Learning Tool currently consists of only intermediate and advanced levels. Teachers using the MarEng Tool see that their teaching process could be made more efficient by creating a teacher’s manual. Therefore, creating an elementary level and a teacher’s manual will be a part of the project.

As the maritime workers are very mobile, it is also appropriate to find solutions to transfer the MarEng Learning Tool into the mobile learning environment. Therefore, the project will transfer the MarEng maritime glossary into a form that can be utilised in a mobile phone even if the phone is out of network connection. All the project activities will be performed by a partner group that represents several European Union countries some of the partners being the same as in the previous MarEng project. Partners’ wide background in shipping industry and Maritime English teaching gives a strong basis for the project success.

In 2008, TUDEV became advisory partner of Leonardo Project MarEng Plus. This has provided a great opportunity for MarTEL and MarEng Plus to establish close coordination and cooperation. During the last partner meeting of MarEng Plus in May 2009, the partners agreed to consider a closer co-operation between the two projects for joint valorization and dissemination. Considering the number of partners in both projects (32 in total), this will be a historical event if the two project groups come together.

Both projects foresee a strong and wide impact by disseminating the outcomes all over the world to all different kinds of users. As a result of the projects, the material will be transferred to new user groups and geographical areas. The new material will not only widen the overall user group but also motivate lower level learners to learn Maritime English.
In addition, the increasing co-operation between the EU and its surrounding areas will create the need for the improved knowledge of English among the countries of different linguistic backgrounds.

7. Conclusions

The notion of having standards in English language is not new, however establishing standards for Maritime English should be considered innovative. Developing standards for each class of seafarers and targeting skills/competencies needed for each class underpinned by a unit of study, which could be used as a guideline and a benchmark for improving existing English preparation programmes or developing new ones. All current partners have been involved in the development of preparatory English programmes for cadet officers and some have been involved in general English programmes for undergraduates as well as postgraduate students, and three have been developing and running short Maritime English Programmes for industry. Several silent partners either are an awarding body or they are associated with an awarding body accrediting existing conventional English preparatory programme, ranging from 3 to 6 months of study. Some have been offering short English programmes for industrial updating and for remedial purposes.

The rapid prototyping method for development of standards should also be considered innovative. The content of tests is relying on existing material as well as material on general English language training for standards such as TOEFL and IALTS, although the theoretical aspects of these tests will be replaced by vocational and skill-based content. IMO also has extensive range of material on Maritime English (SMCP), which is being incorporated in the underpinning study unit for the intermediate standard. The standards and the associated study units would not only be useful to partners, but also to the contracting organisation, which is one of the leaders in the maritime education partnership MarEdu (www.mardedu.co.uk). The MarEdu partnership began as a result of the Leonardo project (SOS, 2005-07), involving three of the partners in the existing consortium. The partnership is composed of the leading nautical colleges in several European countries. The MarEdu membership is supportive of the proposed projects and intends to promote the MarTEL standards.

There is a definite need for these standards and there is a huge market for them. The establishment of test centres and the provision of testing services are expected to lead to saving lives, reducing injuries and minimising financial losses.

An invitation

The intention of standardising and harmonising the process of testing for Maritime English language competency cannot happen without active support from representatives of maritime education and training providers and the wider maritime community.

Piri Reis University would wish to invite all academics and industrialists participating in this conference to join the project team and help to respond to the identified and the compelling need to promote a high level of working Maritime English language skills throughout the EU’s shipping industry.

References

Curriculum Vitae

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MANAGING CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Abstract

Managing cultural diversity can no longer be thought of as an organizational issue alone, but also an industrial responsibility. One issue under this is shipboard habitability standards, which have been found to influence the crew’s sense of well-being.

There is a potential cultural diversity to improve some aspects of social habitability standards on board. However, the rich cultural mix on board probably provides a more relaxing environment than a run ashore. By encouraging social mixing, there is always something new to learn, something to keep one’s mind occupied. The maritime industry is now faced with a multicultural workforce, which requires organizations to provide an environment that enables the crew to operate comfortably within it. This requires providing diversity training for seafarers so that they can do away with the subtle assumptions that differences equate to deficiencies, an assumption that has been the root cause of much of the racial tension on mixed manned ships.

At the same time, the increase in cross-border human traffic has meant that companies are no longer dealing with a homogenous native community, from which they recruit their staff. Companies are now facing cross-cultural challenges in how they recruit, manage and develop a multicultural staff.

New and different situations ask for new skills and competences from seafarers where culture is recognized as having impact on communication and safety on board. Intercultural competence, especially between European and non-European nationalities, intercultural awareness of differences, stereotyping, prejudice, and behavior are the objectives in our presentation. We shall also present the importance of cross-cultural communication skills.

Keywords: cultural diversity, cross-cultural communication skills, intercultural awareness, and intercultural competence, mixed manned ships.

“...the single greatest barrier to business success is the one erected by culture.”
Edward T. Hall and Mildred Reed Hall

1. Introduction

A multi-ethnic crew is an interesting challenge. More than once, cooperation has been an IMO annual theme and that applies also to managing mixed crews. It is also the topic of IMEC 21 Conference in Poland: “Maritime English: Improving Communication and Cultural Awareness”. In fact, recruitment practices, as carried out at some places today, could be a serious threat to both the ISM Code and the Revised STCW 78 (STCW 95), where it is understood that crews must be committed (loyal, devoted, dedicated) and able to communicate effectively free from prejudice (discrimination, chauvinism, intolerance etc.). With increasing workforce mobility, this issue has become a particular challenge for shipowners within the European Union.

Encounters between people of different cultural background have always existed, and people were always thinking about phenomena that were unusual in other cultures. However, those encounters were relatively seldom in early times. Today, they are almost part of everyday life: the facilitated communication and movement of people have made it possible. At the same time, the
facilitated interchange between cultures has jeopardized their very existence, and facilitated the emergence of a cosmopolitan culture, a phenomenon often referred to as globalization.

Many owners worldwide use mixed crews. Again, a multifaced crew is in itself nothing new. In old days, there were a lot of people onboard and we had time to check each other to ensure there were no misunderstandings and mistakes – sometimes a consequence of bad communication. There are not many comments on mixed crews from those days. An interesting exception is the research of Dr. David Moreby (1990), for instance “Communication problems inherent in a cross-cultural manning environment”.

A well-trained safety-communicating crew has become a prerequisite and a mandatory requirement in today’s global shipping fleet. To assure this, several P&I Clubs conduct human factor training programs. The insurance companies take a proactive interest in preventing accidents; owners should be equally proactive. We should all take an interest because “Skills and motivation do not have anything to do with nationality” (Hooper, 2004a, p. 37).

A wide range of activities is assisting when things go wrong. Shortcomings in procedures, practices, equipment and erroneous acts are contributory causes for things that can go wrong (Hooper, 2004b). Other causes are a lack of communication and stereotyping that could trigger an accident or an incident before, sometimes long before, it actually happens. A serious problem is stereotyping and judging people with the same measurement. When we judge others that we do not know, we interpret the meaning of the reason for the behavior of someone from another culture, usually with emotion. The problem appears when we do not know values, perspectives and approaches used by the other culture.

Today, many accidents are explained by human factors (about 70%) often sub-headed by clarifications like fatigue and ergonomics. There might be an equally important reason for human factors and these are multicultural misconceptions, power distance (a subaltern’s respect to superiors), stereotyping and substandard communication. Specific conditions can be symbolic of larger problems.

Instruction and practice of Maritime English for communication and cooperation is an important element in maritime education. A multitude of new methodologies have been explored and discussed in recent years in an attempt to approach the training and testing the proficiency of Maritime English that meets the international standards laid out in STCW. Maritime English education and technological development has been acknowledged to be an interaction relation, and these are the two main factors upon which the trainee bases. We are teaching English or studying the teaching of English, but why do we want to teach English, as opposed to other foreign languages? It is useful for us to consider this basic question occasionally and to analyze this topic.

2. Communicating internationally

With more and more companies globalizing, employees in various international locations now have day-to-day communications with each other. Given different cultural contexts, this brings new communication challenges to the workplace.

Even when these employees speak the same language (for instance, correspondences between English speakers in the UK and English speakers in the US), there are some cultural differences that should be considered in an effort to optimize communications between the two parties. In such cases, effective communication strategy begins with the understanding that the sender and the receiver of the message are from different cultures and backgrounds. Of course, this introduces a certain amount of uncertainty, making communications even more complex.

Without getting into cultures and sub-cultures, it is perhaps most important to realize that a basic understanding of cultural diversity is the key to effective cross-cultural communications. Without intently studying individual cultures and languages, we must all learn how to better communicate with individuals and groups, whose first language, or language of choice, does not match our own.
While many companies now offer training in different cultures where the company conducts business, it is important that employees, being thrust into communicating across cultures, practice patience and work on their own to increase their knowledge and understanding of a different culture. This requires the ability to see that a person’s own behaviors and reactions are often culturally driven.

2.1. Communications skills – the importance of removing barriers

Communication barriers can pop-up at every stage of the communication process (which consists of sender, message, channel, receiver, feedback and context – see the diagram below) and have the potential to create misunderstanding and confusion.

![Standard Communication model](image)

Fig. 1. Standard Communication model

To be an effective communicator and to get your point across without misunderstanding and confusion, your goal should be to lessen the frequency of these barriers at each stage of this process with clear, concise, accurate, well-planned communications.

The advent of the global economy is changing the fundamental nature of our governments, businesses, organizations and populations. In short, we are no longer constrained by state boundaries but have all become part of an interdependent international network. One of the key changes triggered by this is the need to communicate effectively with different people from different cultures in different languages. It is now recognized that linguistic and cultural knowledge are two of the most vital areas of knowledge that organizations must come to acquire if they are to integrate, progress and succeed in the marketplace. Cross-cultural communication is a must!

It is sometimes the simple mistakes we make, like showing the soles of our shoes or giving thumbs up, when dealing with different cultures that can ruin a relationship or months of hard work. Learning the simple cultural dos and don’ts can avoid this and help generate respect and understanding.

3. Communication and the English language

A symbolical-abstract language is the dominant sign of any culture. The language of any group is directly connected to the world-view of the group. Humboldt wrote regarding language: The difference in languages is not a difference in sounds and signs, but a difference in world-view. The best well known theory stemming from this is the Sapir-Whorf theory: “The real world is to a large extent unconsciously built on the language habits of the group. No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The worlds in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached” (in Victor, David A., 1992).

The interchange of language and the frame of reference is also remarkable. Maletzke (1996) distinguished that the German word ‘Blatt’ can have different meanings in botany (a leaf), for
a piano player (the score), graphic designer (the sheet of paper) or players of card games (the set of cards). Equally, subcultures can have their own distinctive words or meanings of words.

Since the 1960s, English has become the normal medium of instruction in higher education for many countries – and is increasingly used in several countries, where the language has no official status.

The English language teaching (ELT) business has become one of the major growth industries around the world in the past half-century. Taking into account the differences between Standard English and Maritime English:

Maritime English is the entirety of all those means of the English language which, being used as a device for communication within the international maritime community, contribute to the safety of navigation and the facilitation of the seaborne trade (Trenkner, 2000).

To be able to do this, it is fundamental to ascertain what linguistic and methodological knowledge and skills are required for the contemporary Maritime English instructor to successfully perform his/her job.

Our curiosity about authenticity in teaching began with an interest in transformative learning theory. We reasoned that if knowledge about teaching is primarily communicative in nature and therefore socially constructed by a community of practitioners and scholars, then we learn about teaching through experience, reflection on experience, and dialogue with others. The value placed on reflection about teaching is apparent in the literature (Brookfield, 1995; Schön, 1983).

Perspectives on teaching are an expression of personal beliefs and values related to teaching that are often formed through careful reflection (Pratt, 1998). Critical reflection is the central process in transformative learning (Mezirow, 2000), and it is likely that much of our important learning about teaching is transformative in nature (Cranton, 1996). When we critically reflect on social norms about teaching, and disengage ourselves from the norms we do not accept, we are differentiating ourselves from the collective of teachers, and this is the development of authenticity – knowing who you are as separate from (and the same as) the collective of humanity. In Jungian terms, this is also known as individuation (Dirkx, 2000; Sharp, 1995).

### 3.1. Transformative learning

Transformative learning is a process by which previously uncritically assimilated assumptions, beliefs, values, and perspectives are questioned and thereby become more open, permeable, and better validated (Mezirow, 2000). People make meaning out of the world through experiences. What happens once, they expect to happen again. Through this process, people develop habits of mind or a frame of reference for understanding the world, much of which is uncritically assimilated.

When a person encounters something unexpected, he or she either rejects the new information or begins to question the previously held assumptions. Most new faculty receives no formal teacher training; they uncritically absorb techniques, strategies, and styles from their own prior experiences as students and from their colleagues and the norms of the academic community. Through experience and reflection on that experience, they come to find their own way; they transform their habits of mind about teaching. For this kind of learning about teaching to take place, faculty must be critical of the academic community collective. They need to be able to challenge the way things are done and have always been done. They need to differentiate their own thoughts and values from those of the community within which they work, which is a part of developing authenticity.
3.2. Authenticity

This takes us to the concept of authenticity in teaching, especially for teaching Maritime English. Authenticity is a multifaced concept that includes at least four parts: being genuine, showing consistency between values and actions, relating to others in such a way as to encourage their authenticity, and living a critical life. We discuss each briefly.

Cranton (2001) defined authenticity as the expression of the genuine self in the community and presented a process by which teachers in higher education come to know themselves and their preferences within the social context of their work. She described teaching as a specialized form of communication that has learning as its goal and pointed out that meaningful communication rests on the premise that those involved are speaking genuinely and honestly rather than with an intent to manipulate or deceive. To be able to express the genuine self, people need to know who that self is. The development of self-awareness is a transformative process (Mezirow, 2000).

Generally, adult educators have suggested that being an authentic teacher includes making sure our behaviors are congruent with our words (Brookfield, 1990; Ray & Anderson, 2000) and admitting we do not have all the answers and can make mistakes. Palmer (2000) saw this as knowing our limitations. Brookfield (1997) balanced credibility and authenticity; educators should practice what they preach and be sure not to espouse one way of working and then behave in a different way in their own teaching.

Jarvis (1992) suggested people are being authentic when they choose to act so as to “foster the growth and development of each other’s being” (p. 113). Jarvis saw this as an experimental and creative act where teachers consciously have the goal of helping another person to develop. In other words, teachers and students learn together through dialogue, as Freire (1972) advocated; the result of authentic teaching is that “teachers learn and grow together with their students” (Jarvis, 1992, p. 114). As we know from Buber’s (1961) work, it is only through relationships with others that authenticity can be fostered. For educators to be open to this way of seeing their practice requires a questioning and perhaps rejection of some expectations and assumptions about what teaching is – a transformative process.

Communication is our most important human tool for understanding, cooperation and action. Sadly, it is also the tool that can make us confused and frustrated. Interpreting a message for its meaning is communication.

One of a manager’s prime activities is to mitigate communication so that people freely can speak to each other. If the crew/staff is multicultural, it creates a lot of complexity if you admit that crew is a value-added factor for output and profit. Lack of information contributes to crew’s fear, uncertainty and the spread of rumors.

Partly, the ISM Code focuses on safety-communication that sometimes is the target for surveyors and wetting inspector. The limited required language knowledge is not enough to give an individual a social life onboard; hence she/he becomes alienated and thus a safety risk, independent of the length of time mustered. In debates on ship safety this is normally not considered.

4. Why communication skills are so important?

The purpose of communication is to get your message across to others. This is a process that involves both the sender of the message and the receiver. This process leaves room for error, with messages often misinterpreted by one or more of the parties involved. This causes unnecessary confusion and counter-productivity. In fact, a message is successful only when both the sender and the receiver perceive it in the same way.

By successfully getting your message across, you convey your thoughts and ideas effectively. When not successful, the thoughts and ideas that you convey do not necessarily reflect your own, causing a communications breakdown and creating roadblocks that stand in the way of your goals – both personally and professionally.
In spite of the increasing importance placed on communication skills, many individuals continue to struggle with this, unable to communicate their thoughts and ideas effectively – whether in verbal or written format. This inability makes it nearly impossible for them to compete effectively in the workplace, and stands in the way of career progress.

Getting your message across is paramount to progressing. To do this, you must understand what your message is, what audience you are sending it to, and how it will be perceived. You must also weigh-in the circumstances surrounding your communications, such as situational and cultural context.

The result of a cross-cultural faux pas (very culture-specific violation/s) happens when we fail to recognize another person’s culture. People from other cultures have goals, customs, thought-patterns and values that may be different from our own. Interpersonal work with unknown (host) nationals may become bitter because of misreading verbal and nonverbal communication signals. This is not because of personality (Harris, 2004). Symbols manifest most communication. Such symbols differ in meaning dependent on time, culture/person and place. Interaction between humans is characterized by a continuous update of the meaning of symbols.

If we accept stereotyping, it will become a barrier to finding the authentic meaning of spoken sentences (as possible and to best ability). When we communicate, we project our own image (needs, expectations, ideals, perceptions etc.); mainly through appearance, tone of voice and the selection of words.

Often, too often, messages sent are not the same as the message received.

5. Conclusion

Standardized testing, high-stakes testing, and traditional rationales for educational assessment have negatively influenced training programs that today are limited to a single-graduate course or undergraduate methods course, which fail to provide the pre-service or in-service language educator with the means for learning how to best align assessment with curriculum and instruction. Instead, language educators, who use standardized testing as one of many assessment tools, to measure student achievement, will be better equipped to not only rank language learners with their classmates but also to measure their level of understanding, knowledge, skills, and disposition in a more profound way. Planning assessment before instruction implies an assessment for learning as opposed to an assessment of learning. The ongoing information and feedback teachers provide language learners with, are a constant negotiation that takes into account the classroom – and all of its diversity – as a learning community.

Maritime English course design and organization is critically important throughout the whole training program. It ought to take into account the emphasis IMO guidelines on ship management which lays in the need for good communication. The major concepts and skills with this aspect are: understanding culture differences, situational awareness, close loop communication, briefing and debriefing, and communication procedures.

In today’s globalised reality, organizations and companies need the creative and dynamic input from a culturally diverse staff. The only way to achieve this is to ensure that such a staff is not being improperly discounted for positions due to cross-cultural misperceptions. Once this is taken on board and acted upon, the play will again start to make sense to all involved.

The tower of Babel collapsed because people could no longer communicate; their speech became so different that no one could understand the other. You need to communicate to coordinate your own work and that of the others; without explicit effort your conversation will lack communication and so your work too will collapse through misunderstanding and error. The key is to treat a conversation as you would treat any other managed activity: by establishing an aim, planning what to do, and checking afterwards that you have achieved that aim. Only in this way can you work effectively with others in common effort.
Intercultural competence on board is more than competence in the English language. Communication, the sending and receiving of messages, is an integral part of any culture. Understanding the concept of culture prepares modern maritime students for intercultural communication and cross-cultural management on board. Incorporating intercultural competence in teaching may make the difference.

References

Curriculum Vitae

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  - \textit{Language and Ethnic Alterity: Depreciative References Within the Romanian Written Press”}, 6\textsuperscript{th} International Conference on Communication and Mass Media, ATINER, Athens, Greece, May 21-24, 2008;
  - \textit{European cultural identity: the modern subject}, 7\textsuperscript{th} International Conference on Communication and Mass Media, ATINER, Athens, Greece, May 18-22, 2009;
  - \textit{Communicating internationally; Cross-culture communicating made easy on board}, Annals of Constanta Maritime University, 2009;

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  - \textit{Tests and their pitfalls} - International Seminar on Maritime English – Sankt Petersburg, October 2003;
LEARNING OUTCOMES, WORKLOAD AND SYSTEMS OF CREDITS FOR MARITIME ENGLISH COURSES – SOME ASPECTS OF THE BOLOGNA PROCESS

Abstract

The Bologna process places special requirements on MET institutions and on teaching Maritime English. The advantages and disadvantages of the Bologna Process are a matter of deep disputes among teachers and educational authorities. These are reflected especially in the learning outcomes which may sometimes be in conflict with STCW requirements.

In the first part of the workshop, the participants will be involved via specially designed questionnaires in discussing the issues concerning course design with particular reference to assessment of knowledge and skills as per STCW and CEF. To help overcome the drawbacks of the Bologna process. The only way of overcoming the disadvantages is the automation of a part of student assessment in the form of specially designed computer programmes for testing. The second part is meant to engage participants in designing and discussing pros and cons of electronically-based assessment, with particular reference to maritime VHF communications and application of SMCP. For this purpose the Moodle e-learning application will be used.

Keywords: CBT, assessment, Maritime English, testing

There is a pressing need to harmonise the learning outcomes of Maritime English courses along with the results of tests and other forms of assessment [3].

Introduction

Maritime education and training (MET) institutions in Europe have embarked relatively late on the long-term project of implementing the goals and requirements set out in the document referred to as the Bologna Process. The ultimate goal of the Bologna Declaration is to create a common European Higher Education Area by 2010 with a view to improving the competitiveness and attraction of European higher education in relation to other continents 1. The European Community promotes interuniversity cooperation as a means of improving the

1 The main objectives of the Bologna Declaration are:
- Easily readable and comparable degrees. The tools for achieving this are ECTS (European Credit Transfer System) and the Diploma Supplement.
- Uniform degree structures. The degree structure will be mainly based on a two-cycle model. The first cycle, lasting a minimum of three years, ends in a bachelor-level degree, which should also be relevant to the European labour market as an appropriate level of qualification. The second cycle consists of master’s degrees, and postgraduate degrees are third cycle degrees .
- Increased mobility – free movement of students, teachers, researchers and administrative staff.
- Promotion of European co-operation in quality assurance with a view to developing comparable criteria and methodologies (cf. The European Network of Quality Assurance in Higher Education).
quality of education for the benefit of students and higher education institutions, and student mobility is a predominant element of that interuniversity cooperation.

The recognition of studies and diplomas is a prerequisite for the creation of an Open European area of education and training where students and teachers can move without obstacles.

The system of ECTS credits (European Credit Transfer System) and the Diploma Supplement are the main tools to achieve the objectives of the Bologna process. ECTS provides “an instrument to create transparency, to build bridges between institutions and to widen the choices available to students. The system makes it easier for institutions to recognise the learning achievements of students through the use of commonly understood measurements – credits and grades – and it also provides a means to interpret national systems of Higher Education.”[10].

For the purpose of this paper and subsequent pilot research into the system of accreditation of Maritime English courses within the programmes of study at MET institutions across Europe and beyond the basic terms are defined as follows:

- **COMPETENCES**: A dynamic combination of cognitive and metacognitive skills, knowledge and understanding, interpersonal, intellectual and practical skills, ethical values and attitudes. Fostering competences is the object of all educational programmes. Competences are developed in all course units and assessed at different stages of a programme. Some competences are subject-area related (specific to a field of study), others are generic (common to any degree course). It is normally the case that competence development proceeds in an integrated and cyclical manner throughout a programme. [http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/ects/guide_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/doc/ects/guide_en.pdf).

- **LEARNING OUTCOMES**: Statements of what a learner is expected to know, understand and be able to do after successful completion of a process of learning.

- **EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMME**: A set of educational components, based on learning outcomes that are recognised for the award of a specific qualification.

- **WORKLOAD**: Indication of the time students typically need to complete all learning activities (such as lectures, seminars, projects, practical work, self-study and examinations) required to achieve the expected learning outcomes.

- **ECTS**: Quantified means of expressing the volume of learning based on the workload students need in order to achieve the expected outcomes of a learning process at a specified level.

- **ASSESSMENT**: The total range of methods (written, oral and practical tests/examinations, projects and portfolios) used to evaluate learners’ achievement of expected learning outcomes.

- **TESTING**: A language test is an ‘aid to learning’ [5] and just one of the possible assessment tools possible assessment tools. It is a procedure intended to establish the quality, performance, or reliability of something, a short written or spoken examination of a person’s proficiency or knowledge [11]. According to [1] a test is a “measurement instrument designed to elicit a specific sample of an individual’s behavior. … a test necessarily quantifies characteristics of individuals according to explicit procedures.” We shall regard LSP testing as a “special case of communicative language ability” [4], which in essence is not fundamentally different from the good testing practice in other types of language tests. However, it is important to note here that in terms of Maritime English the purpose of language testing may be therefore regarded as referring to “the interaction between language knowledge and specific purpose content knowledge” [4]. We can therefore define an ESP test (e.g. a test in Maritime English) as a performance test assessing the skills needed to communicate in the language and in an extralinguistic context of situation successfully.
ECTS credits are numerical values allocated to course units to describe the student workload required to complete them. They reflect the quantity of work (workload) that each course unit requires in relation to the total quantity of work necessary to complete a full year of academic study at the institution, i.e. lectures, practical work, seminars, tutorials, fieldwork, private study – in library or at home – and examinations or other assessment activities. ECTS is thus based on a full student workload and is not limited to contact hours only. In ECTS, 60 credits represent the workload of an academic year of study (1 credit = 24 hours of work).

Recently, the Commission of the European Communities has made a recommendation to the European Parliament and the Council on the Establishment of the European credit system for vocational education and training (ECVET [12]). This credit system should be fully taken into consideration, along with ECTS, when revising the learning outcomes, workload and systems of accreditation for Maritime English.

In most countries, the following systems of higher education are established under the Bologna Process:

- (university) higher education,
- vocational education and training.

MET institutions are mainly classified under vocational education and training (VET) but here seems to be little cooperation among the MET institutions with respect to allocating ECTS/ECVET to their programmes of studies. These institutions are also lagging far behind other technical and vocational educational institutions in joining the ERASMUS programmes involving mobility of students and instructors.

The main reason for this relative delay in joining overall educational developments in the EU is the fact that, in terms of structural organisation, MET institutions still operate outside universities, mainly acting as independent higher education institutions (under different names such as academies, colleges, etc.) or making part of separate maritime universities or colleges of applied science. On the other hand, most academies and colleges of the countries, which have only recently joined the EU, are now either constituent units or departments of the relative universities (e.g. Poland, Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovenia, etc.), thus continuing the system of university degree education for maritime professions. The second reason, sometimes non-conversant with the former, but having a high impact on the concept of maritime education and training, is the fact that maritime education and training must comply with the requirements of international organisations such as IMO, ITU etc., which are highly competence-based and competence-oriented (cf. STCW certificates of competence).

Nevertheless, the national higher education legislations and the relative administrations in Europe largely require MET institutions to adopt and implement, entirely or partly, the system of education and training as set out in the Bologna Process.

This has forced all MET institutions to adopt a kind of a mixed concept of education and training in their curricula and syllabi (including Maritime English instruction, which is subject to the requirements of:

(a) national higher education systems based on the Bologna Process,
(b) VET,
(c) international competence-based system of education placing strict rules and demands on training and certification rather than on education.

This threefold system practised at MET institutions across Europe is also well embodied in the instruction of English for General Purposes (EGP) and even more so in the teaching of Maritime English.
The Bologna process calls for achieving a high degree of harmonised learning outcomes (i.e. workload expressed in terms of ECTS credits). These could be reached by:

- setting standards of knowledge and skills in foreign language teaching and learning (in the form of CEFR 2001 – Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), and
- mobility of programmes (syllabi), students and teachers across Europe.

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) can be regarded as a guideline used to describe the achievements of learners of foreign languages across Europe. It is intended to provide a basis for the mutual recognition of language qualifications. The CEFR was recommended (though not made compulsory) by the European Council as an instrument in setting up systems of validation of language competences. These standards and qualifications could be used as a solid basis for setting standards of communicative competence in Maritime English [2]. Similar standards, to a certain extent also applicable to Maritime English, have been proposed by other international organisations, e.g. ICAO [3].

Mobility is a principle still unknown or poorly applied or practised among MET institutions, though initial attempts have been made recently. Undoubtedly, mobility offers enormous potential for improvements in MET as a whole and in the field of cooperation in the instruction of Maritime English.

In spite of the principles set out in the Bologna documents (Bologna 1999 – Bergen 2009) and the experience gained so far, the main problem, as far as the Maritime English instruction is concerned, still remains: lack of basic uniformity in terms of adopting and applying common descriptors of workload within the ECTS credits allocated to courses of Maritime English and the corresponding syllabuses for the Bachelor of Science degree studies across the EU member states, not to speak of the same on the world level. This is reflected in the diversity of learning outcomes and division of workload in various countries and MET institutions in Europe. One of the objectives of the proposed research is to study the existing learning outcomes and workload described in the ECTS credits for Maritime English across Europe (and, possibly, beyond) with a view to producing acceptable common learning outcomes.

A major step, however, was made at IMEC 20, where a yardstick has been proposed for measuring efficiency of Maritime English instruction in the paper ‘Developing training and watchkeeping standards the Maritime English competence yardstick in the revised stew context’ [3]. This forms a firm basis for further study and for achieving acceptable uniformity, or ‘unity in difference’, at least as far as assessment and testing Maritime English competence is concerned. This paper builds on the proposed yardstick and tries to find ways of common ground in the assessment and CBT testing within the syllabus design for Maritime English that might be of international use. It also builds on numerous contributions made by papers and workshops delivered at previous IMECs on the topic of assessment and testing.

1. Maritime English and the Bologna Process

As mentioned above, while making general provisions for education and training, the EU policy distinguishes between higher education (The Bologna Process) and vocational education and training (The Copenhagen Declaration, as amended) and sets different standards for the two systems. National MET systems in Europe differ mainly in that they may make part of the former or the latter, and quite frequently the two systems are combined. This has an effect on Maritime English and is further complicated by the requirements of the
IMO STCW Convention. On the other hand, IMO STCW requirements on English language represent the minimum standards where the two systems meet.

The Bologna Declaration sets the following principles within the 1st, 2nd and 3rd cycles/degrees:

(a) Length of studies for the 1st degree (BSc): 3 or 4 years. In case of MET it is mostly 3 years but the BSc certificate (sometimes totally unintelligible when translated into languages other than English) provides no recognizable title (formerly it had corresponded to Diplom-Ingenieur). Therefore the MET student has to undergo the studies for five years to reach the master’s degree. This is totally in contrast with desperate demands made by shipowners and crewing agencies today, who normally prefer as short as possible vocational education for STCW-certificated marine officers, i.e. lasting two years at the most.

(b) Modularity of programmes of study (curricula and syllabi) – not much progress has been achieved toward uniform, mutually substitutable blocks (cf. [6]). Incompatibility of lack of uniformity has proved to be the major obstacle to MET student exchanges within the Erasmus Mundus programme.

(c) Focus on practical skills in the 1st degree – work-related studies. However, because of the existing nomenclature for undergraduate professions, this tends to turn into its opposite, i.e. extension of the duration from 3 to 5 years on the average before a graduated MET student enters the world of work (cf. Point 1)

(d) Importance of lifelong learning (not yet as successful in many EU countries). This is an area where MET has a lot to offer to the Bologna Process as the importance of lifelong learning had been recognized in the maritime industry long before the Bologna Process started.

(e) The grading system – system of credits (ECTS) supposed to allow for comparability of degrees and mobility of programmes, students and teachers across Europe but not yet working well in all countries. The implementation of the ECTS grading system, as a part of overall assessment, arises out of the learning outcomes. This is the bone of content among students and teachers of both technical subjects and Maritime English. Under the orthodox interpretation of the Bologna system of assessment and evaluation, all knowledge, skills and competence can be reduced and expressed in terms of numericals and percentages as these are convenient for comparison and international recognition interpreted in terms of the Diploma Supplement.

Following the initial study [8] and by means of gathering information during the IMEC 21, the workshop on the assessment of knowledge, skills and competence as related to learning outcomes sets out in course description for Maritime English, and after receiving subsequent feedback from Maritime English teachers, this research aims to make a survey of the pros and cons of CBT testing as a part of the system of evaluating students’ achievements.

The Bologna Declaration is frequently referred to by the enthusiasts as the ‘European Trademark’, something standing out for others to ‘buy’, to follow. However, there are some drawbacks and flaws, especially if adopted and applied indiscriminately, without considering national and cultural differences and traditions in education and training. Furthermore, it could have disastrous results if applied and practised to the letter. Often it is regarded as a transitional process but sometimes there seems to be no end to the transition.
2. Maritime English Syllabus: the learning outcomes and workload vs. system of credits

Since the learning outcomes and the number of ECTS credits assigned to Maritime English across Europe differ from country to country, even among MET institutions of the same country, or among course holders, we will try to gather information on some basic ingredients in the Maritime English learning outcomes playing a significant role in assigning credits to the course: attendance, continuous assessment and activities during the classes, specific activities (e.g. lectures, practical work, seminars, tutorials, discussions, writing and presentation of seminar papers and projects, CBT testing, homework), and the final exam.

CBT activities, i.e. the testing activities targeted in this paper/research, could encompass all the stages of acquiring knowledge of language systems (presentation, practising, producing) and all activities in developing communicative skills, especially pre-, while, and post-listening and reading skills.

The CBT exercises can be transformed into tests and can take the form of multiple-choice tests (MCT), true-false, cloze, fill in, dropdown, dragon, drag and drop, complete the sentence, alternative answers, short answers, jumbled words / sentences / texts, matching exercises, proofreading, presentation, report, paper, projects, quiz, etc., depending on the software. In addition, dictionary links, audio and video clips, audio and video (multimedia) recordings can be attached to practically any CBT software.

All sorts of computer operations are possible and available both to the teacher and learner: saving, previewing, marking, adding feedback and hints, adding multimedia, changing names of the course, units and exercises, changing orders of units and exercises, moving exercises from one unit to another, formatting exercises, adding a weblink, etc.

Most software applications (e.g. Clarity, Moodle/Merlin) offer viewing learners’ progress, immediate final results in various systems of marking, licensing – assigning usernames and passwords, etc. CBT testing can be applied in continuous assessment, the results being entered into the students’ portfolios, and for final exams. So far the authors have introduced two periodical CBT tests in a term, the first one administered in the middle of the term and the second by the end of the term. Final exams have been oral exclusively, involving the presentation of a number of maritime-related topics, a paper or a project.

Unfortunately not many MET institutions or holders of Maritime English courses have published their learning outcomes and their evaluation as to ECTS/ECVET credits on their websites. This is why the present research and the related workshop are expected to shed more light on this important information on the Maritime English courses held in Europe and around the world. Here is an example from a professional (instructors’) development course held at WMU:

Outcomes
It is expected that by the end of the Programme the participants will:
- have become aware of what is required of the contemporary Maritime English teacher to fulfil the basic demands of IMO’s legal instruments and its advisory Model Course;
- have a comprehensive understanding of the current methods used to teach Maritime English and how to apply them;
- be prepared to embark upon a sustained process of self-directed skills development;
- be in a position to share and develop these competencies with colleagues.
and another one (named Objectives) laid down for the IMO Model Course 3.17, 2nd edition, 2009:

**Objectives**
The objectives of the Core Section 1 of the IMO English model course are to:
- develop trainees’ ability to use English to lower intermediate language level (equivalent to the Council of Europe Common European Framework for Languages level B1);
- teach basic Maritime English, as recommended in the English language guidelines of Part B-VI/1 of the STCW Code;
- improve trainees’ competence in English to the level required to progress to Core Section 2 of this model course;
- prepare trainees for developing the full knowledge, understanding and proficiency in English required by the STCW Code;
- give students wide-ranging opportunities to practise communicating in English for both maritime and general purposes at elementary to lower intermediate language level;
- provide instructors with a suggested framework for introducing selected topics from the Standard Marine Communication Phrases, as required by the STCW-Code.

The learning outcomes shown below are indicative of some Maritime English courses held in MET institutions:

1) **Lithuanian Maritime Academy** – 7 semesters of Maritime English (4-year BSc course)

   Study programme: Marine navigation  
   Study language: English  
   Type: obligatory  
   Course: Maritime English I  
   Semester: 1 (autumn)  
   Local credits: 2  
   ECTS credits: 3  
   Objectives:  
   Students must be able to:  
   - communicate in English on general and vocational topics, to discuss, to summarize and express their opinion;  
   - lead business discourse and communicate with governing authorities, various representatives of different companies, pilots on all topics related to vocational practice;  
   - create formal letters, presentations and use vocational English terms properly.

   Course: Maritime English 8: Communications, Ship’s correspondence

2) **Antwerp Maritime Academy (Hogere Zeevaartsschool)** – 5 semesters of Maritime English (3-year BSc course)

   Competences (learning outcomes)  
   Specific job-related competences  
   The student develops:  
   - the ability to use the English language fluently and professionally and to communicate effectively in English for both maritime and general purposes;
the required knowledge, understanding and proficiency in English as required by and set out in the STCW 1995 Code (cf. also the English language guidelines of Part B-VI/a of the STCW 95 Code);  
the essential professional vocabulary (technical terminology) for maritime/nautical purposes.

The student is able:  
- to use selected topics from SMCP (Parts A) as required by STCW 1995 Code,
- General job-related competences:  
  - AB1.1: the student develops a sense for teamwork,
  - AB1.5: the student develops a sense of working to high quality standards,
  - AB2.2: the student is able to communicate to a good and professional standard in a foreign language that is commonly used in nautical contexts.

General competences:  
- AC1.1: the student develops an ability to communicate information, ideas, problems and solutions to specialists and non-specialists;
- AC2.2: the student is able to communicate in a targeted, efficient way (oral or written: oral fluency, proper reporting);
- AC2.5: the student is able to display appropriate social skills in human interaction (including acting and behaving respectfully).

Semester + Modules: Semester 1, Module 1.2, semester 2, Module 2.1 & 2.2  
Units of credits: 7 (i.e. 7 credits assigned to two semesters taken as a whole)  
Hours of formal lecture: 36; Hours of practical exercises: 24  
Tutoring: 12; Guided self-tuition: 10  
**Overall working load: 196**

3) **University of Karlstad**

Course Approval  
The syllabus was approved by the Board of the Faculty of Arts and Education on 29 May 2007, and is valid from the Autumn semester at Karlstad University.  
Course Code: ENGAP1  
English for Practical and Professional Purposes, 15 ECTS Credits  
(English for Practical and Professional Purposes, 15 Swedish credit points)  
Degree Level: Bachelor  
Progression Level: A  
Learning Outcomes (for all courses) :
The aim of the course is that students, in the short and long term, develop their formal and informal communicative skills in English.

Upon completion of the course, students should be able to:
- communicate in English, orally and in writing, for different situations and purposes;
- demonstrate awareness of the important features of English-speaking communication;
- choose the appropriate words and expressions for different situations;
- use language tools and other relevant resources to develop proficiency in English.
4) **MarTEL – Maritime Test of English Language***

The main tangible outcomes are:

i. The Foundation standards, which include tests at three levels of proficiency: Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced. All levels will include active skills i.e. Speaking, Comprehension and Writing. The content would be based on active learning and on maritime terminology and usage with less emphasis on grammar. The Foundation test at advanced level will benchmark the well-known English qualification standards TOEFL 500 and IELTS 5.5 in terms of testing methods rather than their contents.

ii. The Officer standards will be based on TOEFL 550 and IELTS 6.0 standards, but content will be primarily based on Navigation English and Marine Engineering English. These tests will focus on all the skills but with less emphasis on grammar.

iii. The senior officer’s standards will be equivalent to TOEFL 600 or IELTS 6.6. For the senior officers in charge of vessels over 3000 GRT, the standard will include a section on language requirements for these vessels and the term Unlimited will be added to the end of the qualification designation. All standards for Officer and Senior Officer Levels will have different weights on different skills and different proficiency requirements at different ranks and duties. For example, a Chief Engineer should be competent on comprehension (especially reading) and writing but a more moderate level of speaking may be tolerated. The success would lead to vocational qualifications in Maritime English and usage which is expected to be recognised Europe-wide.

* Developed by: C4FF – Centre of Factories for the Future (United Kingdom), TUDEV – Turkish Maritime Institute (TURKEY), GCNS – Glasgow College of Nautical Studies (SCOTLAND), University of Strathclyde, Glasgow (SCOTLAND), Satakunta University of Applied Sciences – Faculty of Technology and Maritime Management (FINLAND), Akademia Morska w Szczecinie (POLAND), Tromso University-College (NORWAY), Spinaker (SLOVENIA), Berke Marine (TURKEY) (http://www.maritime-tests.org/project.htm).

These learning objectives are more or less in compliance with the requirements of English language knowledge and competence as set out in IMO STCW 1995; cf. also [3]. However, internet resources do not reveal the outcomes for Maritime English nor the workload and system of credits in terms of ECTS/ECVET.

The following learning outcomes are quoted as an example for discussion and starting point for the Maritime English teachers, members of IMEC, to contribute their own input to the research herein. The Maritime English course duration is 6 terms (three years), each term/semester being allocated 4 ECTS credits. The course in question is held in Year Two (Dept. of Nautical Studies), first semester, number of contact hours: 45 (lectures: 15, exercises: 30).

On completion of the course the student is expected to:

1. acquire basic and special English language knowledge, skills and competence required for the STCW certificate of competency, officer in charge of a navigational watch on ships of 500 GT or more (Tables A-II/1 and A-III/1(English Language), and Table A-IV/2 pertaining to GMDSS radio operators;
2. become aware of, understand, draw up and transmit a VHF message with reference to safety of navigation (in cases of distress, urgency, safety, and SAR), in compliance with IMO STCW Convention 1995 (OOW 500 GT or more); interpret, translate and draw up a meteorological message;
3. use the speech acts necessary for communicating in the basic communication situations at sea (safety, arrival, pilotage, VTS operations);
4. interpret, write down and communicate information related to maritime topics referred to in technical subjects;
5. make an oral presentation of a maritime-related topic in English;
6. develop students’ linguistic and cognitive processes required for acquiring maritime-related knowledge in other subjects (English as a language of knowledge acquisition).

The table below shows an example of the course learning outcomes, the workload and the number of ECTS credits assigned to each segment of the course. Highlighted are the parts of the Maritime English course/syllabus suitable, in authors’ view, to CBT testing. The proposed pilot research is to verify whether this example can be used as a basis for arriving at an acceptable paradigm of learning outcomes for Maritime English courses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>ECTS</th>
<th>Learning outcomes</th>
<th>Specific student activity</th>
<th>Methods of assessment</th>
<th>Points in (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>0,2</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>- lectures</td>
<td>- students’ assessment (e.g. evaluating compliance with SMCP and RR)</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- tutorials</td>
<td>- teacher's assessment (language systems and skills; learner's communicative competence)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities during the classes</td>
<td>0,8</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. listening to, writing and transmitting VHF messages, role-play (VHF exchanges using SMCP), etc. (this could involve conventional activities and CBT exercises)</td>
<td>- students’ assessment (e.g. evaluating compliance with SMCP and RR)</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- teacher's assessment (language systems and skills; learner's communicative competence)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous assessment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. two CBT tests: - terminology - language systems (structure, vocabulary, discourse) - (reading &amp; listening) comprehension - quiz</td>
<td>- MCT - cloze - fill in - complete the sentence - alternative answers - short answers - jumbled sentences / texts - matching - report - paper - study</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final exam</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. - oral exam &amp;/or - test</td>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5) Assessment, evaluation, and CBT testing in achieving the learning outcomes

While the issues such as the Maritime English syllabus, course design, contents and topics, resources and materials, or communicative skills expected of a licensed officer or holder of STCW 1995 CoC have been studied largely and published in IMEC proceedings, WMU and IAMU journals, the key question still remaining is the problem of assessment and testing MET students’ knowledge and skills in English language and Maritime English in particular. It is therefore absolutely adamant that we finally find an agreement as to:

- the evaluation of Maritime English courses in terms of ECTS, and especially ECVET credits for the various higher education and vocational education cycles/degrees, at the three STCW levels (management, operational, support);
- the process of continuous assessment;
- the content to be tested (English used as per STCW requirements);
- the methods of assessment, and
- the modes of testing (e.g. CBT testing).

In order to be able to assess and test in compliance with the requirements of the learning outcomes and the ECTS/ECVET systems of credits, we need reliable standards against which to measure student knowledge, skills and overall communicative performance. These have been proposed in the seminal paper delivered at IMEC 20 in terms of a yardstick [3].

The implementation of the Bologna Process in the area of Maritime English has taken different courses in Europe. Its basic aim – transparency of learning outcomes by way of transferable accreditation – has not been achieved as expected basically because of the impact of national educational legislations, different systems of accreditation (e.g. credits in UK, Finland, Sweden; no credits in France, Spain, different credit frameworks in Scotland and Wales) [13], and different maritime educational traditions.

The learning outcomes published by most MET institutions make reference to the requirements on English language in the IMO STCW Convention 1995. The workload and the share of ECTS credits for each workload is not generally displayed. The main area of agreement is sharing some formal elements, such as a number of EU recommended verbs to introduce each outcome. Therefore, it is almost impossible to make plausible comparison, thus making the transfer of credits almost impossible. This fact largely affects the prospects of student mobility among MET institutions in Europe within the Erasmus programme. However, it must be stated that a number of European MET institutions are now preparing for the more transparent implementation of ECTS accredited courses of study. IMEC conferences might prove to be useful and helpful in contributing to a higher degree of uniformity in displaying ECTS accreditations, including their Maritime English courses.

Assessment is the principal problem. This means that the courses of Maritime English at European MET institutions must reach a higher degree of uniformity with respect to the subject contents, language knowledge and communicative skills to be tested. To this end, the proposed Yardstick [3] provides some useful guidelines.

The extremely formalistic almost mechanical approach to assessment and testing suggested by the Bologna documents favours written testing, mainly consisting of multiple-choice tests, over other forms of assessment. This is in sharp contrast with the need in Maritime English to test communicative skills and performance, which favours spoken and related forms of testing (e.g. listening and reading comprehension, speaking skills in VHF exchanges, etc.). The Diploma Supplement tends to interpret evaluation of the final product of MET, i.e. holder of BSc degree in Nautical or Marine Engineering Studies, in terms of
statistics and numerical expressions such as percentage points. This is almost impossible to implement when communicative skills are tested. The teacher/instructor is given a host of statistical and administrative tasks throughout the course that significantly interfere with her/his basic tasks – constant contact with the student and monitoring the student’s progress. Therefore, if statistical measures are to serve as a means of implementing the yardstick mentioned above, then a part of the assessment process must be available to automatic testing. This will rid the teacher or teaching assistant of the tedious and time-consuming job of correcting paper-based tests and eliminate errors in correcting such test assignments. Most commercial and freely available test programmes and e-learning tools today allow the student to obtain immediate results as soon as the test is completed, i.e. sent to the computer or server. If this method of assessment and automatic testing tools is accepted, the instructors will have much more time to do higher quality work with the student in the form seminars, projects, presentations and tutoring. The tests, however, must be varied and allow for diversity and modification, classifying students into groups etc.

One of the major problems that still remains, however, is to determine what proportion of Maritime English is suitable for CBT. Another problem is the difficulty of assessing and testing communicative competence. CEFR offers itself as a framework only. Therefore, a specific ESP-related range of tests must be developed in Maritime English that are to be compatible with, and complementary to, CEFR using the best of the experience gained with TSE (Test of Spoken English), Marlin’s TOSE (Test of Spoken English), IELTS (International English Language Testing System) and TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). The initiative made by MarTEL (to be presented at IMEC 21) is one in a range of such worthy attempts. In this respect, there is another major problem, i.e. that of mapping the scores from a tailor-made Maritime English test onto the CEF Scale [7]. The proposed yardstick is a firm starter to measure knowledge and performance in Maritime English.

Following the claim made above to harmonise the learning outcomes for Maritime English courses across (European) MET institutions, it now remains to initiate the creation of a CBT-based system of tests compatible with IMO STCW 95 levels of competence, where IMEC can serve as an advisory body to the IMO. Any institution, commercial company or group of experts undertaking such an immense task (in addition to the ones that have already started the job, cf. [14]) will be faced with two major problems and challenges:

- How to determine the (system of) tests for the CEFR C1 level (effective operational user) and C2 level (mastery) and map them on (i.e. make them compatible with) the corresponding Yardstick levels (e.g. 6. Competent User – junior navigating / engineering officers and 9 Expert User – senior navigating / engineering officers – Master and Chief Engineer?

- How can all the above be made compatible with STCW levels?

Other problems of a general nature are:

- What is the relationship between CBT and other types of assessment in Maritime English?
- When to apply CBT and at what stages of the maritime BSc curriculum (placement tests, how many tests during the course, final tests)?
- How to test language knowledge (vocabulary, terminology, grammar, pronunciation, elements of maritime discourse/text, elements of pragmatics, e.g. speech acts in VHF exchanges)?
- How to test language (especially oral) skills and overall communicative competence?
How to combine student’s language performance with testing Maritime English as related to content-based learning?

The problem of descriptors of language use (reception, production, interaction), use of paratextual features (charts, tables, graphs) in non-verbal communication?

How to balance the weight between continuous assessment versus the final exam? As a rule, 30 percent of the total value of assessment credits is allocated to final exams (for all subjects in the curriculum). The educational authorities recommend that final exams be conducted as written tests so as to suit the statistical models of testing assessment.

How to measure daily activities of the student? The learning outcomes for most subjects provide between 15 to 20 percentage points to activities during the classes. No portfolios are created or introduced, and even if they were, it would be difficult to monitor and measure the student activities and achievement on a daily basis with say 40-60 students in a course (one Maritime English teacher being in charge of even up to five such courses a week).

While the above are only general issues, there are some more specific issues such as:

How is the test related to content, themes and topics related to particular sub-disciplines in e.g. navigation and marine engineering?

As an ESP Maritime English test, it should contain tasks that ‘mirror faithfully those of the candidates’ target language use situation’ [9].

What skills will be tested (listening, reading comprehension)?

How can the test be made practical (user-friendly) and economical in terms of administration?

How different should the CBT tasks be so as to make the tests attractive and motivating? There has been a devastating tendency to administer MCT only, which results in mechanical testing and knowledge.

What is the role of preparatory CBT excersises to perform CBT tests?

The value of tests (in terms of percentage or units of learning outcomes/ECTS) versus other forms of assessment

The scoring problem, etc.

Conclusions

After four years since the introduction of the Bologna Process and the ECTS system of accreditation, there is still a variety of systems of accreditation of the programmes of study (curricula) in place in the MET institutions across Europe. There is a notable lack of uniformity, i.e. no modular studies, which makes mobility almost impossible. This also refers to accreditation of the courses (syllabi) of Maritime English. The results of the proposed workshop on this same topic at IMEC 21 and subsequent research based on questionnaires among Maritime English teachers will hopefully shed more light on the real situation and result in harmonisation of Maritime English courses in terms of ECTS credits for various degrees (BSc. in the first place) and what these credits stand for. The advantages of the Bologna Process, as far as Maritime English is concerned, are:

- growing awareness of the need to arrive at minimum harmonised criteria for comparison and subsequent accreditation of Maritime English courses;
- first steps towards the mobility of Maritime English syllabi and students (and possibly teachers in the future) within the Erasmus programme;
awareness of the necessity for introducing common methods of assessment and testing systems;
increased need for introducing CBT in Maritime English.

The drawbacks of the Bologna Process and its negative impact on Maritime English instruction can be summed up as follows:

- tendency towards mechanising the overall learning and teaching process, especially in the area of assessment;
- overuse of mechanical testing at the expense of student-student and student-teacher interaction;
- overburdening the teacher with statistical tasks at the expense of her/his extensive contact with the student;
- students rely on mechanical tests only in order to gain credits and tend to meet minimum requirements only, thus adopting the line of least resistance;
- false views have been developed, especially among MET administrators and other stakeholders that methodology and assessment can be the same for all the subjects within any programme of studies;
- false expectations that all problems in developing competence can be solved by mechanical testing and CBT, etc.

The final result so far is the fact that the drawbacks of the implementation of the Bologna process in the area of Maritime English far exceed the advantages. The process of learning and assessment is becoming less and less interactive, the final linguistic and especially communicative competence of students lower. The system of points and percentage points has resulted in the reduction of the quality of the learning process. The instructor is overburdened with para-educational tasks, having to deal, on a daily basis, with heaps of documents, tedious administrative tasks, and, often unsuccessfully, with irrelevant statistical data of mechanical nature at the expense of qualitative assessment. Administrative tasks and statistics have become a real nightmare for the Maritime English teacher.

The proposed research (based on the workshop and the study of subsequent questionnaires) is to provide a survey of systems of accreditation of Maritime English courses held at MET institutions across Europe and beyond. It is expected to find solutions to excessive workload of the teacher and to suggest methods of reducing statistical and administrative work to the lowest possible level. Ways are to be sought to make the process of assessment more interactive and suitable to content-based learning. Furthermore, this research is to show the role and place of CBT testing in the overall assessment process in the education and training of future BSc. undergraduates (Maritime Transport) or holders of STCW certificates on the operational level.

References


14. e.g. MarTEL (http://www.maritime-tests.org/project.htm) and many tests developed by individual Maritime English teachers across the world.
Curriculum Vitae

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- holds MSc, PhD in English language;
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- IAMU R/D project involvement: GLOMET, PROFS;
- member of the IMEC Steering Group;
- served as IMEC Papers Committee Chairman since 2004;
- maintains the Maritime English Resources Information Databank on IMEC website;
- as Consultant to IMO on Maritime English delivered the regional IMO MEITC in Bulgaria, Vietnam, Poland, Malawi, Russia, Honduras, Chile;
- produced the ‘Survey on Maritime English Materials – Current State of Art’ for IAMU WG III (published by IAMU in 2004);
- Dean of Faculty of Maritime Studies, University of Rijeka, Croatia (from 1999 -2004);
- published numerous articles and three textbooks on Maritime English.

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A GENRE-BASED APPROACH
TO TEACHING MARITIME WRITTEN GENRES

Abstract
Emerging from discourse analysis and ESP, the genre-analysis approach has become widely applied in studies of specialized discourses. More recently, the framework of language description, along with the main concepts about discourse communities and the dynamic nature of genre established by Swales, seems to be applied more and more by ME teachers. ME researchers with a background in linguistics have applied the latest linguistic knowledge to the analysis of maritime genres (VHF communication, damage reports, service letters, check lists) in order to prepare their students to accumulate knowledge on discourse patterns in authentic maritime discourse communities. When applying a genre-based approach, ME teachers need to learn and investigate a specific maritime community themselves. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to present some conclusions reached by the author herself after trying to blend two divergent fields: genre analysis on the one hand, and maritime knowledge on the other. As for the pedagogical implications, it will be argued that maritime students find a genre-based approach very motivating as it contributes to their practical knowledge and like to be more involved in the production and presentation of authentic texts. In addition, bearing in mind the specific nature of the maritime profession and the often underestimated role of English language compared to specialist subjects, seafarers are fond of using taken-for-granted patterns of communication in writing, when embarking on board a ship.

Keywords: genre-based approach, maritime written genres, discourse patterns, pedagogical implications

1. Introduction

The approach to language description used in the analysis of maritime genres was heavily influenced by Swales who applied genre-based analysis to the investigation of research article introductions and presented his findings in “Aspects of Article Introductions”, based on a four-move model. Emerging from discourse analysis and ESP, a genre-analysis approach has become widely applied in the field of ESP. Considered to be the sixth phase in the development of ESP (Hyland, 1992), genre-analysis research has entered the maritime discourse community and has become of interest to ME practitioners. However, it seems that a genre-analysis approach to the maritime setting had been applied before discussion on it had been started at all. As Basturkmen (2006: 9) notices, “ESP practice has marched ahead of discussion of ideas”.

In view of the above, a brief observation of application of genre-based tools to analysing maritime genres was given in my paper on the discourse of maritime forms (Dževerdanović, 2008). An evident rise in the number of qualified English language teachers with academic degrees in linguistic sciences has intensified genre-oriented analysis in other maritime genres, with a focus on pragmatic and rhetorical aspects of these texts. Also, I noticed that more and more authors delivering papers at the International Maritime English Conference realize the necessity of identifying language patterns in maritime written genres and explaining these results in the light of the communicative goals of a specific discourse community.
Therefore, after presenting the basic postulates of genre and genre-based analysis in the initial sections of this paper, I will attempt to illustrate findings from my own research and teaching practice while applying Swales genre-based tools to teaching selected maritime written genres (Damage Reports, Sea Protest and Check Lists). The analysis serves a pedagogical purpose and is mainly backed by students’ feedback provided during implementation of this approach in the ME classroom.

2. Genre and Discourse Patterns

According to Swales (1990) genre is, as a set of communicative means, aimed at reaching a certain communicative goal. Members of a discourse community employ genre to realize their communicative goals. Frow (2006) claims that genre represents a set of conventional and highly organized constraints of meanings and genre is seen as a ‘typified’ action. Thus, a genre is seen as an intermediary between a social situation and the text that realizes certain features of that situation.

Discovering taken-for-granted forms of communication of different genres in specific workplace settings has become one of the major challenges in recent ESP development. Some linguists dealing with the concept of genre and specialized discourses (Duff 2000; Basturkmen 2006; Gotti 2008) point to the multidimensional nature of genre and imply a close link between a specialized text and its structure, i.e. correlations existing between rhetorical and linguistic features of a given text. In order to adopt models of communication of certain work of a professional group, ESP students have to learn the “rules of the game” pertaining to a specific genre. Therefore, teachers have to help their students raise their awareness about the analyzed text structure and provide guidance on how to schematize its structure. However, it must be borne in mind that this approach imposes the need for constant ‘twinning’. ‘Twinning’ means sharing knowledge between English lecturers on the one hand and technical lecturers or subject teachers on the other. I must mention that I realized the significance of this concept as one of the participants of the valuable course held at the World Maritime University in Sweden. Our teachers (Cole, et al., 2008) emphasized the peculiarity of “blending” in ME teaching.

3. Pragmatic reasons for applying “patterns” to the teaching of maritime written genres

According to my modest experience accumulated during my five years of teaching Maritime English to nautical and marine engineering students and experienced seafarers and research done in the course of writing my master’s thesis, I came to the conclusion that seafarers like having “completed” models of communication before embarking on board ship. Bearing in mind the specific nature of the seafaring profession and seafarers’ tendency to embark on board ship and learn the trade even before they have earned a university degree, English language courses have to be as short and concise as possible.

On the other hand, ME teachers are well aware of the fact that seafarers are not very fond of writing. The fact that the majority of administrative work on board ship nowadays is done in electronic format, most of which is in the form of “tick-off” type check lists and standardized uniform forms, makes writing more unpopular among maritime students. In addition, according to interesting findings (Xiao Yishan Lecturer, 2008) concerned with the importance of linguistic competence on board ships, translation and writing rank bottom. When applied, writing skills mainly relate to drafting sea protests, contracts, reports, logbook data etc.
Despite the above indicating the unpopular position of writing among seafarers, ME teachers, as well as future seafarers, are very well aware of the importance of writing in the marine industry. The author herself became aware of this in the course of analyzing a large corpus of damage reports collected from ship masters and first officers. Apart from a bad knowledge of grammar, there is poor awareness of textual cohesion and organization.

In light of the above, I started introducing genre-based knowledge to teaching maritime genres in my own classroom. What made my efforts easier is the fact that, while interpreting patterns in different texts, I shared my linguistic knowledge with students’ knowledge of the subject matter and their experience gained on board ship (post-experienced students).

### 4. Genre analysis in the ME classroom

In this section I would like to describe how I applied a genre-based approach in teaching some maritime written genres to nautical students with the aim of making the writing process more interesting and at the same time developing their awareness of the metadiscourse level of the texts.

### 5. Implementation of a genre-based approach to Damage Reports

In my analysis of genre features of damage reports (Dževerdanović, 2009), and relying on the move-based model set forward by Swales (1990), I provided a 7-move model indicating the structural pattern of this specific genre.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1</th>
<th>INTRODUCTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Move 2</td>
<td>DESCRIPTION OF SHIP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>TEXTUAL DESCRIPTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>SHIP’S PARTICULARS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td>BRIEF NARRATIVE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 4</td>
<td>PERSONS IN ATTENDANCE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 5</td>
<td>SURVEY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 6</td>
<td>SURVEYOR’S SUMMARY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 7</td>
<td>ENDING</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before I started implementing genre-analysis tools in teaching this specific genre, I checked that the students (second-year nautical students) had become acquainted with the notion of the target genre from one of their specialized subjects. I found out that students have solid background knowledge of this genre as it occurs in many specialized syllabus subjects (Maritime Law, Marine Insurance).

After that, I asked them to bring their own samples of genres using the Internet, visiting port authorities and getting them from experienced seafarers who keep copies in their personal “files”.

Once the students were introduced to the genre to be analyzed and after the samples from their personal collections were distributed throughout the class, I asked them to think about the setting in which this genre occurs. It proved that students are very well aware of the fact
that damage reports represent one of the most important court documents used in the process of arbitration and claims after maritime accidents have occurred. Another observation made by students is that the author of these reports, a marine surveyor, has to be as elaborate as possible when explaining the circumstances of the accident. However, as I was able to predict, students lacked knowledge on textual organization and the linguistic structures appearing in it.

In the following stage, students were given one report and asked to identify its structure, to name its individual segments and put them into their proper order. As it turned out that seafaring students prefer to discuss what has been written rather than how it has been written, in the following stage they were given the same text, where individual segments were marked with different colours. This turned out to be a very motivating step as it encouraged students to gradually become aware of the framework of this genre. What followed was a discussion on the ways of naming different parts. After comparing their solutions, it was found that, thanks to their knowledge of the subject matter, students provided various solutions for the same move. Thus, in addition to offering the name Surveyor’s Summary, they also offered titles such as Surveyor’s Opinion, Surveyor’s Conclusion, Surveyor’s Notes, etc. It was also found that students easily identify those moves providing factual information, such as Description of Ship, Ship’s Particulars, whereas naming narrative segments such as Brief Narrative or Survey was a slightly more demanding task. Finally, students were given a completed model and asked to compare their findings with the target model.

After the structure of the genre was identified, the students were asked to find language patterns and vocabulary pertaining to individual moves and explain their communicative function. I witnessed during this stage that seafaring students are very skillful at recognizing collocations and fossilized structures, particularly those coming from legal discourse. It seems to me that they memorize these structures without any problem and like using them later (I found this out when I analyzed damage reports and statements written by experienced seafarers, i.e. Masters and Deck officers).

Bearing in mind all the above, it was possible to construct a discourse pattern (Table 1) and reveal language structures relating to particular segments:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Communicative Function</th>
<th>Language Structures</th>
<th>Segment of Damage Report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Promise, Solemn court tone</td>
<td>1. <strong>This is to certify</strong> that the undersigned surveyor <strong>did arrange survey</strong> on the m/v “Blue Star” to establish <strong>cause, nature and extent of damage</strong></td>
<td>Introduction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. (Survey was made) <strong>without prejudice</strong></td>
<td>Ending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. (Survey was made) <strong>to my/our best knowledge</strong></td>
<td>Ending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Hedging”</td>
<td>4. Ship <strong>reportedly</strong> sustained damage in consequence of an <strong>alleged</strong> collision with</td>
<td>Brief Narrative Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. <strong>It seems that / It appears that</strong></td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. <strong>It may be that / It could have happened that</strong></td>
<td>Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypothetical thinking</td>
<td>7. <strong>We are of the opinion / We anticipate that / We are aware</strong></td>
<td>Summary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. <strong>One could be more precise / One could assume that</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. <strong>It would have been prudent</strong> of ’GALAXY’ to have made an early alteration of course to starboard</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.
To sum up, students’ feedback in explaining what was written in the way it was written is an invaluable contribution to genre-based analysis applied in the ME classroom. To illustrate this, students are well aware that the use of the first person plural (we) instead of the first person singular (I) tends to be a sign of transferring responsibility from a surveyor to the institution he represents. The same rhetorical effect is accomplished by the use of the lexeme ‘undersigned’ instead of putting the surveyor’s name. Also, being familiar with the complex nature of maritime accidents and their legal aspect, students also grasp the use of legal discourse structures used in the initial and ending segments of the report. More elaborate genre-based analysis of Damage Reports (Dževerdanović, 2008) point to other syntactic-lexical features pertaining to other segments of this genre.

6. Task assignment

There are numerous ways in which the above findings may be used in assigning writing tasks to ME students. In the initial phases of introducing a genre-based approach, the teacher may decide to work on one particular segment of genre (introduction, survey) and then introduce tasks involving a larger discourse (the whole report). For example, if asked to write an introduction to the damage report, students are given essential data (the ship’s name, date of survey…) and are asked to make use of legal discourse internalized in the previous stages. Furthermore, writing longer narrative segments such as the Survey imposes slightly different tasks. For example, students may be asked to put paragraphs into their proper order, as precise time sequencing is one of the most important features of this segment (Appendix A).

7. Implementation of a genre-based approach to Note of Protest

The aim of this section is to demonstrate one of the ways of applying a genre-based approach to teaching Note of Protest (or Sea Protest). In comparison to Damage Report, this genre has a simpler framework and a more uniform layout. Linguistic components of this genre are easily discerned whereas linguistic phrases used in moves are again taken from legal discourse and, therefore, easily learnt by heart. Bearing in mind the fact that the genre-based approach to a great extent depends on the genre to be analyzed, the teacher should decide on which aspect of language to teach. As regards Note of Protest as a genre, the focus should be on internalizing vocabulary used in production of this brief and standardized discourse. Bearing in mind its background, this genre should be taught to third-year nautical students and be an integral part of courses for Chief Officers and Masters. Sea Protests are one of the oldest types of documents in the seafaring industry written by captains with the aim of laying the blame on bad weather or other unexpected incidents (sea perils) that may have caused damage to the ship or cargo. According to my personal insight into this genre, its form has not changed much over the last few decades, or even centuries for that matter.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1</th>
<th>THE FORMAL SWEARING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Move 2</td>
<td>NATURE OF PROBLEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td>FORMAL PROTEST</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As regards language pertaining to Sea Protest as a genre, archaic lexemes belonging to the legal and trade register \((hereby, thereby, whereof)\) prevail in the initial and ending segments of this genre. However, as the objective of this text is to point to the seaworthiness of the ship before the damage had occurred, dominant phrases and vocabulary are well-known fossilized expressions (engine and machinery in good order; reserving right to extend this protest when and where need may require). There are slight variations, but the use of binomials (secured and stowed; fully and solely responsible) and trinomials (tight, strong and sufficiently manned; losses, expenses and consequences) is an already known feature of this genre. In addition, another communicative objective that the Master wishes to achieve is to prove his commitment and caution during navigation, as expected by seafaring practice (in good seamanship manner …). What follows are examples taken from the two standardized segments of the Sea Protest (Move 1 and Move 3):

Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Structures</th>
<th>Segment of Sea Protest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I, Master of the Singapore registered vessel (name of the vessel)….<strong>solemnly declare</strong> that on (date), my vessel was <strong>tight, strong and sufficiently manned</strong> …., her engine and machinery in good order, her cargo properly <strong>secured</strong> and <strong>stowed</strong>…</td>
<td>The formal swearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I Capt. (name of the captain)…state that I navigated all the time <strong>in good seamanship manner</strong> …</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I protest against mentioned vessel, her Captain, crew and Owners holding them responsible for all <strong>losses, expenses and consequences</strong> arising thereby <strong>reserving right to extend this protest when and where need may require.</strong></td>
<td>Formal protest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I hereby hold the Owners, Master and operators of (name of the vessel) <strong>fully</strong> and <strong>solely</strong> responsible and … reserve my and our owners’ full legal right to extend this at the time and place convenient.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <strong>Whereof</strong>, I protest against any charges against me for poor seamanship. I cannot accept responsibility for any consequential damages and losses and thereby I enter this protest, <strong>reserving right to extend the same when and where need may require.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Task assignment

As mentioned above, it is the teacher who decides which aspect of level to teach. In addition to establishing the rhetorical structure of the genre (as illustrated in 4.1.), the analysis may focus on linguistic features of the given structure (grammar, syntax, semantics). In light of this, as regards Sea Protest, one of the possible tasks would be to internalize binomials and trinomials used in Sea Protest. Also, students may be asked to produce variations of “hedging” sentences, i.e. in which Master enters Note of Protest with the aim of resisting possible claim for damage. Some of the options are illustrated in Appendix B.
9. Implementation of a genre-based approach to Check Lists

Although students hesitantly realize that check lists belong to a specific kind of genre, it represents one of the most important forms used on board ships. I tried to point out some of its peculiarities in my earlier work (Dževerdanović, 2008). Although its layout is nowadays standardized due to the international nature of shipping and regulations set by each company, a check list has a specific framework and specialized vocabulary. It is inevitable to say that the most important characteristic of a check list is its brevity and precision. On one hand, it must be short for the sake of saving paperwork or computer memory on board ship, and on the other, it has to save the seafarer’s time and facilitate its filling in. Besides, knowing that almost all officers on board ship must fill in some kind of check list and knowing that the level of their English varies language structures differ respectively. Bearing this in mind, I found that check lists which are to be filled in by engine officers (third and second marine engineering officers) require the understanding of lexical words (words that carry meaning) and abbreviations. Therefore, in order to teach this genre to marine engineering students, the teacher must choose that aspect of language which is crucial, i.e., in this case, a specialized vocabulary.

10. Task assignment

As mentioned above, brevity and precision are the most prominent features of check lists. Therefore, tasks given to students should focus on teaching condensed and shortened language forms with a semantic value. Knowing that marine engineering students use abbreviations wherever possible, one of the options would be to give them a piece of specialized discourse to “decipher” and write full sentences from the provided abbreviations. A list of abbreviations found in some forms is given in Appendix C. The following examples are taken from check lists titled “Engine department inspection”:

- Suction v/v F.W. gen.
- O.B. Disch v/v from s.w. p/p.
- Disch v/v pump # 2.
- Disch v/v from s.w. p/p to F.W. gen.
- Booster pump O/hauling & cleaned.
- Main air compressor No. 1 O/H suction & delivery v/ves inspected crankcase.
- Disch v/v from emrgcy fire p/p.

11. Recommendations

1. A genre-based approach embedded within linguistic science presents one of the latest ways to teach different sorts of texts to ESP students. As regards teaching maritime genres, a genre-based approach has recently entered the world of the maritime discourse community and its applications are yet to come. It implies permanent ‘twinning’ or sharing knowledge between maritime students with knowledge of a specialized subject on one hand, and language teachers with knowledge of linguistics on the other. Thus, a teacher has a guiding or mediating role in constructing the genre under focus.

2. The idea of students being asked to bring their own texts enhances collaboration among students themselves and implies firmer collaboration in the teacher-student interaction plan. In addition to this, the syllabus is refreshed by material coming from the students’ target professional communities. Bearing in mind the fact that the majority of students
have seafaring experience and bring their personal collections of materials, the material analyzed is current and fresh.

3. There is no universal model to be adopted when the structure of a certain genre is established. Teachers must be aware of the fact that it primarily depends on the genre in focus. For that reason, apart from revealing the structure of the genre and its segments, the teacher may decide to identify vocabulary and grammar indicating a certain genre or its segments.

4. Changes in maritime discourse communities imply changes in communication. Whereas some genres hardly change (Sea Protest), others are subject to more radical changes (Log Book, Check Lists) which is the result of the introduction of computer-based storage of data on board ship.

Conclusions

Application of a genre-based approach to teaching maritime written genres offers ME teachers a way to help their students see the way the texts are structured. I am of the opinion that internalizing patterns of communication in the classroom and establishing the linguistic features of maritime genres is very motivating for ME students. Written genres used in the ME discourse community cover a wide range of topics including maritime accidents, statements, damage reports, charter parties, check lists, bills of lading, salvage agreements, etc. Therefore there is a lot of space for ME researchers to investigate new genres themselves and find the most suitable way to convey it to their students and enhance their writing skills.

References

Appendix A

Jumbled-text type exercise

What follows is an extract from the segment Survey of Damage Report. Put the sentences into a proper order:

a. Loading commenced on 8 December 2000 at 10:35 hours and concluded on 15 December 2000 at 07:45 hours (vessel working round the clock 24 hours a day). The weather conditions during shipment were reported as being 32°C, night-time temperature being 28°C.

b. We interviewed the Master and Chief Officer at this time, whereupon we ascertained details concerning the consignment and subsequent carriage conditions.

c. Pursuant to receiving instructions on 10 February 2001 at 15:40 hours, we made arrangements and attended on board m.v. Ocean Swan the same day at 16:40 hours. We noted at this time, that Stevedores concerned, World Shipping Services Limited, had completed discharging the vessel for the day.

d. Prior to the vessel departing from Thailand, the Master informed us that he was entirely satisfied with the stowage/securing of the cargo. The Supercargo, who had attended on board at Osaka had apparently discussed the stowage/securing details with the Master and Chief Officer, and all parties agreed the methods adopted at the load port.

e. The Shipping Orders were duly endorsed by the Master/Chief Office as per attending P&I Surveyor’s findings.

f. It is also worth noting that no physical damage was noted to the consignment before or during shipment by the ship’s officer and the vessel’s P&I Surveyor.

g. 1. Quantity and weight unknown
   2. All cargo “H” beams rust stained in various degrees.
   3. All cargo “H” beams stowed in open and before shipment.

h. Although the Shipping Orders indicate that the cargo was stored in open air prior to shipment, the Master informed us that all the cargo had originated from under cover storage facilities. As the steel sections on discharge at Immingham were to remain in the open air, then we did not pursue this matter any further.

(Correct order is: c, b, a, d, e, g, h, f)

Appendix B

Variations in noting protest and refuting Master’s responsibility for possible damage

- I cannot accept responsibility for any consequential damages and losses and thereby I enter this protest…
- In view of the above, I hereby protest against all consequences that occurred to my vessel holding you responsible for …
- In view of the above, I hereby declare this sea protest in the event of any damages to the vessel or the cargo…
- Whereof, I protest against any charges against me for poor seamanship …
- In view of the above, I hereby serve this letter of protest on your said allegation…
- Whereof, I protest against heavy weather, perils of the sea and of navigation and all damages and losses arising thereby …
- I, Marko Markovic, Master of M V Massira, on behalf of all interests concerned in M V Massira, note protest and hold responsible the Master and Owner of M V Silver Wave for all loss sustained …
### Appendix C

#### Some Abbreviations Used In Check Lists

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation/mark</th>
<th>Full term</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A/E</td>
<td>Auxiliary engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F.W.</td>
<td>Fresh water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F’castle</td>
<td>Forecastle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fwd</td>
<td>Forward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dia</td>
<td>Diameter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disch</td>
<td>Discharge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emrgcy</td>
<td>Emergency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exh.</td>
<td>Exhaust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.R., E/R</td>
<td>Engine room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen</td>
<td>Generator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hrs</td>
<td>Hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M/E</td>
<td>Main engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O/h</td>
<td>Overhauled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O/B</td>
<td>Onboard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P/P</td>
<td>Pipe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part</td>
<td>Partially</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Press.</td>
<td>Pressure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RPM</td>
<td>Revolutions per minute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scav.</td>
<td>Scavenging</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sq.</td>
<td>Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STBD.S</td>
<td>Starboard side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S.W.</td>
<td>Seawater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T/Dk</td>
<td>’Tweendeck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VV, V/V</td>
<td>Valve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>#</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2/E</td>
<td>Second Engineer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&amp;</td>
<td>And</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Curriculum Vitae

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- a Teaching Assistant at the Faculty of Maritime Studies in Kotor, Montenegro;
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- currently, she is doing her PhD thesis on “Types of Discourses and Genre Features in Maritime Communication”;
- her research interest includes English for Specific Purposes, Discourse Analysis and Genre Analysis;
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  - Milena Dževerdanović (2009) Genre Features of Damage Reports, Pomorstvo, god.23, br.1, str. 299-315;
- papers published in Conference Proceedings:
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A DATA-BASED STYLISTIC ANALYSIS OF MLC AND THE ENGLISH TRANSLATION OF RSC

Abstract
This paper is intended to conduct a corpus-assisted stylistic investigation of the English translation of Regulations of the People’s Republic of China on Seafarers in comparison with Maritime Labour Convention, 2006. Quantitative and qualitative description and analysis of the two texts at lexical, syntactic and textual level respectively are made to achieve some evaluation of the translation of RSC.

Keywords: RSC, MLC, Style, Stylometrics

1. Introduction
With the flourishing of international trade and shipping business, seafarers, as the main maritime force, play a more and more important role in maritime activities. Maritime Labour Convention (hereinafter referred to as MLC, 2006) is adopted to achieve worldwide protection for all seafarers and to give them the ability to have their concerns addressed where conditions fail to meet the requirements of the Convention. When the Convention has just passed, China has implemented the core of the Conventions through domestic legislation and formulates Regulations of the People’s Republic of China of Seafarers (hereinafter referred to as RSC), which manifests China’s maritime administration’s performance capability has been walking in the forefront of the world. Both of them concern seafarers’ rights, duties and management. However, translating RSC from Chinese to English is important for China to set global image.

2. Research Method
The current study employed a multi-trait research design including both qualitative and quantitative methods. The Wordsmith program was employed to calculate the word length and standardized TTR. A lemmatization was made by a FoxPro before listing out the top 50 words in the descending order of RSC and MLC respectively. To study the word class in RSC and MLC, a tagging device was used to tag the same marker to the same word class so as to calculate the number of respective word class. The sentence length and passive voice were found out by running a FoxPro program. The coordinators and subordinators as well as the modal verbs were obtained by using AntConc and Chi-square test needed to prove if there is any significant difference. Additionally, the important part was the qualitative analyses and discussions.
3. Data Analysis and Discussion

3.1. The Lexical Level

3.1.1. Word Length

Word length is a key element to determine the style of a text. Generally, the longer and more complex the words are, the more difficult and complicated the text will be, and more formal writing tends to use longer words to demonstrate high level of seriousness and formality.

By running a Wordsmith program, it is seen that the average word length of MLC and RSC is 5.19 and 5.30 respectively. The average word length of RSC is higher than that of MLC. A possible explanation is that RSC uses more terminologies containing long words. In addition, the words containing more than six letters are usually regarded as long words (Wang, 1987). These long words may be words of Latin, French, Greek origin or retain Old and Middle English words and meaning, which have long history of general usage, thus they are usually considered as formal words. In addition, they may also be compoundings or derivational words with own correspondingly complex structure. The expressions with more than six words including six words cover 40.23% in MLC and 42.82% in RSC. Therefore, the words used in both MLC and RSC are of frozen style, while the words used in RSC are comparatively formal. However, the two-word length distribution curves have similar patterns.

3.1.2. Type-token Ratio

By running a Wordsmith program, it is shown that the tokens used in RSC are 6230, which is lower than that of 39620 in MLC. There is a significant difference between RSC and MLC in the number of tokens, thus standardized type-token ratio figures are much more reliable.

Table 1. Statistics Of MLC And RSC On TTR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>RSC</th>
<th>MLC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tokens used:</td>
<td>6230</td>
<td>Tokens used:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types:</td>
<td>845</td>
<td>Types:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TTR:</td>
<td>13.56</td>
<td>TTR:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standardized TTR:</td>
<td>29.25</td>
<td>Standardized TTR:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standardized TTR of RSC and MLC are 29.25 and 31.71 respectively. More importantly, there is such a different number of words in MLC and RSC that their use in language can be identified to be distinctive. MLC shows the variation in vocabulary and succinctness, while RSC is more precise and made more linguistically explicit. The result is not quite surprising, as the fact that RSC is less varied in vocabulary, while MLC is notable with a diversity of expressions.

3.1.3. Statistic study of the Top 50 words

The frequency of occurrence and overall distribution of the word manifest some common-core features for a style. After calculation, there are total 20 words shared, including 16 function words and four lexical words, covering 40% of all the 50 top frequency words. The four shared lexical words are seafarer, regulation, board and have. Both RSC and MLC
are concerned about the regulations of seafarers on board. Among the aspect of noun, it is found that there are synonyms and similar items appearing in RSC and MLC, for example, vessel and ship, employer and member, agency and shipowner, article and guideline, provision and convention, document and agreement, requirement and standard, administration and organization. In other words, the nouns in RSC and MLC are fundamentally the same. Furthermore, the frequently used words result from the fact that more attention is paid to training seafarers, their qualifications, and occupational security, however, MLC attaches importance to health protection, medical care, welfare and social security protection.

3.1.4. Word Class

By running a FoxPro, first the text is tagged, and then the words are removed leaving only the tags for convenience of calculating the frequency and percentage of each word class. The results are as follow. Firstly, nouns and noun phrases are most frequently used in the two texts. Secondly, there are more pronouns and prepositions, and fewer adjectives and adverbs in them. Pronouns serve as the “replacements” for nouns or noun phrases in English. It plays a considerably active part in making the passage concise and cohesive. However, when it comes to Legal English, the rare use of pronouns is preferred. Therefore, both RSC and MLC use excessive pronouns which reduce their indisputability and explicitness. And due to the fact that Legal English favors the objective description and interpretation, few adjectives are seen with subjective in legal English documents. Legal English working staff likewise tries to avoid using adverbs of degree in the legal realm.

3.2. The Syntactic Level

3.2.1. Sentence Length

There are both long and short sentences that have their own respective functions and effects to compose a text. Short sentences can easily present and convey casual, colloquial style, whereas long sentences can express complex ideas, facts and considerable capacity. Functionally speaking, the longer a sentence is, the more difficult it is to understand it, and the more formal the language is. A text in which sentence structure predominates may give the impression of stylistic formality and sophistication.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>RSC</th>
<th>MLC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean sentence length</td>
<td>26.07</td>
<td>24.13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Leech and Short (2001), the average sentence length of all varieties is 17.8 words per sentence. By running a FoxPro, the mean sentence length of RSC is 26.07 and MLC’s is 24.13. It indicates that mean sentence length both in RSC and MLC far exceed the average 17.8 words per sentence, and the mean sentence length of RSC is greater than that of MLC. It means the sentences in RSC are fairly difficult to read. Thus, RSC seems more formal and superb than MLC in terms of sentence length.

3.2.2. Use of long and complicated sentences

In order to avoid misunderstandings and disputes, legal drafts sometimes have to arrange a lot of relevant information in different respects into the same sentence, thereby producing a prevalent
phenomenon of long complicated sentences in legal texts. Coordination and subordination are two main devices for joining clauses.

Coordination is a construction consisting of two or more clauses which are equivalent in grammatical function and they bind together at the same level of structural hierarchy by means of a linking device. With the help of AntConc, the percentage of coordinators in RSC is 5.97% and in MLC is 5.72%. Subordination is used to express unequal ideas. The superordinate clause and the subordinate clause(s) are in hierarchical hypothetic relationship. It is argued that the use of subordination, rather than coordination, will immensely help in making one’s writing more mature, sophisticated, effective and formal. With the help of computer, the percentage of subordinators in RSC is 2.95% and 3.21% in MLC.

Chi-square test is made to check whether there is significant difference between the texts in the distribution of coordinators and subordinators. The result shows that RSC uses coordinators and subordinators similarly with MLC.

3.2.3. Passive Voice

The passive voice is so different in focus and emphasis which affects perspective of the action from the active voice that it influences the reader’s feel of the text. In some registers, the impersonal sentence patterns are preferred as a marker of formal writing. Additionally, the passive voice may create a deliberate vagueness, or it may obscure the cause, but not the effect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Passive patterns</th>
<th>RSC</th>
<th>MLC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample No.</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>percentage</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>49.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To examine the use of passive voice in the two texts, 200 sentences have been picked out randomly from MLC, and every unit in the MLC has an equal chance of being represented in the sample, in such a way that the new sub-text can be formed. Then a comparative analysis is made between the sub-text and RSC, which is in about 200 sentences. Therefore, the number of passive patterns in each text is obtained by calculating its proportion manually. After running the FoxPro, percentage of passive patterns in RSC is 26% and 49.5% in MLC. Since MLC is drafted by English speakers, and RSC is drafted in Chinese and then translated into English, this result corresponds with the nature of these two languages. English is subject-prominent language, while Chinese is topic-prominent language (Lian, 1993). In a word, passive voice is more commonly used in MLC to keep objectiveness, neutrality and impersonality. Therefore, it can be concluded that the language of RSC in terms of passive voice is more subjective and discriminating than that of MLC.

3.2.4. Use of Modal Verbs

Modal verbs are frequently used in Legal English to indicate rights and obligations, such as “shall”, “should”, “may”, “will”, “would” and “must”, which carry the meaning of “permission, ordering and prohibition”. After examining the percentage of modal verbs with the aid of AntConc, the frequency of shall in RSC is much higher than in MLC, but the frequency
of *may* in RSC is lower than in MLC. The overall frequency of modal verbs in RSC is lower than in MLC because of no use of *should, will, and would.*

### Table 4.

Percentages Of Modals In RSC And MLC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modals</th>
<th>RSC</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>MLC</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>shall</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>451</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>should</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>may</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>will</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>would</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>must</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total words</td>
<td>6143</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>39228</td>
<td>2.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequent use of modal verbs is one of the striking characteristics of legal English which serves as a preservation of the influence of the Old English. Thus, someone used to say that a drafter cannot even write without using modal verbs. Although this is a little bit exaggerated, it reflects the significant role the words play during the process of legal document writing.

A panoramic review of mainstream English-speaking countries’ recent statutes shows that “the confusion of the use of modal words is considerably checked in many current laws so that the drafters have achieved a highly rational use of legal modality” (Huang 2004, p. 174). At the same time, many provisions are modal-free, just declaring states of affairs simply by the verbs of the present tense. This shows that draftsmen exercise considerable temperance in using modal expressions. This helps to make a simple and straightforward style of legal language. In terms of this point, RSC does much better than MLC.

### 3.3. The Textual Level

#### 3.3.1. Rhetoric Devices

Generally speaking, rhetoric such as simile, metaphor and personification is seldom used in legal English. Because of its formal format, the language employed in this field should be strict, exact and standard. Rhetoric is often found in general English or literary text which need more methods to attract readers. Due to the fact that legal English has to focus on imperative and narrative statement, disclosing legislative solemnity through declarative sentences and numbers.

A careful observation both in RSC and MLC helps to draw a conclusion that the two texts seldom use the rhetoric devices as they may waste time and cause ambiguity. Accuracy and conciseness have been the first consideration.

#### 3.3.2. Cohesive Devices

Cohesion is a dimension of linguistic description which is important in the study of literary texts. Cohesion, which makes text as a whole, expresses the continuity that exists between one part of the text and another. Cohesion is necessary though it is not sufficient for the creation of a text.

Devices to achieve cohesiveness are various, and the specific items used in RSC and MLC have been demonstrated before. Another striking textual feature in RSC and MLC is the use of complex prepositional phrases. Some of the typical examples from these two include *in accordance with, be subject to, prior to,* etc. The use of complex prepositions rather than the
simple ones is preferred in legislative texts simply because of the specialist community claims, with some justification, that the simple ones tend to promote ambiguity and lack of clarity.

3.3.3. Paragraph Division

Discourse is a linguistic unit composed of several sentences, in other words, conversations, arguments or speeches. As a synonym of “text”, it is defined by Halliday & Hasan (1976, p. 87) as follows: “a text is a passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that forms a unified whole, which is best regarded as a semantic unit.”

The discourse organization of legal language is unusual in that the organization of information does not follow familiar, expected patterns. The structures of RSC and MLC are quite different from each other: the structure of the former is rather wordy and lengthy, while the latter is various in its form. As a matter of fact, the structure of MLC is organized in this way, relatively short, concise and detailed enough, on the whole. There are a great many varieties in the act and, in this case, the drafting becomes much more fluent and friendly for readers to comprehend. To reduce dense text, paragraphs should be as short as possible and use different sentence patterns to vary the legal English.

4. Conclusion

On the lexical level, the average word length of RSC is longer than that of MLC. The vocabulary of MLC is more various than that of RSC. The study of the top 50 frequently used words shows that both RSC and MLC convey the similar information to readers. In addition, both RSC and MLC use excessive pronouns, but they rarely adopt adjectives and adverbs.

On the syntactic level, the mean sentence length in RSC is longer than in MLC, and the sentence length of more than 20 in RSC covers much more than in MLC. Of course, both of these two texts are inclined to use long and complicated sentences, but the former one is more likely of preciseness and formality. Secondly, passive voice is much more frequently used in MLC, which displays that the impersonal effect in RSC is not embodied as effectively as in MLC. Thirdly, comparatively speaking, modal verb shall is widely used in RSC. This shows the compelling force and mandatory facts in RSC. Lastly, the application of coordination and subordination in RSC and MLC is of no dissimilarity, which leads to parallel sentence structure and pattern.

On the textual level, there are three points needing more attention. Firstly, legal English seldom uses rhetoric devices because its contents should be formal and exact. Secondly, in legal English, there are a great number of cohesive words, because it needs logical relationship between sentences to show importance of logic and rigor of legislative document. Thirdly, from the perspective of paragraph division, MLC is so concrete and detailed that the branch articles are trivial, such as Article I, Article II, Article III...Title I, Regulation 1.1, 1, 2, 3...Standard A 1.1, 1, 2, 3(a), (b), (c) (i), (ii), (iii)...Title 2, Regulation 2.1, 1, 2, 3…While there are only chapter I, Article 1, Article 2, (1), (2)…Chapter II…because of it is characterized recapitulation in content.

References


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ON A NEW TEXT BASED APPROACH TO MARK A TRANSLATION

Abstract

Translation evaluation has repeatedly been criticised for having a subjective nature. In fact, objectivity and marking in translation evaluation have always been considered as challenging issues. The present study tries to present practical models for translation quality evaluation. Firstly, some general approaches and purposes for making such an evaluation will be briefly mentioned. Secondly, some theoretical concepts and factors, useful especially for educational settings and related to carrying out a translation evaluation will be discussed. Thirdly, based on the text typology, the researchers will introduce three practical models or point-scoring methods for translation evaluation. Then a survey study will be done in order to explore the ideas of some translation teachers about the suggested models. Thus, this study contributes to carrying out a more objective and systematic method for translation evaluation of the text types presented here.

Our models were two-dimensional; meaning and form were chosen as the main criteria in them. The marks given to these criteria and their factors were based on their importance in the text of the models. In order to explore the ideas of translation teachers about the models, we did a survey study and it became clear that 60 percent of the teachers agreed with them. Therefore it was confirmed that the models are useful for translation evaluation and a majority of translation teachers have a strong favour to use them.

Keywords: translation evaluation, meaning, form, practical models, metrics, text typology

1. Introduction

The present study deals with one of the most controversial issues in translation studies, i.e. translation quality evaluation. It is debatable because both ideas of quality and evaluation models themselves are not objective. Quality in translation, as Newmark (1988) claims, is “relative”. On the other hand, any model(s) used for translation evaluation is/are based on different theories and factors which are various in other models so the outcome of translation evaluation will vary based on the model used for such a purpose and the evaluation results will not be fixed.

There is no doubt in the role of evaluation and assessment in any field of science and it can be said that there could be no science without measurement. Therefore, apart from the debate over the case whether translation is art or science, it can be claimed that evaluation is also important in translation whether we call it art or science.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) states that “evaluation involves making judgments which means that we must have criteria… if there is no clear objective for a particular activity or material, how can its success be measured?” Regarding the mentioned quotation, we should have objective and clear criteria in order to measure or evaluate the quality of any translation.
Thus, the study here aims at proposing practical models to evaluate the quality of any translation. First some general points related to translation quality evaluation will be discussed. Then some theoretical concepts and factors related to this case will be mentioned. Finally, three practical models which are based on text typology will be presented. These models will show us how to mark different translated texts.

2. Translation Quality

According to Cary and Jumpelt (1963) defining the quality of translation was first discussed in the third conference of the International Federation of Translators on Quality in 1959. So far, within the field of translation studies, translation evaluation has received much attention and there have always been some efforts to investigate the issue both in theory and in practice.

As House (2001) puts it forward:

Translation quality is a problematical concept if it is taken to involve individual and externally motivated value judgment alone. Obviously, passing any “final judgment” on the quality of a translation that fulfils the demands of scientific objectivity is very difficult indeed (p. 255).

The bottom line here is the existing difficulties in determining scientific factors and objective criteria for translation evaluation on one hand and the inevitable subjective part of any translation evaluation by human on the other hand, as House (2001) himself mentions, should not make the assumption that inquiry in the field of translation evaluation is worthless.

Bearing this in mind, it can be interesting to point out that a considerable number of scholars have worked in this field. Lauscher (2000, as cited in Manaﬁ Anari, 2004) puts forward that “translation scholars have tried to improve practical translation quality assessment by developing models which allow for reproducible, intersubjective judgment (e.g. Reiss 1972, Wilss 1977, Amman 1993, Gerzymisch-Abrogast 1977)”. Lauscher (2000, ibid) claims that “they [the translation scholars] hoped to achieve this goal [improving a practical translation quality assessment] by building their models on scientific theories of translation, which can provide a yardstick, and by introducing a systematic procedure for evaluation.” Apart from this, House (2001) presents a similar viewpoint where he claims that translation quality assessment requires a theory of translation.

Similarly, in the context of translation teaching some scholars have also introduced some suggestions for translation evaluation (e.g. Delisle 1993; Hurtado 1995; Nord 1988 and 1996; Kussmaul 1995; Pym 1996; Gouadec 1981 and 1989; Presas 1996).

3. Approaches In Translation Quality Evaluation


Text-based approaches may be informed by linguistics, comparative literature or functional models. In linguistically-based approaches, pairs of source and target texts are compared with a view to discovering syntactic, semantic and pragmatic regularities of transfer.

Therefore this approach is based on comparison between the source and the target texts. On the other hand, according to Reiss (1971), in text-based approaches the source text is of prime importance and the text type determines the kind of translation strategy. Reiss (1971) herself introduced a systematic approach to translation quality assessment which was text-based too.
Related to this text-based approach for translation quality evaluation, four different approaches can be introduced: a source-language-oriented approach, a target-language-oriented approach, a translation-effect-oriented approach, and a top-down or a bottom-up approach. These four approaches will be briefly explained below.

3.1. A source-language-oriented approach

Here, the emphasis is both on the source text and on the concept of equivalence. In this approach, evaluation will be made based on the type of the source text which itself determines the translation strategy and the equivalence.

3.2. A target-language-oriented approach

Here, the emphasis is on the naturalness of the translated text in comparison with the similar texts existing in the target language.

3.3. A translation-effect-oriented approach

Here, the emphasis is on the effect of the translated text on a teacher, on a critic, on a client, or generally on a reader of the translation. This approach is similar to Nida’s dynamic equivalence.

3.4. A top-down or a bottom-up approach

In a top-down approach, translation evaluation is based on holistic and general factors and in a bottom-up approach, the evaluation is based on details.

The first three approaches mentioned above are also illustrated in chapter 5 in Chesterman (1997).

4. Some Theoretical Factors Related To Translation Evaluation

Before introducing any factors related to translation evaluation, we should determine why we want to evaluate a translation or what our purpose for evaluating a translation is. According to Tajvidi (2003: as cited in Farahzad, 2004), the purposes for the evaluation of translation fall into the following categories: evaluation for educational goals, evaluation for employing a translator (something like a job interview), and evaluation for the purpose of criticizing.

Actually, it can be helpful to determine the purpose(s) of our translation evaluation and then try to judge the quality of that translation.

In the present study, the purpose is to suggest practical models useful for educational purposes and goals so the theoretical factors mentioned here are basically related to educational setting and environment. The factors are listed below:

1. Our translation evaluation approach.
2. Text typology and some other textual features such as the level of text difficulty and etc.
3. The purpose of translation.
4. The competence of translators (especially in educational setting and among translation students).
5. The efficiency of educational system.
6. The readers of the translation.
7. The expectations of translation students. This factor is related to the analysis of the students’ needs.
The application of all of these theoretical factors in designing any practical model for translation evaluation might be difficult. However, in the proposed models, we have tried to include as many factors as possible.

5. Practical Models For Translation Evaluation

Throughout the history, there has always been a debate between the importance of meaning and form in any kind of translation. According to Newmark (1988) the real intention of translation is to transfer the meaning of the source language (SL) to the target language (TL). However, this meaning is constant because after getting the meaning of the SL, the translator should convey it into the form of the TL so the form certainly differs. Considering these two factors (meaning and form), we can say that there are two kinds of translation. Larson (1984) calls these kinds meaning-based translation and form-based translation.

Farahzad (2004) claims that “translation is traditionally understood as the transferring of meaning”. Therefore, in the process of translation, it can be said that meaning is the key factor; it is constant. It is the form that differs and it is at the service of meaning.

The proposed models are two-dimensional and are based on text typology. In these models, meaning and form are the main criteria for translation evaluation and the point-scoring method is out of 20.

Meaning itself includes four subcategories: (1) meaning transferring, (2) source theme/concept, (3) cohesion/coherence, and (4) terminological consistency. Meaning transferring of the following three elements is important here: (1) keywords, (2) secondary words, and (3) cultural load. Form includes four subcategories too: (1) style, (2) register, (3) addition/deletion/punctuation, and (4) audience/time/place.

As mentioned before, the proposed models are based on text typology. Three kinds of texts have been covered here, which are: (1) general texts, (2) literary texts, and (3) technical texts. Based on the importance of all the criteria and factors in any kind of these texts, the criteria and factors will receive a special mark.

![Fig. 1. Translation Evaluation Criteria](image)

Fig. 1. Translation Evaluation Criteria

In the following tables, three different models will be presented, which show these criteria in detail. **Note:** in all of these figures $m$ stands for marks.

As it is shown in table 1, in our translation evaluation of general texts, the mark given to meaning factors is 12 and the mark given to form factors is 8. Among the meaning factors, meaning transferring has the highest mark, which is 5. Among the form factors, the highest mark is given to style, which is 2.5.
Evaluation Criteria for Translation of General Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for Evaluation of General Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning Factors (12 m)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Transferring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key-words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the general criteria for translation evaluation of literary texts. As it is shown, the general criteria and factors are the same as in table 1. However, the marks given to them differ; for example, the mark given to meaning is 9.5 and the one given to form is 10.5. Here, among the meaning factors, again the highest mark, which is 5, is given to meaning transferring. Among the form factors, both the style and register have the highest mark, which is 3.

Evaluation Criteria for Translation of Literary Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for Evaluation of Literary Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning Factors (9.5 m)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Transferring</td>
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<tr>
<td>Key-words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Words</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Evaluation Criteria for Translation of Technical Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria for Evaluation of Technical Texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Meaning Factors (14 m)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Transferring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Key-words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Words</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the general criteria for translation evaluation of technical texts. Again here, the general criteria and factors are the same as what was covered in the previous tables.
However, the marks, which are given to meaning and form factors, are again different. Here, the marks given to meaning and form factors are 14 and 6, respectively. Among the meaning factors, the highest mark, 7, is given to meaning transferring. Among the form factors, the highest mark, 2, is given to register.

6. A Survey Study

Bowker (2000) states that “in a translation classroom, efforts must be made to develop an approach to translation evaluation that enables evaluators to provide objective and constructive feedback to their students.” As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this article is to suggest practical models useful for educational settings. Therefore, in order to explore the ideas of some translation teachers about the proposed models discussed in this article, we did a survey study. The survey study was an attempt to answer the following questions: to what extent were these models acceptable for translation teachers? And if they didn’t agree with them, what was the main reason for their disagreement? The subjects of this study were 40 translation teachers, who were randomly selected and asked to fill in a questionnaire, which was designed by the researchers to identify their ideas about the models.

6.1. The 1st Question Answer

Out of these 40 participants, 24 subjects agreed with the models which equals to 60 percent; 14 subjects didn’t agree with it which equals to 35 percent and finally 2 teachers didn’t have any idea about it which equals to 5 percent.

Fig. 2 represents the data.

6.2. The 2nd Question Answer

To find an answer to the second question, the researchers included three reasons in the questionnaire. These reasons were:
1. Disagreement with the general criteria
2. Disagreement with the factors
3. Disagreement with the point-scoring method.

As mentioned earlier, 14 subjects disagreed with the models. Among them, 6 subjects chose the first reason, 3 subjects chose the second reason and 5 subjects chose the third one. The result is presented in Fig. 3.
6.3. Discussion of the Survey Study

The data gathered in this survey study shows that 60 percent of translation teachers agree with the models suggested here so the models can be used for evaluating translated texts. However, some teachers disagreed with the models and the data showed that the main reason for their disagreement was the general criteria chosen in the models.

7. Conclusion

The present study was an attempt to suggest practical models for translation evaluation. Based on text typology, we introduced three different models. Our models were two-dimensional and meaning and form were chosen as the main criteria in them. The marks given to these criteria and their factors were based on their importance in the text of the models. In order to explore the ideas of translation teachers about the models, we did a survey study and it became clear that 60 percent of the teachers agreed with them so it was supported that the models are useful for translation evaluation and majority of translation teachers have a strong favour to use them. Finally, as Colina (2008) claims, the existing approaches to translation quality evaluation have some deficiencies so the models presented in this article are no exceptions and they may have some weaknesses too.

References


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KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND MENTAL CAPACITY IN TRAINING PROCESS

Abstract

Present methodology has legalized an extremely abstract approach in learning objects. Not only what is cognized matters, but also what is implied. The first priority in training we give to a social creativity and every participant of communication as a part of global activity. Discourse modelling is an essential tool, which overlaps with knowledge management. We attempt to amplify the synergy of speech production and speech perception by a variety of imaging methods watching the circuitry of time relation and investigating brain areas which affect comprehension and semantic relations.

The focus is made on the mechanism of attention as a global feature, self-attention as part of mental capacity, and their role in training process. The crucial importance of inner speech in achieving linguistic awareness is emphasized. Knowledge management is accepted as an ability of balancing between chaos and order in the synergy of discourse.

Keywords: communication, social creativity, implications, synergy, comprehension, linguistic awareness

1. Introduction

The work is a small look on mind operation and speech production from the point of intelligence nature based on cognitive science observations. Language acquisition is traced within the frames of knowledge management.

Definition of knowledge explains handling the information on the level of data and on that of experience. Speech training is suggested to be viewed as a part of knowledge management taking into consideration essential intellectual faculty as argumentation and attention. Linguistic awareness is the main component of discursive competence. Global concretization approach is suggested as a means of intensification of training process.

The article is structured as follows: knowledge management, mental aspect of communication, and mental capacity and training.

2. Knowledge management

2.1. The basis of research

The work has been based on the credit of cognitive science which has made its presence firmly known in the philosophy of language and epistemology – a modern revival of rationalism – as well as constituting a substantial field in modern linguistics.

Within philosophy, familiar names include Daniele Dennett, who writes from a computational system prospective, John Searle known for his controversial Chinese room, Jerry Fodor, who advocates functionalism, and Douglas Hofstadter, questioning the nature of words and thought. In the realm of linguistics Noam Chomsky and George Lakoff have been influential.
In artificial intelligence Marvin Minsky and Kevin Warwick, and popular names in the field of psychology include James McClelland and Steven Pinker.

2.2. Learning and developing

Learning and developing are processes, by which we acquire knowledge and information over time. Research of learning and developing aims to explain the mechanisms, by which these processes might take place.

A major question in the study of cognitive development is the extent to which certain abilities are innate or learned. The nativist view emphasizes that certain features are innate to an organism and are determined by its genetic endowment. The empiricist view, on the other hand, emphasizes that certain abilities are learned from environment. In the area of language acquisition, for example, some have argued that specific information containing universal grammar rules must be contained in genes, whereas others find these claims biologically unrealistic. They argue that genes determine the architecture of a learning system, but that specific “facts” about how grammar works can only be learnt as a result of experience.

2.3. Knowledge and cognition

Language is represented as constructive element of global knowledge being not only a means of thought transmission, but an instrument of thought formation as well.

Definition of knowledge has passed through 3 stages:
1) Selection of facts.
2) Information exchange.
3) The sequence > Information > Knowledge > Wisdom as a part of experience.

To avoid an attempt of equalizing knowledge and information we suggest the definition of knowledge which proves the following difference:

“Knowledge is the result of cognition empirically confirmed and logically certified. Product of the process of cognizing the reality is an adequate reflection of this reality in human mind by means of abstract notions, ideas or theories.” (Philosophical Dictionary, 1983).

Knowledge is systematic, not contradictive, objective, and independent of human will. In other words, it is the reality – ready for cognition and comprehension at the given moment. Information is just the opposite: subjective, doubtful to be true to life. This is a circulation of various data transmitted by different means. Although data is a discrete entity, the progression to information/knowledge, and finally to wisdom, does not occur in discrete stages of development.

*One progresses along the continuum as one’s understanding develops* (Bellinger, 2003).

The peak of knowledge is wisdom, which is identified with comprehension. Understanding immediately correlates with integrity. When one is able to amass sufficient data and information to form a complete pattern I understood I would have knowledge. An important part of knowledge should be taken into consideration. This is mental lexicon/knowledge about the words of the language, their phonological, semantic and syntactic properties. This knowledge is stored in a component of long-term memory and accessed automatically by a native speaker. Foreign language learner acquires mental lexicon through logical analyses and mostly keeps the received knowledge in a short-term memory until it reaches the level of skill. Being focused on the mental lexicon the learner misses knowledge as a part of continuum. Viewing the language as a natural object of reality we take into consideration three levels: elements, relations, and the whole entity. Due to its synergy the language as a modeling
system is able to find its optimal state in any external changes and spontaneously turn into any static formation. Certain text being a final product of text activity is nothing but a combination and recombination of different data until it occurs as a decision made by means of inner modeling. The more awareness inner modeling has the better realization of a decision (Alder, 2001).

So information (experience) is the entity of knowledge, cognition and cognizer — that is individual cognitive system (ICS).

2.4. Managing knowledge

Knowledge management has to do with operating discursive processing. Management of discourse is performed by such inner qualities as imagination, will, logic and emotional characteristics, coordination of which belongs to inner speech. Blending of speech production and speech perception is achieved when linguistic awareness occurs.

Linguistic awareness is concentration of mind on a certain domain taken from the initial chaotic information flow and organized in a certain text. Knowledge management would be the capture, retention and reuse for foundation for imparting and understanding how all these pieces fit together and how to convey them meaningfully to some other person. Discursive activity — communication on textual level — is a simultaneous process of speech production and speech perception.

3. Mental aspect of communication

3.1. Understanding – key question of communication

Communicative aspect of discourse is realized in setting up a dialogue, real or implied, between a sender and a receiver of the information. In the present world of informational exchange humanity faces the choice between correct contacts and distorted facts.

Communication is defined as follows: transferring signals from one person to another with the intention of bringing about understanding, a certain opinion or certain response from the other. Understanding indicates points of speech production and perception blending inside the field of central cognitive process, which causes statements, arguments, emotional tinge and attracting attention and other emotional and intellectual signs leading to acquiring a new knowledge. The process of blending runs unconsciously, but it is easily stimulated by jokes illustrations and poetry. Blending is specified by wholeness of mind (Sukhikh, 1998).

3.2. Argumentation

Understanding bears slight similarity with argumentation, which also aims at reaching utterance through certain cognitive activities. But argumentation runs consciously. Argumentation and presentation of knowledge enter the synergetic process of speech production and perception and change discursive structure.

Text construction is exercised in two ways:

Artificially/professionally expecting the planned structure
Creatively/from chaos to order as per Universe structure

Argumentation bears artificial tinge due to expectancy and deliberate activities. Understanding is creativity of thought, while proceeding the way to the source of its admission and reconstructing this admission until it is shaped. And the shape is the relation of various intellects.
3.3. Successful utterance as a result of proper communicative strategy

Availability of ideas and utterances and their realization in understanding should be provided as the state (Mamardashvili 1997) and the text of communicators. Only then it is possible to get linguistic awareness and find the way to linguistic competence, which in turn develops the skill of knowledge management.

Ability to create a successful utterance within the frame of a given context and developing new contexts can be called discursive competence. Discursive competence is attained in the dynamic communicative process including logical, intellectual, emotional and psychological aspects.

Strategy of communication is an essential tool for the speaker to realize his intentions in discourse. From psychological point of view strategy is a global means for achieving the purpose. Typical good strategy is achieving successful utterance (Van Daik, 1989). The structure of discursive strategy is influenced by personal system of values, contentions, opinions and social patterns.

3.4. Cognitive dissonance – a communicative drive of individual cognitive system

Human being is a gem with four points:

*Body, soul/ imagination, activity, contact*

Discursive activity is a process of intellectual activity aiming at realization of Self. Psychiatrists call intellectual activity of a person “activity of a soul” intended to perceive and realize one’s “I” (self) (Kursk, 1999). Purpose of self-realization is to avail and overcome understanding barrier. According to the theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1999) the system of knowledge is compiled of separate elements, which are in contradicting relations to each other.

Speech production is a process driven by cognitive dissonance itself to liquidate these contradictions and create so natural for human beings intellectual coordination of phenomena assumptions, opinions. So, appearance of dissonance is followed by an intensive communication.

Passive opinion of a separate ICS when entering discourse is spontaneously modified to a conceptual structure of an informational flow getting into “here and now” process of intellectual integration. Certain text implies certain affect on communication and reflection.

3.5. Discourse modeling

From psychological point of view, reflection is the act where the flow of information sent gets analyzed. Processed by mind, information is made linguistically aware. Sender intends to deliver the information to the awareness of a sendee. The sendee is affected in this interaction both emotionally and esthetically. The power of influence depends on style of a sender and the scope of linguistic awareness of a sendee. Proper strategy of discourse structure paves way to a receiver-friendly utterance.

**Modeling Means:**

*Fortification, Changing communication spars, Coordination of cogniotype modifications, Argumentation, Confirmation*

Presentation modeling may be fortified by discursive markers. For example:

**Non Marked:**

All the vessels transiting high risk areas are being escorted by military patrol and tracked by the office.
Marked:
All the vessels transiting high risk areas are being escorted by military patrol. What is more, they are tracked by the office.

3.6. Awareness of thinking process

Every text within the frames of textual activities as an integrity of production, processing and understanding should be modeled from top–down procedure, not excluding bottom–up procedure as well. In the process of communication, intersection of discourses is observed.

The intersection may be sparred by different subtexts originating from the global text. Intersection of discourses indicates awareness of informational flow by enlarging textual format. Awareness of thinking processes is verbalized by means of such cognitive functions as planning, assumption, and conclusion. Process of inner verbalization is also taken into consideration. Sentence image is not always expressed in words (may be pictorial explication) – in this case, intellect starts operating on a casual level: accusation, approval, fantasy, idle thinking. A minor message, remark or reminder may be enough for verbal realization of causal function of ICS (Baranov, A. 1993).

3.7. Verbalization and implication in cogniotype structuring

A functional unit in verbalizing process is cogniotype, which correlates with a text or a group of texts of a certain domain. For example, the domain Sea Disaster is formed by various discourses: fiction, educational, institutional, professional one etc. Professional discourse of the domain “Sea Disasters” is considered within specific frames: collisions, the list of the vessels, grounding, fire, explosion, hull damage, troubles in the engine room, injuries, and fatalities.

Within the logical entity of the domain Sea Disasters, which is organized in time and space, there appear implications. They become logically accessible under certain orchestration of discourse. The most frequent of them are:

- Fear – dangerous /not dangerous, major/minor event.
- Significance of event for:
  Sender  –  Receiver
  \_\_\_\_
  Role of witness <  > role of participant
- Desires – to rescue/to survive, to satisfy commercial interest, to accuse/to reject accusation.

The notion disaster is specified with terms accident – an event which involves personal injuries or fatalities – or incident – an event connected with damage to cargo or equipment. The term near miss is widely used and it denotes incident or accident, which could have happened.

In general communicative context of marine professional discourse of the domain Sea Disasters, two valuable concepts are behind the text format:

- safety of crew, cargo and equipment;
- search for usefulness of the event, which could have occurred (near miss gives a learning opportunity).

Analyses of interpretations confirm the hypothesis that the text is a dynamic system, which is discovered in the process of transposing different plenitudes of elements. Transposing is followed by multiplying meanings and may be called derivation, which is apt to self-organization. Orchestration of language clusters in speech produced by the intention of a sender may lead the receiver of the information to rather interesting interpretations.
4. Mental capacity and training

4.1. Stimulating mental capacity

For any training process to be effective, an ability to embrace and process the scope of information called mental capacity of a learner should be evaluated.

Total mental capacity (100%) is subdivided into:

- Free mental capacity 90%
- Situational demand 10%

When it goes for mind, the subdivision is as follows:

- **Conscious mind**, which has to do with sensing, understanding, will power and learning. Conscious mind is very logical and analytical. It makes decisions. Only 10% of total mind is active.
- **Subconscious mind** amounts 90% of total and runs autonomously being connected with nervous system, affecting breathing and tissues. One is not able to control it consciously.
- **Critical factor** is a little guard between conscious and subconscious mind. It functions to protect one from the influence of other ideas.

Human ability to process may fall and rise. Vulnerability of learners’ thinking process while training their mental abilities should be managed by the following means: planning, motivating (pretence of interest is a good motivation), encouraging, creating communication as the main background of classroom activities, building up communication basic pillars: respect, recognition, realization, good climate, close look.

4.2. Orchestration of training

Ability to create a successful utterance within the frame of a given context and developing new contexts can be called discursive competence achieving, which should be a paramount task of speech training. Option number one in training should be discursive functions: attracting and distracting attention, cohesion, contradictions confirmation, using appropriate strategies for making decisions in organizing discursive spaces.

Having acquired communicative strategies the learners easily make way in natural dialogue as if “automatically” selecting speech producing means, because discourse is apt to self-organization, self-modification and self management.

For the learner to enter discursive space it is important to revert to the Self of one recognizing one’s all possible credits. Realization of Self runs in tandem with constructing cognitotype. After partial realization, one’s Self proceeds and enters the field of others’ Self striving to understand the perceived.

Main principle of class activities is implemented in sharing emotions, formulating causal understanding, reproducing memory. All these actions assist to flexibly merge into social creativity. The recommended tools for social creativity are:

- **Planning and delegating** – good tools to prevent stress.
- **Priority setting** – What you can do just now and what can be postponed for the time being.
- **Speaking up** – Each participant must have his share in communication.
- **Attention** is a very important part of communication.

Social creativity is connected with redistributing of activities in trainer–trainee relationship. Trainer is modeled not as an active part of interaction, but as a conscious initiator of commu-
nicipative process observing the class activities and monitoring the intersection of discourses (Khristeva, 2001).

Training is orchestrated as integrity of global context:

\( (\text{Group} + \text{authentic material and a concrete ICS+ text}) \)

It is a synergetic process of declarative knowledge representation and procedural knowledge functioning, which leads to linguistic awareness.

4.3. Global concretization approach

The method of global concretization is a mechanism of involving the audience into textual interpretation activity, organizing and managing the dynamic conversational stream, and leading it to self-organization. Training is orchestrated by filling mental spaces with data, which are converted into information in the process of didactic discourse. Rotated information merges into construction of cogniotype, which enters natural speech within the frames of given contexts. Further processing of discourse builds up new contexts. From chaotic processing originates synergy of text order.

In order to smoothly transform didactic motivation of trainees to answer the lesson’s material into natural pragmatic motivation to persuade and influence others, insight into the learners’ thinking ability and emotional state is required. Assumption that (un)conscious mental process is just a causal sequence of (un)conscious mind (Fodor 2001) proves that causal function of intellect (fantasy, remembrance) mostly runs idle. It prompts an opportunity to engage causal function by involving the imaginary faculty of mind in discourse modeling while training. Imagination excites memory of soul which keeps the past and presents some kind of creativity.

Construction of cogniotypes is exercised by mechanical memory, which can be long-term and short-term memory. Activating of both types of memory in the variety of memory stimulating exercises is a complex issue of classroom activities. It is impossible to draw a clear line between bringing a thought into being and encoding the thought – putting it into words, but it is also possible to watch and “to catch” foreign languages learners’ perceptive for speech producing state – a kind of synesthesia of cognition and communication. “Catching” states has to do with managing one’s attention. Human beings are so oddly constructed, that they allow their attention to have managed instead of being aware of their specific tasks at the moment. It can be explained by faster operation of right (imaginary) hemisphere of our brain if compared with the left (logical) one. In mental operation, global structure is perceived in the first place (at a very high speed), and then attention is drawn to specific details.

4.4. Attention managing – the most important part of training process

Attention is a kind of a separate body-unit. Revelation for a scientific world may be the fact that attention is a tool by means of which thinking process is performed. But attention is “installed” separately from reasoning, not in parallel with mind operation. Being energy of matter intellect merges into perceiving I/self, and functions as a result of search according to the following scheme:

\[ \text{Education} + \text{Upbringing} + \text{Search} = I/Mind/chip \]

The scheme reveals two polar zones of attention: I/chip/ and environment. In order to be activated, any scheme requires power. Power is accumulated within the triangle of \textit{rhythm, tension and enlightened state of mind}. Proper usage of the triangle sides reflects the following \textit{key performance indicators} /KPI/ in speech training: \textit{Speak up, use clear language, confirm}
messages, talk and listen, create and diminish cognitive dissonance, build up linguistic awareness (if you are aware that you constantly anticipate what may follow), develop attitude to speaking as to that of performance but not a theory. Doing is completely different from knowing about it. So while training, equal attention should be paid both to lexicon and discursive strategies.

Consequently the trainer should:

Invite to speak up
Ask for input and feedback
State your intentions and goals
Make the group participate
Be rather a witness than a participant
Give clear orders
Set clear assignments

Setting ambiguous assignments may mislead the trainees. As an example may serve the following task: How many squares are there? If not indicated, the color and the number will vary significantly.

Picture 1. KPI will provide a reliable tool of balancing between two main pillars I/self and environment. When balance is attained, the way to enlighten the mind is paved by accelerating discursive activities. Thinking process is accelerated with the help of developing writing, imagination and inner speech. Writing is closely connected to argumentation and keeps the writer concentrated. Imagination is stimulated by a variety of exercises assisting perception. An example may serve how people process optical illusions.

![Picture 1]

Picture 1.

Picture 2 shows bistable percept. Is the triangle looking towards you or away from you? The triangle can be interpreted in two different directions.

![Picture 2]

Picture 2.
Picture 3 presents cognitive task allowing to link behavior and brain function.

This is, without a doubt, one of the coolest PC-Illusions I have seen so far.

Follow the instructions:
1. Relax and concentrate on the 4 small dots in the middle of the picture for about 30-40 seconds.
2. Then take a look at a wall near you (any smooth, single-coloured surface).
3. You will see a circle of light developing.
4. Start blinking your eyes a couple of times and you will see a figure emerging …
5. What do you see? Moreover, who do you see?

Picture 3.

Picture 4 agitates projective function of a brain.

Plentitude of memory stimulating exercises of inner speech: remembering one’s childhood, the first air flight, the last day at school etc. provide neural activity in the part of a brain responsible for discursive activity and enlarge KPI of training. Inner speech plays a crucial role in discursive process. The advantage of inner speech stimulating lies in its higher velocity if compared with pronounced utterances. Implementing the principle of Palmer’s drills (repetition of the same thing) will affect performance of discourse. Besides, when accustomed to watching “the flow of ideas”, trainees acquire the most important skill – concentration.

Whatever tools may be suggested and how precious they may be, one issue should be given a priority: Discursive action is based on spontaneous reaction and mental dexterity of both trainer and trainee. The optimal speech trainer is the one who stores information for later retrieval and managing it, taking into account the nature of the intelligence.

5. Conclusions

1. When processed information steps up from data level to knowledge/experience level.
2. Experience is a manifestation of competence.
3. Linguistic competence is achieved by developing skills of knowledge management.
4. Ability to manage knowledge has to do with situational and linguistic awareness that is based on a skill of balancing between chaos and order.
5. Attention is a part of mental capacity.
6. Training of speech should proceed from a thorough investigation of personality/behavior, reaction and neural activity of the brain to a successful utterance in the synergy of discourse.
7. Inner speech is an essential element of discourse.
Abbreviations
ICS – Individual Cognitive System
KPI – Key Performance Indicators

References

Curriculum Vitae

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TRANSLATION – A USEFUL TOOL 
IN MARITIME ENGLISH TEACHING

Abstract

Nobody should attempt to grasp new words without understanding their meaning and the way they are used together with other words in contexts. This paper is an attempt to lay stress on the role played by translation in Maritime English teaching. Apart from acquiring the reading, speaking, listening and writing skills of a language, students should also develop translational skills, especially when dealing with texts consisting of rich polysemantic words or words that present collocational restrictions. Even if translation as a teaching technique has been regarded as subsidiary or has been objected to on the ground that it does not encourage the learner to look for meanings in the sentences and the situations in which they are presented, it is of utmost importance to admit that it is a useful and quick way of introducing new words. Since language differs considerably from one situation of use to another, we will make a distinction between maritime English and standard English by highlighting the features of the specific situations in which English is used.

Keywords: translation, teaching, translating cultures, communicative competence, maritime English vs. standard English

1. Introduction

With the development of science, technology and commerce, English has become the accepted international language and the ever growing demand for it to suit particular needs and interests has brought about the growth of English for specific purposes. The learners’ motivation and the effectiveness of their learning became the focal point. Therefore, the courses were tailored so as to meet ‘relevance’ to the learners’ needs and interests, in other words, to point towards an increased specialization in language learning.

Maritime English has been adopted by IMO as the language of the sea and the STCW 95 Convention requires that seafarers must have proficiency in understanding and using Maritime English. The ISM Code was adopted in order to reduce and eliminate communication failures, whereas SMCP were developed to ensure safety. Maritime English teachers have been more and more aware of the importance of choosing the best teaching techniques that aim to develop main language skills. Proper teaching techniques will ensure the quality of our non-native English speaking students in the global maritime community. Therefore, the emphasis is laid on training students to use language for effective communication. This paper is an attempt to demonstrate that translation is part of effective communication process and it is also a very useful technique in Maritime English language teaching. But no translation can be analyzed without bringing into awareness the cultural element. In the field of translation, cross-cultural communication poses both practical and theoretical challenges. Firstly, there are a number of concerns related to practical issues due to culturally divergent ways of communications. Secondly, cross-cultural communication represents a theoretical challenge since clarifications have to be sought in the framework of the theory of language, which will account for socio-cultural determinants of meaning and use.
2. Translation and the cultural element

The concept of translation can be traced back to Quintilian’s Institutio Oratoria in which he stresses “the usefulness of paraphrasing a given text as a means of assisting the student both to analyse the structures of a text and to experiment in turn with forms of embellishment and abridgement” (Bassnet, S., 1991). Some scholars defined translation as an art, others as a science, while another regarded it as a craft.

R. Jakobson (1959) distinguishes three types of translation:

- intralingual translation, or re-wording (an interpretation of signs by means of other language signs in the same language)
- interlingual translation, or translation proper (an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs, in the same language)
- intersemiotic translation or transmutation (an interpretation of the verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal signs system). He considers that there is no complete equivalence through translation, and even apparent synonymy does not yield equivalence, because each unit contains within itself a set of non-transferable associations and connotations.

Translation implies the transfer of the source language text (ST) into the target language text (TL). Thus, in the process of translation there are two languages involved, two different cultures. Cultural elements appear in the text on all levels, from the concept and form of words to the sentence and text structure. Texts are regarded as means of oral and written communication, so they are carriers of messages. And any message within a specialized discourse field entails both subject-relevant information as well as some implicit references to the cultural background of the person speaking. In the field of translation cultural issues are related to the problem of understanding the texts to be translated, because in many cases the translator may not be a member of the same culture. Cultural elements are regarded as being a background of knowledge, which is generally relevant for adequate communication within a society:

“Culture, being what people have to learn as distinct from their biological heritage, must consist of the end product of learning: knowledge, in a most general, if relative, sense of the term. By this definition, we should note that culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people, behavior, or emotions. It is rather an organization of these things. It is the forms of things that people have in mind, their models for perceiving, relating, and otherwise interpreting them (Goodenough, 1964).

Thus, translation is both interlingual and intercultural communication. Following Nida and Taber (1969) we would point out that the cultural context includes both the total culture within which communication takes place and the specific non-linguistic circumstances or factors of the communication. Proper handling of the cultural context by the translator relies to a great extent on his cultural knowledge, information and documentation. The concept of translation across cultures implies all this.

3. Maritime English teaching

The mixture of seafarers’ different cultures makes Maritime English a compulsory linguistic medium regarding the safety of life at sea, ship property, pollution preventions, etc. People commonly believe that knowledge and skills of Maritime English can ensure the effectiveness of communication between English speaking and non-English speaking seafarers. Proper command of Maritime English is not only ‘a must’ for the seafarers’ safety but also for the appropriate operation of ships.

Communication has been the buzzword of language teaching in the past thirty years, thus leading to special interest in teaching practical uses of language. According to Bachman L.
International Maritime English Conference IMEC 21 – Szczecin, Poland

(quoted by Croitoru, 1996), “most current frameworks of language use are based on the concept of language as communication, and recognize the importance of the context, both discourse and sociolinguistic, in which language is used”. The development of communicative teaching will be based on a theoretical model of communicative language ability.

Although IMO has officially adopted Maritime English as the language of maritime industry, there is a clear necessity for ensuring seafarers to gain Maritime English communication skills in the current globalization of the world shipping market. In order to train high-quality seafarers, Maritime English instructors should aim at teaching the particular terminology and communication skills that comprise listening, speaking, reading and writing as required by IMO conventions.

Maritime English instructors have so far tried to duplicate the skills of the native English speaker in the non-native English speaker. Therefore, students are taught the functions of language or the rules of grammar known by the native speakers. Nevertheless, “the model for language teaching should be the fluent L2 user, not the native speaker, what may be called intercultural communicative competence” (Croitoru, 1996). This enables language teaching to have relevant and fruitful goals for students. The communicative approach to Maritime English teaching focuses on communicative activities on language as a means of communication.

3.1. Translation in the context of Maritime English teaching

One of the main roles (among others) of Maritime English instruction is also the way in which it pays attention to the meaning of words, the lexical combinations, especially collocations, and terminology specific to a certain field of interest (i.e. marine engineering, maritime law, etc.). Students learning tasks have to go together with more formal language work, that is, translation-oriented texts. Thus, controlled language work by translation should be included here since most language teaching is designed to teach students to communicate.

We regard translation as a useful technique in Maritime English teaching, because students cannot acquire an adequate vocabulary without understanding the exact meaning of words used in contexts. This can only be fulfilled by means of translation.

There have been many objections to the use of translation as a foreign language teaching technique. One of these objections refers to the fact that it does not stimulate the learner to seek for meanings in relation between the sentences and the situations in which they are presented. But according to Croitoru (1996) “this is not valid as long as the learner is able to establish deep structures representing common propositions expressed differently in the source language (SL) and target language (TL)”.

Another objection is due to the fact that it is not always possible to translate exactly and this is because “not all languages have words for exactly the same concepts, and it is often the case that in a given language there is not really a word which means the same as a word in another language” (Harmer, 1991). Nevertheless, we shall admit that translation is a quick and easy way of presenting the meanings of new words, especially those presenting polysemy or collocational restrictions. We agree with Croitoru (1996) who states that “the deep structures representations enable the learner to relate two sentences, both within one language and across languages, by reference to the basic proposition that is common to both of them”. The kinds of messages which people communicate by means of sentences are of utmost importance, because this is the essence of communicative competence.

An important aspect that should be taken into consideration when referring to translation as part of Maritime English teaching and learning process is the vocabulary. According to Pritchard B. (2008) “the term 'maritime vocabulary' should be distinguished from 'technical terminology' in that the latter refers to a standardized set of vocabulary used by a body of peers or an institution”. Technical terminology and vocabulary are possible to be regarded as
‘narrow’ and ‘wide’ in scope, that is why he finds it necessary to create a ‘minimum maritime vocabulary’ “which stands for the vocabulary enabling communication, understanding and cognition of maritime discourse used by specific speakers of English to meet the knowledge, skills and competence requirements for the three levels set out in IMO STCW Convention 1995: operational level – OOW of ships of 500 GT or more, management level – master of ships of 3000 GT or more, and support level – ratings making part of a navigational/ engineering watch”. Thus, he subdivides Maritime English into subsets, according to the subject-matter or extra-linguistic contents to which it refers:

- Nautical English (also referred to as ‘seafaring English’ or ‘the language of the sea’);
- Technical English (marine engineering English, but also electrical engineering, marine technology, technology of transport, etc.);
- Maritime English for communications, electronics, automation, information science, computer science;
- Legal English (used in shipping, maritime administration; maritime law and law of the sea also IMO conventions, codes, etc.);
- Business English (shipping, logistics and management of maritime transport, etc.).

Most methodologists rightly believe that experiments on the vocabulary seem to suggest that students remember best when they have actually done something with the word they have learned or are learning. Tasks such as translating from the foreign language into the mother tongue and vice versa, or changing words to mean their opposite, or making a noun an adjective, making up collocations, help to fix the words in the students mind (Croitoru, 1996). We consider translation technique the optimal way of helping students become properly acquainted with words. In other words, vocabulary acquisition needs ‘the deep experience’ of translating. This is also a way of providing opportunities for students to discover for themselves what a word means and how and why it is being used.

3.1.1. Students’ active and passive vocabulary

The active vocabulary refers to the vocabulary students have acquired and which they are expected to be able to use. The passive vocabulary consists of the words which students can only recognize when coming across them, but which they cannot use.

As far as Maritime English is concerned, most of the active vocabulary comprises words students somehow “liked”. We can assert that the active vocabulary may consist of words they have often looked up and used. Apart from the general vocabulary, it may also consist of general technical and specialized terms they already know and use frequently. It is believed that the highly specialized vocabulary belongs to the passive vocabulary, because students use it during translation only. A word, which students have in their passive store, may suddenly become active if the situation or the context needs it (Croitoru, 1996). The words which students have learned seem to move between an active and a passive status, which means that the status of the vocabulary items does not seem to have a permanent state of affairs. Thus, involvement with words during translation is likely to help students learn them properly.

3.1.2. Language input and language output classroom activities

J. Harmer (1991) considers that teaching and learning activities should be planned “on the basis of achieving a balance between the different categories of input and output where roughly tuned input and communicative activities will tend to predominate over (but not by any means exclude) controlled language presentation and practice output”. By providing students with a variety of activities, we can enhance their interest and involvement in the lan-
guage programme. Classroom activities can be divided into: classes that give students language input and classes which encourage them to develop language output. The language students receive the input, which is of two types: roughly tuned input and finely tuned input. The former represents the language which students can more or less understand even though it is above their own productive level, whereas the latter is the language selected to suit the students’ level. It is the language selected for learning and teaching and also the level of translation. Within the roughly-tuned input we include the highly specialized texts or texts of a higher degree of difficulty. For example, students may find it difficult to understand the vocabulary items in the text below:

“With a heaving line the hawser is pulled from the vessel onto the embankment by line-handlers. The spring is fastened to the bollard, and while the engine is on half astern, the warping drum picks up the slack. To prevent the line from being fouled, the hawser or spring is led through a fairlead” (Kluijven, 2005).

Language output can be divided into practice and communicative output. Practice refers to the idea that students use new items of language in different contexts and in designing activities which promote the use of specific language. The aim is to give students the opportunity of practicing language structures and functions so that they may deal with items which they wish to internalise more completely than before. At the same time, they are involved in motivating activities, such as translating, which is a very good practice in this respect. Communicative output comprises activities in which students use language as a means for communication because their main focus is to complete a sort of communicative task. Translation can be included here, because, we believe that it becomes an instrument of communication. In most communicative activities, students will use whole language they know, so here we can also include translation.

If there is to be meaningful communication in the classroom, it is essential that there is a common fund of knowledge and interest between teacher and learner (Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A., 1994).

4. Why is translation into the mother tongue more successful than into a second language?

The assumption that translators have a more profound linguistic and cultural background of their mother tongue than of a second language is a common belief.

Thus, it is considered that translators (students) are better at translating into their native language than into the foreign language. Translation into the source language (first language) enables translators/students to render cultural elements such as idioms, metaphors, collocations, etc. into proper equivalents in their mother tongue because such translators are born and bred in the culture into which they translate these culture-bound aspects. Translators’/Students’ first language is naturally acquired, whereas their second language is learned, which means that the linguistic and cultural knowledge of it is always in progress and never complete. James Dickins (2005) rightly argues that: “Translator training normally focuses on translation into the mother tongue, because higher quality is achieved in that direction than in translating into a foreign language”.

Translation into the mother tongue provides the translator/student with some positive aspects regarding the instinctive knowledge of morphological, semantic, syntactic and lexical features of his or her mother tongue. This is because the translator/student acquires these elements naturally in the course of time. As the second language is learned outside its natural context, rather than naturally acquired, translation in this case will be carried out by means of dictionaries or other references, which means that this type of translation provides the student
with some kind of bookish knowledge. Whenever the translator/student is hesitant with respect to the morphological, semantic or lexical rules of the second language into which he/she translates, he/she will have to resort to references and dictionaries. In this respect, Katherine Reiss (2000) points out: “Due to the fact that differences between the grammatical systems of languages are frequently quite great, it is the morphology and syntax of the target language that clearly deserve priority unless there is some overriding factor either in the nature of the text or some special circumstance”.

4.1. Why difficulties in translating?

Some scholars consider that translation is a main technique of the cross-lingual strategy. According to some views, it is a useful language learning activity because it “invites speculation and discussion, develops accuracy, clarity, and flexibility, and can be used to work through particular second language problems that learners are struggling with” (Duff, A., 1987). Translation difficulties involve the difficulties of learning to use a language both receptively and productively. This is put down to the distinction between encoding (productive) and decoding (receptive) linguistic performance and competence (Croitoru, 1996). One of the main problems in translating is that a student learning a second language – in our case Maritime English – tends to transfer rules, habits and meanings from his/her mother tongue. Stern H. (1992) considers that this “has positive results wherever L1 and L2 coincide but it acts as a negative transfer or interference where there are differences”. In this case Romanian students who study Maritime English must make an effort to deliberately learn new rules or develop new habits specific to L2.

Maritime English texts display various lexical features and students may find it difficult to translate them. Therefore, they need their teacher’s support. Students may know the common meaning of a lexical item, but they may be confused when coming across it in a certain context. Under this circumstance, the context will be the support for students’ accurate interpretation of the word. Words have concrete meanings in Maritime English, while in Standard English they may be used both in denotation and connotation. For example, the lexical item ‘adrift’ (adverb) means floating freely, not anchored, in Maritime English, whereas in Standard English it means without purpose; aimless. Similarly, ‘bow’ (noun) means a lowering or inclination of the head or body as a mark of respect, greeting in Standard English, whereas Maritime English (Nautical English) renders it as ‘the forward part of a vessel’. Collocations may also be puzzling for students, because each of the items has its meaning as an individual semantic unit. A few examples may be: deck and log in deck log; ‘hands’ in all hands on deck; cat and stopper in cat stopper, etc.

5. Conclusion

With more and more multilingual and multicultural crews joining the transnational seafarers’ maritime community, their competence in Maritime English becomes a public concern. Removing language barriers has become more and more significant in assisting communication in global community. Communicative competence has become a ‘must’ for seafarers when at sea.

Consequently, Maritime English teachers have had to come up with the state-of-the-art teaching techniques in order to train competent seafarers. Approaches to teaching have focused on communication as a means of developing students’ four skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. The communicative approach to teaching focuses on language as a means of communication. In this category we have also included translation as a useful teaching technique. Thus, we have dealt with the concept of translation in Maritime English language teaching.
Not only do words have different meanings and associations in different cultures, but they also express different personal and/or social attitudes. Accordingly, students must recognize and acknowledge the cultural component when dealing with the translation of texts. Students must gain translation competence in order to be able to localize collocations or other fixed expressions. Translation difficulties involve the challenge of learning to use a language both receptively and productively. Students must perceive the meaning of words and utterances with accuracy in order to render them into the target culture.

To sum up the discussion about the way of interacting with words as well as about active and passive vocabulary, we should stress that translation as a Maritime English language teaching/learning technique is a very good way of ‘engaging the learner’.

References

Curriculum Vitae

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ENGLISH EDUCATION FOR MARINE MONITORING AND MANAGEMENT SYSTEM OF REFRIGERATED CONTAINER

Abstract
Due to the rapid development of world marine refrigeration transportation, such as refrigerated cargo vessels, refrigerated containers and central air conditioning system, a particular course named “Marine refrigeration management and fault diagnosis” has been offered at Shanghai Maritime University in order to enhance the refrigeration transportation safety and raise the technical level of engineering operation on board ship for the potential seafarers.

As it is known, most of the marine refrigerating system accidents during sea transportation in the world are caused by the human elements. The key points for preventing or reducing marine refrigeration faults are the enhancement of the safety consciousness of the seamen and ensurance of the suitable knowledge and technology. Meanwhile, the safety management and fault diagnosis for the marine refrigeration plants is also very important fact. It is a hard and urgent work for us to take every effort for reducing marine refrigeration fault by the English education for Marine refrigeration management and fault diagnosis.

Keywords: marine refrigeration transportation, refrigeration management, fault diagnosis, engineering accidents, human element

1. Introduction
Shanghai Maritime University (SMU) is a multi-discipline university with features in Navigation Technology, Management and Economics. It is the only university with Energy & Power Engineering and Refrigeration and Cryogenic Engineering Master and Doctoral Program in the Ministry of Communications System.

Merchant Marine College (MMC) consists of the Navigation Department, the Marine Engineering Department and the Nautical Science Research Institute. It trains senior navigational professionals, and is thus renowned as a “Cradle of Seafarers”. Our Marine Engineering Department offers a program in Vehicle Application and Engineering as well as three Master programs, such as Refrigeration and Cryogenic Engineering. In recent years, our department assumed more than ten of the provincial and ministerial level topics about reefer container thermal testing and remote monitoring technology, and has maintained good relations with the reefer container manufacturers and scientific research units.

2. Constructive significance of RCL
Shipping Refrigeration Equipment & Transport Engineering and Marine Power Plant are two major research directions of our department. The reefer container laboratory is the Key Laboratory of the Ministry of Communications that can simulate the different working conditions at sea dynamically and support a full range of reefer containers thermal performance testing and energy-
saving technology research. We developed a set of multidisciplinary integrated reefer containers Testing and Control System, covering refrigeration, air-conditioning engineering, automatic control, computer science and so on, including hardware platform and high-precision, real-time monitoring software. With an environment room comprised of a frequency inverter and two sets of parallel operation refrigeration units and a simulation room, which can monitor and control the system at any time, this system can achieve centralized management and unified control.

Fig. 1. The refrigerated containers monitoring and testing system of SMU
1. compressor, 2. expansion valve, 3. evaporator, 4. humidifying valve, 5. fan, 6. differential, 7. high and low pressure controller, 8. cooling water controller, 9. cooling water valve, 10. temperature controller

The terminal device of air-conditioning system uses a vertical air-way supply from the top orifice. In the direct control region, this system can produce air with uniform velocity, temperature and humidity field. The air passes by the cooler, heater, centrifugal fan and sent HIP room, respectively. After stagnation and deposition in the room, the air flows through the orifice away from the reefer container and return to air-conditioned boxes from the tuyere. In this case, before the air flows into the environment room, it has completely mixed in the wind pipe, turning and air shaft HIP room. Unity of temperature and humidity, consistent with the wind, effectively ensure uniformity of the space temperature field in the environment room and the actual test temperature gradient is generally no more than two. Air distribution form of the environment room is shown in the Fig. 2.

Fig. 2. Air organization inside the environment room
Our laboratory has been identified by the Ministry of National Education and is up to the leading domestic and international advanced level.

Our discipline has been committed to the industrialization of research results. Last year we developed a test and control system for the Shanghai Reefer Container Co. Ltd. Due to its reliability, good performance, and easy operation and meeting the requirements of the ATP testing, it has brought us a lot of social and economic benefits by far.

The thermal monitoring and control system can not only precisely test and monitor in real-time the temperature, humidity, velocity, and other important performance parameters of the refrigerated containers, but also provide reliable basis for performance analysis of them. Furthermore, it helps to improve the thermal performance parameters and the economic indicators of the refrigerated containers, and improve the products’ competitiveness in the international market.

3. Comprehensive Control System Characteristics of RCL

System frame is divided into two parts: chamber and testing table, shown as follows.

![System Configuration Diagram]

Fig. 3. Configuration of system

This system can accomplish leakage test, heat loss test and performance test, which is ruled by ISO and ATP according to users’ request. Also, it can implement conditions settings, data collecting, analysis and report printing. Fault diagnosis and expertise analysis can be realized as well. It also involves database system, report managing system, diagnose and expertise system and periphery equipment as well.

3.1. Signal collecting and control system

Inside the container, there are a set of adjusting power organs, electric heater (stimulating heat load inside the container), and 14 PT100 resistance sensors. The temperature points are
laid somewhere 100mm apart from the wall, among which there are two platinum resistances laid at the air delivery port and air-return port respectively, and other installments are shown as follows.

Fig. 4. Points’ installment of temperature inside the container

Sketch map of temperature control loop inside the container is as follows.

Fig. 5. Sketch map of temperature control loop inside the container

Fig. 6. Temperature control loop schematic diagram of environmental chamber

3.2. The test points’ pressure of environmental chamber and refrigerating unit

The test points’ pressure of environmental chamber and refrigerating unit mostly consists of a differential pressure switch and a differential pressure sensor combined with the upper computer display.
3.3. The supply and return air humidity of internal environmental chamber

The supply and return air humidity of internal environmental chamber mostly consists of an electro-thermal humidifier, a humidifying electronic valve and 3 humidity sensors. They are separately arranged on the outlet of the humidifier, the air supply and given outlet of internal environmental chamber. Humidity control loop schematic diagram of environmental chamber is as follows:

![Humidity control loop schematic diagram of environmental chamber](image)

Fig. 7. Humidity control loop schematic diagram of environmental chamber

3.4. The electric heater’s power of the internal and external container

The electric heater’s power of the internal and external container mostly consists of a thyristor pulse width power-regulator, an electric heater and a power transducer. By PID regulator controlling the trigger angle of the thyristor pulse width power-regulator is realized the stepless adjustment of the electric heater.

![Power curve of the measurement and control system](image)

Fig. 8. Power curve of the measurement and control system

3.5. The air tightness control system of internal container

The air tightness control system of internal container mostly consists of an air compressor and a gas flow meter combined with the upper computer display.

4. Features of monitoring and control software system

The system uses industry control computer to field measure and control temperature, humidity, pressure, wind speed, flow rate and other parameters, and employs intelligent sensor and digital regulator to achieve centralized data and interactive data. Software used is
Windows2000 as a platform, using visualization software to open up a display window; the computer screen interface configuration can be carried out by intuitive operation entirely through graphical objects, and friendly interface. It contains the display of field test points’ parameter Instrument Digital, refrigerated containers tested inside and outside temperature, humidity of environmental chamber, power of electric heater inside container, wind speed of the inverter fan inside the air conditioning container such as other important parameters are used PID closed-loop control, control high accuracy. Its specific function is as follows.

4.1. Friendly visual interface

The integrated monitoring system using configuration software special for monitoring to develop, running on Windows operating platform, the use of the entire Chinese interface, the interface completely through the graphics object for visual operation, on-site measuring point parameters of digital instrument display, in close to connection with staff operating habits, the man-machine can easily make the two-way exchanges, and greatly enhance their efficiency.

![Fig. 9. ATP refrigerated performance test](image)

4.2. Safe and reliable system

There is a unified and comprehensive security mechanism preventing virus attacks, the invasion of non-authorized users and non-users authorized operation. In addition to operating system providing security mechanism for the users, monitoring system will supply (supplies) own user management mechanism. Only the legitimate users of the system can enter the monitoring system and the different levels of users own different operating authorities, through network security control to prevent unauthorized access. This will ensure that the equipment does not affect the normal run, data security of equipment or any commercial secrets.

4.3. Powerful hardware support

The industry control computer using high computing processing power, memory and hard disk capacity, with a scalable and easy integration of a variety of features, such as the use of PC technology, communications and control technology with a powerful distributed control system and the external control circuit with high precision and standard modular, can flexibly and conveniently change the setting on the sampling data, sampling point, sampling time, measuring point location, range, operating conditions and so on. Communication performance and the system are reliable.
4.4. Unified interface management

Using the drop-down menu management, all operating interfaces can be realized for the unified management to facilitate the mutual interface switching.

4.5. Dynamic constant monitoring

This comprehensive monitoring and control system could carry out the real-time signal acquisition for the system, display the real-time parameters of the entire refrigerated containers monitoring system, instruct the true significance of the various icons throughout refrigerated container monitoring system, unify managing data, and show "real-time curve" and "Trend Curve" of the important parameters, to facilitate customer viewing on focus and monitoring the data.

4.6. Centralized experimental management

Through the comprehensive monitoring and control system that can in automated order manage "hermetic experiment", "heat leakage experiment," "cooling performance experiment" the three performance experiments conveniently.

4.7. History Data Report

The comprehensive monitoring and control system can show "real-time statements" and the "historical statements", could randomly view, enlarge and reduce the recorded data, and preserve it into CSV format (the format can open, post-process and print the data with Excel), and by supporting multiple computer networks at the same time, accessing to historical statements.

### Table 1.

#### Heat leakage test report

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model No.</th>
<th>1 AAA-A-SHFT</th>
<th>Dimensions:</th>
<th>TPD-H200-240L</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2000.1-14.04</td>
<td>Manufacturer:</td>
<td>NICE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal Temperature:</td>
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<td>Heat leakage rate:</td>
<td>31.63 kg/h +/- 1.15 °C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Temperature:</td>
<td>31.6°C</td>
<td>Mean internal temperature:</td>
<td>29.3°C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condition:</td>
<td>Ambient Temperature:</td>
<td>Mean uniform temperature:</td>
<td>10.94°C</td>
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<td>coc</td>
<td>1°C</td>
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<td>Mean pressure consumption:</td>
<td>8.5773 kg/h</td>
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**Heat leakage test - internal temperature:**

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**Heat leakage test - external temperature:**

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4.8. Flexible configuration capability of the system

The system uses a hardware platform of open system with standard Acquisition Module. The module, of flexible use, easy replacement, and convenient procurement, makes system maintenance simple and convenient.

4.9. Good flexibility

Hardware system uses standard modules’ organizational structure to ensure that the performance of the system, processor and storage capacity expansion. Core equipments can carry out the expansion of processing capacity, disk capacity and memory. Monitoring software can be upgraded, and the entire integrated measurement and control system facilitates the customer’s upgrading and expanding.

5. Conclusions

This paper, based on the study on the maritime refrigerated containers operation and fault diagnosis system of the remote monitoring system, analyses the way to judge the location and the cause of the faults in the refrigerated containers through the monitor database and by using the object-oriented program language, and database technique sets up maritime refrigerated container fault database to provide efficient maritime refrigerated container management for the secure operation of the maritime refrigerated container.

References


Curriculum Vitae

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MULTIMEDIA MARITIME ENGLISH LEARNING TOOLS: 
AN EXPERIENCE IN THE CLASSROOM

Abstract

This paper presents an experience in using a web-based maritime English programme (MarEng) with two groups of undergraduates of the second and third year who either had never been exposed to maritime English before or who had received some training of the more “traditional” style. The overall experience was positive: MarEng provides a wealth of materials of great pedagogical value and fits in nicely with the new methodological guidelines of the new European Higher Education Area. However, a number of variables are identified as affecting the profitability with which MarEng is used in the classroom. These have to do mainly with students’ varying degrees of motivation, their general English level, and their familiarity with multimedia language-learning programmes. Examples are given from real classroom situations and a comparison is drawn between the two groups. Based on these experiences, the validity of MarEng as an exclusively self-learning tool is questioned, at least in the contexts at hand, and a number of recommendations are given to enhance students’ learning experiences. It is suggested that adequate induction and step-by-step guidance by the teacher in carrying out online tasks, as well as an emphasis on complementary general English instruction can help students make the most of these programmes.

Keywords: Maritime English, multimedia learning tools, teacher’s role
Multimedia maritime English learning tools: an experience in the classroom

1. Introduction
This paper presents an experience in using a web-based maritime English programme (MarEng) in the classroom. The outline of the talk will be as follows: I will first introduce both lecturer’s and student’s background, and their previous experiences with Maritime English. I will then move on to present the course structure and way in which MarEng was used in the classroom in combination with other resources. The pedagogical value of the programme will be highlighted in this section. The third part of the paper deals with some of the less successful aspects I encountered in using MarEng with the group of students under investigation. I will present examples of the problems I came across and propose some measures that can be taken to address them. These are intended to help make the most of MarEng and enhance both the teacher’s and learner’s experience.

2. The background
This paper is based on a one-year teaching experience (2008/2009) at the School of Maritime Studies of the University of the Basque Country. Provision of English teaching has a strong tradition within the School. English is a compulsory course in four out of the five years that make up the degrees in either Maritime Engineering (with an emphasis on courses on mechanical engineering and maintenance) or Nautical Engineering (focused on communications and seafaring). It is also offered as an optional course that students can take in their fifth year. From 2010/2011, new degrees will be offered that comply with the requirements imposed by European Higher Education Area. Within this new framework the number of compulsory courses in English has been somehow reduced. This reduction has been compensated by an increased offer in non-compulsory or optional courses.

Whereas English has a strong presence in the curriculum and is a well-regarded and respected course within the School, it is still considered to be one of the “easy” or “less important” subjects by students. Many of them cannot see the relevance of having compulsory English tuition as part of their Engineering degrees, and complaints of the sort “I don’t see why I have to have English classes as part of my engineering degree”, “I am no good at English” or “What’s the point of these exercises?” are quite common, particularly when students are confronted with grammar exercises.
Provision of English teaching at the School is carried out by the Department of English and German Philology, Translation and Interpreting, which is based at the University’s Faculty of Arts. The bulk of the courses offered by the Department have to do with English Language, Linguistics and Literature (for example History of the English Language, English Phonetics and Phonology, Morphology, English Literature). However, the Department also covers the teaching of English for Specific Purposes across the University, and hence teaches “English for Business”, “Medical English”, “English for Architecture”, as well as “Maritime English”. These ESP courses are regarded as “secondary” or of lesser importance by the Department. Also, they are not taught at the Faculty of Arts, but at the School of Medicine, Architecture or Maritime Studies, respectively. What this means, among other things, is that Maritime English lecturers at the University of the Basque Country are essentially linguists, whose training and research are focused on some aspect of English Language or Literature, but not necessarily on Maritime English. I am a good example of this. My research and my teaching had always focused on the syntax of English and on issues of current change in the English language. After having taught various linguistics-related courses in my Department, I was offered the job at the School of Maritime Studies a year ago, and have since been grappling with this new discipline. This situation is replicated in many Maritime English Schools across Spain: Lecturers with a background in philological studies take up ESP positions and have to start from scratch preparing lectures, compiling teaching materials, familiarising themselves with the field and training for their new roles. With time, they may become experts in their new disciplines and often develop new research interest in the ESP field.

Students belonged to two distinct courses. One of the groups consisted of 35 2nd year undergraduates reading Maritime Engineering. Their level of English was a pre-intermediate one, although there were very disparate levels within the same year group. Most of them had received no English tuition since they left school two years before. They were reluctant to communicate in English with the lecturer (which was one of the requisites for the course) and many of them had great difficulty even putting a few sentences together orally. The other group was made up of 22 third-year Nautical Engineering undergraduates. These had an upper-intermediate level of English and more language-awareness than the previous group. Many of them had attended or were attending extra-curricular English lessons, and some of them had some experience studying or living abroad for short periods of time. They were also generally more mature and focused on their studies.

3. The maritime English course
The course was organised around two big components: The general English part, aimed at helping students gain a better competency in understanding, producing, reading and writing general English,
and the Maritime English part, aimed at acquainting the students with the technical vocabulary and discourse structures used in Maritime English contexts. The course objectives for the Nautical English course, for example, were presented to students as follows:

- Recognise and use correctly the grammatical structures and vocabulary of the English language to a B2.1 (upper-intermediate) level
- Recognise and use correctly Maritime English vocabulary and discourse structures to an upper-intermediate level
- Use reading comprehension strategies efficiently in order to understand original English texts of an upper-intermediate level
- Use listening strategies effectively in order to understand original oral texts and conversations in English of an upper-intermediate level of difficulty
- Write short guided compositions in English in a coherent and well-structured manner

The general English part and the technical part were covered on alternate weeks during the term. For the general English part a general English course book was used (*Headway Pre-Intermediate, OUP* with the lower level group and *Clockwise Intermediate, OUP* with the higher level group). For the technical part, the multimedia Maritime English Learning tool MarEng was used at the Intermediate level. A multimedia computer room was therefore used on alternate weeks. The first week of term was used for an induction on the use of the multimedia facilities and the various online resources. This included a step-by-step induction on how to use MarEng, as well as a demonstration on how to make the most of dictionaries and online language learning materials. Each week I assigned them a specific number of tasks from MarEng. Not every exercise in each unit was always covered, and sometimes tasks from different units were selected for a given week. I went round the class making sure that students were doing the appropriate tasks and had understood the instructions. (Sometimes they seemed to ignore instructions and carry out different exercises from the ones that had been assigned). I also gave them specific instructions to let me know when they were finished with them.

MarEng proved to be a very useful tool, both from a teacher’s point of view and from a learner’s point of view. As a novel lecturer I found it was a very useful and quick way of becoming familiar with the basics of Maritime English. In that sense, it was a good teacher training tool. From a pedagogical perspective, too, it proved to be very valuable. In the context of the new European Guidelines for Higher Education, the programme puts the student at the centre of the learning experience and promotes independent learning. It should be pointed out that, in this context, the teacher is not intended to *teach*, but rather to *help the student to learn*. More generally, students found it entertaining and intriguing. Being used to sitting through traditional lectures for about 6 hours a day taking lecture notes, MarEng was a welcome change from the daily routine. MarEng
also provides a good set of listening materials of a maritime nature, which would otherwise have been difficult to find and compile. Furthermore, students liked the idea that they could go through the units independently outside class. This was an advantage for some of the more mature students who combined university with work and therefore missed many of the lectures (though it also represented a disadvantage, an issue to which I will return later). The experience, overall, was therefore a positive one. However, I also detected a number of problems which somehow limited the profitability with which MarEng was used in the classroom. They are discussed in the following section

4. MarEng in the classroom

This section discusses a number of issues that were found to limit the profitability with which MarEng could be used in the classroom. The most prominent one was perhaps the fact that students seemed to rush though the various texts and exercises without really giving much thought to what they were doing or taking any notes. I put this down to the urge with which young people use the Internet, flicking to the next screen as quickly as their Internet connection will allow them. Another factor may have to do with the student’s maturity or reflexivity. In this sense, 3rd year students took a more “calmed” approach to the tasks than the more immature 2nd year undergrads. This was despite the fact that, as noted above, the whole first week of term had been used as an induction weeks and specific instructions were given on how to make notes of words and expressions and how it was paramount not to rush and to listen to the recordings as many times as necessary.

A second limitation had to do with the students’ very basic level of English. This caused a number of problems: Sometimes, students did not manage to understand what the task was that they had to do. This happened mainly which exercises whose format deviated slightly from the typical pattern of the most recurrent exercises. In unit 3, exercise 8 of the intermediate level, for example, we find the following exercise in the section on loading and unloading:
In this exercise students have to fill in the blanks using a word that means the same as the definitions given on the right-hand column, but not with the definitions themselves. Whereas, in this case, this is not immediately obvious from the instructions, students can infer the actual task by looking at the example given, in which the word “capacity” has to be used following the clue given by the word “capability”. Students had problems understanding this task and carrying it out. Most of the exercises students had been confronted with before required them to match words with their definitions or to drag labels to fit a picture or expression. But this is actually a word-formation exercise. Students were confused and tried to fill in the gaps with the exact words provided by the clues. The problem here is not only one of misinterpretation of the instructions. Confusions like these can be put down to the lack of command of English and lack of familiarity with linguistic exercises. More linguistically aware students would have been able to recognise the grammatical
category of the words that were required by the sentences and the grammatical category of the words given as clues, and would have seen that some modification had to be made. This was a particularly worrying problem with lower level students, who, furthermore, very rarely raised their hands and asked for help whenever a problem arose (they preferred to engage in as little conversation in English as possible), let alone take the trouble to check for themselves the meaning of the problem item in any of the various online dictionaries which had been made available to them.

A further limitation had to do the very disparate levels within the same group. As noted above, students were not left to their own devices when it came to proceeding through the various units. Rather, they were assigned a particular number of exercises to carry out on a weekly basis. Yet it was difficult to find the right pace that would suit all levels. While some of the more advanced students completed the task in a single session, others needed three whole sessions to finish them.

Finally, a minor problem had to do with some students’ lack of familiarity with multimedia technology. Some of them had problems even carrying out simple actions like copying and pasting, for example, although these were a minority.

Content-wise, apart from the new technical lexical items and expressions, students had most trouble with the exercises that involved listening skills (which points to the need to work on general English competencies). Spelling also caused some confusion, especially when students did not get an answer right and thought the problem was elsewhere.

5. How to make the most of MarEng
Whereas MarEng can be a very useful independent learning tool for advanced learners of English, for example, for teachers training purposes, I would call into question its usefulness as an independent learning tool for students with a low level of general English competence. In order for lower level students to make the most of the programme, I propose that two measures should be taken.

Firstly, I suggest that it should be used as a classroom activity, and that the teacher should guide the students through each exercise, rather than leaving them to their own devices for the whole session. It is also advisable to carry out reviewing exercises at the end of each group of exercises. This can be done by writing important vocabulary on the board, devising additional exercises to be carried out in pairs or carrying out quick tests at the end to each section. The purpose of these activities is not only to review vocabulary and structures, but also to raise students’ awareness, clarify potential problems and give them the chance to go through the same materials again and ask any queries they might have. The importance of the initial induction at the beginning of the course
should also be emphasised. Students should be given clear instructions as to how to go about the tasks, and the teacher should make sure that these instructions have been properly understood.

Most important of all, in my opinion, is to work on students’ general English competence. Whereas it is relatively easy for a competent speaker of English to come to terms with the intricacies of Maritime English, things do not work the other way round. Whereas it is true that some of the most technical vocabulary simply needs to be learned, there are also many lexical items or expressions that can be “guessed” or “deduced” from general English knowledge. For example, let us have a look at some of the vocabulary highlighted in the Beaufort Scale section (Unit 7):

- to devise
- to make up; to design
- a breeze
- a light wind
- a calm
- a quiet period
- light
- not heavy
- ripple
- a very small wave
- gentle
- mild
- a wavelet
- a not very big wave
- moderate
- average
- a crest
- the highest part of a wave
- fresh
- brisk
- a white horse
- a big wave with white crests

- a hurricane
- violent storm
- appearance
- the look of
- violent
- very strong
- mounting sea
- waves increasing
- visibility
- how far/well you can see
- spray
- small drops of liquid blown through the air
- impair
- to reduce
- affect
- to influence
- foam
- small white bubbles
- bad
- not good

- a streak
- thin line
- poor
- weak
- downwind
- same direction as wind
- steep
- goes up or down quickly
- upwind
- against the wind
- fetch
- waves reflected back
- spindrift
- foam or spray blown from the surface of the sea
- a depth

- how deep the sea is
- a swell
- the heaving of the sea remaining after a storm
- generally
- usually; commonly
- a time lag
- the time between; delay
- exceptionally
- unusually
- enclosed waters
- surrounded by land
- approximately
- about
- to quote
- to mention
I would like to classify this vocabulary according to whether they are words one would expect to come up in a general English course, whether their meaning can be deduced from general English knowledge or whether they correspond to specific to technical maritime English.

General English expressions (25): Devise, breeze, calm, light, ripple, gentle, moderate, fresh, hurricane, appearance, violent, visibility, impair, affect, foam, bad, streak, poor, depth, generally, time lag, exceptionally, enclosed waters, approximately, quote

Maritime English-proper expressions (6): crest, white horse, downwind, upwind, spindrift, fetch

Expressions that can be deduced from general English knowledge (4): wavelet (from wave + suffix -let, which can also be found in other English words such as booklet or piglet), spray (as in aerosols), steep (as in a steep hill or slope), swell (the verb to swell is commonly used in health contexts).

Most words can be classed as being likely to come up in a general English course, or as being easy to be deduced for someone with a certain command of the English language. A reasonably good level of English is therefore paramount if the most is to be made of MarEng, and indeed to approach Maritime English in general. For this reason, I suggest that MarEng be used in combination with general English tuition. Furthermore, I would propose that general English tuition should be provided for at least one whole academic year prior to taking up Maritime English. This is particularly suitable for degrees in which English is available for all or much or the degree.

6. Conclusion

MarEng, in sum, constitutes a very valuable tool for the purpose of learning Maritime English, both for teacher training purposes and as a methodological tool in the classroom. For the latter purpose, however, particularly with students with a limited command of English, it is proposed that it should be used as an in-class activity, and that the role of the teacher in guiding the students through the various tasks and units is paramount. In addition, the crucial role of a solid general English background has been highlighted. It has been suggested that maritime English tuition must necessarily be accompanied by a thorough general English course, which would place learners in a much better position to approach maritime English vocabulary and discourse structures.
Curriculum Vitae

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ARE ARAB MARITIME STUDENTS READY TO BECOME AUTONOMOUS LANGUAGE LEARNERS?

Abstract
Due to the constant increase in the number of students joining the Maritime Transport College at the Arab Academy and the difficulty of ensuring successful learning and interaction through the face-to-face teaching mode in classroom settings, there arises a need to unify e-learning and/or distance learning in the English language teaching/learning context in the hope that learners could benefit more from integrating different modes of learning. Some of them do not require a conventional classroom setting and could be implemented outside the classroom walls. In this way, learners could easily access their English language courses and teaching/learning resources at their time convenience and as many times as they want wherever they are. However, these different modes assume some kind of responsibility and control from learners in order to attain successful and effective language learning. In other words, students are expected to display certain abilities and skills of the autonomous learners and responsibly make use of the available resources to become successful.

The concept of language learning autonomy may be relatively new to many Egyptian and other Arab learners, since the Egyptian as well as other Arab educational and cultural contexts are usually teacher-centred in nature. Moving from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred approach through language learning autonomy may promote learning among those students. However, to ensure their benefit from the different learning modes and resources used to promote autonomy, it is necessary to investigate whether the Arab maritime students enrolled in the Academy are ready to become autonomous. Therefore, this paper examines their readiness for language learning autonomy. The degree of readiness is examined through a questionnaire administered on the Freshmen students enrolled in the Maritime College in the Arab Academy. The results reveal the status of readiness of the learners for language learning autonomy.

Keywords: autonomous learners, degree of readiness, learner-centred approach, modes of learning

1. Introduction
Over the past ten years the Arab Academy has emphasised the integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the teaching/learning process and curriculum design. Similarly, the Institute has advocated the use of ICT, on the basis that computer-based learning transcends time and space barriers. The rationale behind the development of a mixed-mode course, such as an English course textbook with electronic and/or computer-based components is to offer students more practice opportunities and increase the time they spend on a particular task at their own pace. In contrast to the teacher-student face-to-face study mode, some other modes do not require a conventional classroom setting and could be implemented outside the classroom walls. In this way, learners could easily access their English language courses and teaching/learning resources at their time convenience as many times as they want and wherever they are. In addition, integrating computer-mediated communication and electronic resources in
conventional courses and for self-study may render the teaching materials more interesting, engaging and inspiring. Besides, the use of technology and the internet might encourage students to get more actively engaged and interested in the learning process, and therefore, is expected to promote students autonomy and support individualized learning. However, such different modes may require some kind of responsibility and control from the learners themselves in order to attain successful and effective language learning. In short, students are expected to display certain abilities and skills which characterise the autonomous learners to responsibly make use of the available resources and become successful. However, to ensure the utmost benefit from the different learning settings, it is necessary to investigate whether students are ready to become autonomous. In order to measure their degree of readiness for autonomy, the present exploratory study attempts to answer this research question: What beliefs do Maritime students in the Arab Academy hold about their language learning process? It is assumed that students’ beliefs, reflected by the metacognitive strategies, which they implement in the learning process, might, in turn, reveal their readiness for language learning autonomy.

Before explaining the details of the present study, I will firstly define the two important constructs in this paper: autonomy and beliefs. I will then go on to discuss in detail the study itself with reference to the variables investigated in order to find out what learners believe about their own language learning process. Finally, I will end up my paper by giving some conclusions and recommendations.

2. Definition of autonomy

Autonomy could be regarded as either an approach to learning (Boud, 1988 as cited in Gardner & Miller, 1999) or a capacity for being independent and in charge of one’s own learning and for being able to choose what is suitable for his/her learning needs from a variety of learning facilities and resources (Benson, 2001; Dickinson, 1995; Holec, 1981; Little, 1995, 1996; Littlewood, 1999; Thanasoulas, 2000; White, 1995 & 1999). In addition, autonomy entails the ability for decision-making as well as the implementation of one’s own decisions (Dickinson, 1987; Gardner & Miller, 1999). Dickinson (1995) clarifies that “capacity” entails the learners’ ability to internalize a system that may accompany them not only throughout their traditional teacher-centred classroom setting, but also in non-conventional classroom learning contexts such as self-access learning centres. Moreover, Littlewood (1996) claims that autonomy has two major components: “ability” and “willingness”. Ability includes both “knowledge” about the various choices offered to the learner and the “skills” for implementing such choices, while “motivation and the confidence to take responsibility” for one’s decisions underlie “willingness” (Littlewood, 1996). In this sense, developing learners’ autonomy means developing learners’ “ability” and “willingness” together with knowledge, skills, motivation and confidence (Benson, 2001; Youssef, 2006).

The concept of autonomy in language learning may be relatively new to the Arab learners in the Academy. Generally speaking, the Egyptian educational context may be unmistakably criticised for being teacher-centred in nature. The educational system in Egypt as well as in most Arab countries has long been fostering rote-learning of facts instead of encouraging students to create, innovate and construct knowledge as well as take responsibility for and control over their own learning; qualities which are indispensable fundamentals for having self-directed independent learners. Moving away from a teacher-centred educational environment to a learner-centred one may hopefully promote autonomous learning among those Arab students.

Over the last forty years, there has been a shift from the traditional English language classroom setting to a more communicative approach to language teaching (Nunan & Lamb, 1996).
This move redefines the roles of the teacher and the learners. Instead of regarding the teacher as a knowledge transmitter and the sole figure of authority in the classroom (Gahin & Myhill, 2001), the teacher should only be considered a facilitator, guide, counselor and advisor in the learning process. Interaction among the learner and teacher in a particular social setting comes as the core of the communicative approach. Little (1995) draws one’s attention to the fact that autonomy should not be mistaken for “total independence” of the teacher. Autonomy exists in degrees and learners should be trained to develop their capabilities to reach the status of full autonomy in learning (Nunan, 1996, 1997). In this way, the concept of autonomy does not undermine the role of the teacher in learning, but it modifies it, to help learners depend more on their own internal capabilities than on “external agents” (Ryan, 1991 as cited in Littlewood, 1999). In summary, learners are supposed to navigate their way through their learning resources and share responsibility for their own successful learning. By taking such responsibility, learners would then be able to show the characteristics of autonomous learners.

2.1. Definitions of beliefs

In the language learning context, beliefs are defined as “general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors affecting learning, and about the nature of learning and teaching” (Victori & Lockheart, 1995). Wenden (1998) stated that learners’ beliefs refer to the metacognitive knowledge which entails information about how to learn and is acquired through their learning experience. In addition, metacognitive knowledge, which entails information on the metacognitive strategies, could develop, change and improve over time. Among those strategies are planning, monitoring and evaluating one’s own learning and progress (Wenden, 1998).

2.2. The relationship between autonomy and beliefs

Beliefs are regarded as key determinants of the individual’s behaviour during the learning process (Sakui & Gaiies, 1999; Siegel, 1985). Understanding learners’ beliefs, therefore, has become important as it may reveal whether learners have positive and insightful beliefs that could lead them to successful learning, or uninformed beliefs and misconceptions that could hinder their language learning (Horwitz, 1988). Less effective strategies could also result in the learners’ negative attitude towards learning and autonomy (Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). In summary, exploring the learners’ beliefs could help in explaining particular learners’ success or failure in language learning as well as their degree of readiness to become self-directed, inquisitive, independent and autonomous learners.

3. Methodology of research

3.1. Participants

A questionnaire was administered on the freshmen students enrolled in the Maritime College in the Academy on their first day of the academic year of 2008/2009, prior to any college teaching. Their responses to the questions should reflect their previous learning experience at school (or outside school if applicable). Those learners were exposed to a traditional educational system which is examination-oriented and teacher-centred emphasising the authoritative role of the teacher, the didactic mode of instruction and advocating rote-learning and memorisation of information. One important need for conducting this research is to find out
how those learners’ previous language experience could affect their perceptions and views on
the role of the teacher, the role of the learner and his/her own opinion of him/herself as a lan-
guage learner, and the role of his/her feedback before integrating new modes of study into
their conventional classroom setting. The results should reveal their status of readiness for be-
coming autonomous learners.

3.2. The instrument

A 99-item questionnaire was divided into two main parts: (i) questions related to learners’
demographic, educational and socio-economic information; and (ii) questions related to their
beliefs about the language learning process with regard to the following variables: the role of
the teacher, role of the learner and his/her sense of self-efficacy and the role of feedback (Cot-
terall, 1999). The first part consists of open-ended questions and questions with a number of
distracters for subjects to choose from, whereas the second part requires subjects to rank
statements on a Likert scale of five, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree with an
undecided option. The second part of the questionnaire is adopted from Youssef’s recent
study on the Arab Academy’s Business students’ beliefs about language learning in a web-
based setting (Youssef, 2006). That part of Youssef’s questionnaire was an adaptation of Cot-
terall’s questionnaire (1999) on learners’ beliefs about key factors in successful language learn-
ing that might reflect learners’ autonomy. Having to change parts of the questionnaire again
based on a pilot study, some of the questions were removed or modified, and some others were
added. A full version of the questionnaire and the tables of results are available if requested.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Data analysis

All data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS version
18.0). Frequencies were used to analyse single items. The total number of students whose
questionnaire responses proved valid was 272 students, 15% of them majored in Marine En-
gineering and 85% majored in Nautical Studies. The questionnaire was administered to
freshmen students whose age ranged from 16 to 20 (a couple of students were above 20 years
old); Most students, 73.5%, aged from 16 to 18. The remaining 26.5% aged 19 and above.
Most of the sample was made up of Egyptian students, 95%, and the rest, 5%, were Arab stu-
dents (other than Egyptian). The mother tongue of the whole sample was Arabic and the ma-
jority (99%) of students obtained their high school certificate from Egypt. All students were
male as females are not allowed to enroll in the Maritime College according to the Egyptian
laws and regulations.

4.1.1. Part one of the questionnaire

Students’ answers showed that their parents’ jobs fall under four to five categories: slightly
more than half the fathers had professional jobs, such as physicians, engineers, officers and
company employees. More than 25% were businessmen and the minority had careers that
were academic, e.g. teachers, professors, or occupational, e.g. farmers, mechanics, butchers.
With regard to the students’ mothers, the majority fell under the fifth category of being housewives. In second place were mothers with academic and professional careers, and the
minority were businesswomen or had occupational careers. This might explain why most stu-
students would not speak English at home with their parents, as it is assumed that the majority of their housewife mothers were most probably moderately educated. Another explanation could be that some of those housewives had learned English during school but had no longer practiced or used it; it was forgotten.

The questionnaire revealed that the majority of the student sample attended governmental schools in junior, middle and high school stages. During the junior school stage, 61% of the sample attended governmental schools, 24% attended private language schools, 11% private (non-language) schools, 3% experimental schools, and 2% attended Azhar (Islamic) schools. The percentage slightly changed in the middle and high school stages as it increased in governmental schools to 66% and 68%, respectively; decreased in private language schools to 20% and 17% respectively; and decreased in private (non-language) schools to 9% in both stages. Percentage of students in experimental and Azhar schools remained constant in both stages whereas 10% of the students moved to Industrial schools in the high school stage (Note: this type of school is not available but in high school stage).

Regarding foreign languages, i.e. languages other than Arabic, learned in schools, it should be noted that 1.5% of the sample did not study any foreign language at all and less than 1% studied only French, whereas the majority of the sample studied English, either on its own or combined with other foreign languages. It should be noted that the minority of student sample, 23.5%, studied English outside school in language centers and the like, whereas the majority, 76.5%, did not. Moreover, the majority, 94%, did not experience living in an English-speaking country.

Most of the students used Arabic when speaking with their parents (97%), and friends (84%), outside of school. The minority used English as well as Arabic when speaking with parents (3%) and friends (13%). The majority of the sample, 71%, did not have the chance to communicate with others in English as they did not belong to international youth clubs, associations or organizations (e.g. Rotar Act and Alpha Leo clubs and AISEC). Having a membership indicates a high socio-economic status, which in turn implies a degree of knowledge of a foreign language, usually English or French.

Answers also showed that the majority of the sample agreed to study English during college, 87%, whereas 13% did not. However, the percentage differed in the preferred duration of study with less than half the sample in favor of studying English during all their years of study at college. This means that most students are not motivated enough to learn English for a longer period.

When students were asked about which skills they believe English language courses at college should enable them to develop: 42% of the students indicated that these should be main language skills, such as reading, writing, listening and speaking; 6% indicated that these should be communication skills, such as public speech, presentations, interviews and correspondences; 2% indicated these should be research skills, such as dictionary checking, net surfing, data collection and library work; and 30% indicated that all the above should be taught at college.

It could be interpreted from these results that the students still think English courses at college are similar to English courses at school where the focus is mainly on grammar, reading and writing (Gahin and Myhill, 2001) rather than on communicative language skills. It could also be assumed that most students would depend more on the teacher rather than on themselves since two thirds do not think that there is a need to learn research skills in the English language class and often link such skills to other subjects at college.
When participants were asked about the mode of study they preferred when learning English, 66% of them preferred face-to-face learning, i.e. where the teacher is present in class as the sole mode of instruction and source of knowledge. This resonates with Gahin and Myhill’s (2001) study results that learners view the teacher as the knowledge transmitter. However, 11% preferred the face-to-face learning mode combined with books, CDs and DVDs, or combined with on-line learning, or with books and online courses collectively, adding up to a total of 77% of the sample. In the second place came book-style study packages with CDs and DVDs with 10% of the sample preferring it on its own and 12% preferring such a mode combined with others making a total of 22%. In the third place came distance learning and online courses with 10% of the sample preferring it on its own, and 6% preferring it combined with other modes to reach a total of 16%.

Such preferences could also be highlighted by students’ responses to the issue of teacher guidance, where almost half the sample (52%) replied with ‘no’ to whether they learned English with limited teacher guidance and two-thirds of the sample (63%) replied with ‘no’ to whether they learned the language without any teacher guidance, whereas the remaining third (37%) claimed they did this by themselves.

It could be inferred from those preferences that freshmen students of this sample are not yet ready to be fully autonomous. They are probably dependent on their teachers or feel more secure when surrounded by them. These students might resort to book packages with CDs and DVDs, but would rarely choose online courses, both of which require them to be able to study on their own and independently of the teacher. Moreover, the students’ preferences could be a reflection of their learning experience at schools where they were more accustomed to or familiar with one particular study mode than to another, and therefore are not able at this stage to evaluate the effectiveness of other modes in their learning process.

4.1.2. Part two of the questionnaire – the Likert Scale

For ease of reference and viewing, the rating responses for the Likert scale part have been reduced from five to three categories: disagree, undecided and agree.

The results showed that the majority of students agreed that learning English at college is useful (95%) and necessary (91%). They reiterated their positive responses to statements that describe English as helpful in the short run, making them understand other subject courses taught in English easily (92%), as well as in the long run, since mastering English will offer them better job opportunities (93%). This indicates that these students might have an extrinsic source of motivation to study English at college. Showing no intrinsic motivation, students rarely use English to communicate with parents (3%), friends (13%), or others (6%) outside of school. Extrinsic motivation explains why the majority of students agreed to exert great efforts to learn English during college (91%) in contrast to the efforts they exerted at school (62%). Motivation in general might be a key factor to the students’ readiness to learn. Spratt et al. (2002) have clearly stated that “motivation is a key factor that influences the extent to which learners are ready to learn autonomously, and that teachers might therefore endeavor to ensure motivation before they train students to become autonomous” (Spratt et al., 2002).

When asking the learners about the amount of time which they spent studying English, as the results revealed, 75% of the sample agreed that they study English on a regular basis and almost half the sample disagreed to studying English just for examination purposes, contradicting study results of Gahin and Myhill’s (2001), who found that examinations put lots of pressure on students as well as teachers and force students to study. Although 56% agreed it
was comfortable to spend long continuous hours studying, 54% expressed that it was uncomfortable to attend a class longer than an hour. This could be explained by students’ preference to stay away from the conventional classroom setting, and seek a more comfortable zone with friendly atmosphere to study. It is important that learners should not be hurdled by a certain type of learning setting, which might not encourage and inspire them enough to work or study. This is obviously supported by the following results. Most of the students (71%) indicated that they would study anywhere if necessary, and 81% use their laptops or PCs to finish their assignments quickly, and 59% expressed they would like to spend many hours surfing the net for their research projects.

Two thirds of the sample disagreed or were undecided about studying English well by themselves. This supports the earlier results regarding students’ preference of face-to-face learning to self-study books or distance learning. It is quite logical then that 75% of the sample agreed on successfully interacting with their teacher in class. Along the same lines, most students agreed that they feel comfortable surrounded by their peers, 62% preferred studying with their friends and 83% expressed that they interact easily with their colleagues in class.

Results also showed that a substantial number of students (85%) confirmed that they have both the confidence and ability to learn a language successfully. If learners are ready for autonomy they should be able to plan their language learning. Only a minority of the sample stated that they had no confidence (5%), no ability (7%), and no willingness (10%) to plan their language learning. On the contrary, the majority confirmed that they had the confidence (82%), ability (84%), and willingness (83%) to set their own language learning goals. However, when it came to mastering language skills, 83% of the students stated they had the ability to write accurately in English, but only half the sample had the confidence to do so. This might indicate that confidence could be a key determinant for being an autonomous learner.

The second aspect of becoming autonomous is finding ways of practicing English. Of the whole sample, 84% were confident about deciding for themselves what, how, and when they want to learn. The percentage decreased to 63% when it came to their confidence about finding their own ways of practicing English and to 64% when it came to their ability to do so. However, when asked about their willingness to find ways of practicing language, 75% of the sample agreed. Moreover, 74% were confident about finding the best ways to learn about reading and writing study skills by themselves.

It can be inferred from the above results that those students are autonomous to a certain extent. Although these results seem to contradict the earlier results regarding students’ preference of face-to-face learning rather than self-study books and online learning, those students might have not gone through the experience of studying language using book style packages or online learning. They could be unaware of different study modes or might fear to depart from what they got used to during school for the sake of experimenting with new modes. Nonetheless, it is promising that they have the confidence, ability and willingness to be autonomous.

The underlying metacognitive strategies that were examined when questioning learners’ readiness for autonomy included revision, evaluation, and feedback on their learning progress. Three quarters of the sample (75%) were confident about revising their work by themselves, and 83% agreed that they had the ability and willingness to do so. When revising their work, around 75% of the students expressed their ability and willingness to identify their strengths and weaknesses as language learners. Furthermore, 65% of the students claimed they had the ability to evaluate their work, and that their own feedback on their language learning helps them the most (78%). This was also supported by around 75% of the sample who expressed their ability, willingness and confidence to measure their own language learning progress.
Nonetheless, the results show that the majority of the sample (74%) agreed that having their work evaluated by others was helpful, especially when comparing their benefit of the teacher’s feedback on their reading and writing skills (84%) to the benefit of their classmates or peers feedback (62%). However, it should be noted that 50% of the sample feared the teacher’s evaluation in comparison to 38% of the sample that feared the classmates’ evaluation.

The interpretation for this might be that those students probably value the teacher’s feedback, since they mistakenly believe that the teacher is the sole source of knowledge, yet they fear such feedback when it becomes evaluative. In contrast, it might be rational to assume that they do not fear their classmates’ evaluation or feedback as they regard them of equal status and knowledge. This could also explain why their peers’ feedback is less valued than the teachers’ feedback. Furthermore, it may be possible that the high frequencies, shown in the results, reflect the students’ dependence on the teacher for feedback more than on their classmates or on their own feedback. In general, over 80% of the sample stated their confidence, ability, and willingness to ask for help when needed.

Regarding students’ view of the role of the teacher in a language class, answers showed that the majority of students agreed on the significance of the teacher’s role. Students believe that teachers should help them learn effectively (89%); identify their weaknesses (86%); offer them help (86%); create opportunities for them to practice language (85%); give them regular tests (80%); know how well they are learning (80%); tell them what progress they are making (75%); decide how long they spend on language activities (70); explain why they are doing an activity (69); set their learning goals (66%); and tell them what to do (61%).

In summary, the above percentages support the students’ choice of face-to-face learning as their preferred mode of learning. This could be easily explained by the fact that the students were accustomed to such a learning environment at school, and therefore, feel safer to continue opting for the same mode. They still believe that the teacher should be at the center of their learning and that the teacher is capable enough to plan their learning goals, road maps or the magical pathways that would lead them to their successful learning. The slightly lower percentage of students who assumed different roles for the teacher and selected other modes of study might have resulted from the students’ recognition that they are no longer school students and that they should have control over the time they spend on activities, have the capacity to set their own goals and take responsibility for doing what they want to do, not what the teacher wants them to do. Such a minority group of students could then be considered ready for learner autonomy.

5. Conclusions

Based on the present findings, and in support of Youssef’s (2006) findings, one may conclude that the key elements underlying the learners’ autonomy are ability, which entails knowledge and skills, and willingness, which embraces confidence and motivation. Such elements empower learners and encourage them to take full responsibility and control over their own learning. Learners are directed toward being more critical, independent and active during the learning process.

An important recommendation is to raise the learners’ awareness of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies pertinent to the language learning process. This could be done by getting learners to reflect on how they learn. Reflection makes learners more active and critical in the sense that they learn to analyze their learning strategies and thus start to make decisions, e.g. whether to improve them and in which way. Reflection could also be defined as an
“intellectual” and critical activity exploring one’s personal experiences and beliefs over a period of time with the aim of gaining insights to develop oneself in a certain area (Boud, Keough & Walker, 1985 cited in Benson, 2001). Generally, learners are not expected to reflect on their own learning processes, analyzing and evaluating their language learning experience, however, retrospective tasks, such as structured or semi-structured questionnaires, self-reports, diaries and evaluation sheets encourage learners to do so. In the present study asking students to respond to a questionnaire has been one way of helping learners reflect on their own learning and in particular the language learning process.

In this paper, I have stressed that autonomy or independent learning may be fostered and maximized when learners have complete freedom of choice, access and control over what, when and how they learn. When their major goal is to reach a higher proficiency level of English, it should become their own choice to take total responsibility for their learning and progress. In addition, exerting much or little effort to reach such a goal remains the learners’ choice to improve and reach their aims. Since most of the learning nowadays is boundless to the classroom settings, I have contended that effective and successful learning would mainly be dependent on giving the learners a chance to display the characteristics of autonomous learners, provided that all necessary learning facilities and resources are available. Nunan (2000, p. 10) has clearly stated that “autonomous learners are able to self-determine the overall direction of their learning, become actively involved in the management of the learning process, (and) exercise freedom of choice in relation to learning resources and activities”.

One could also safely contend that promoting autonomy in language learning among our students in the Maritime College has become inevitable in order to resolve some of the students major problems. A persisting problem is created by the lack or unavailability of well qualified Maritime English teachers, who could successfully cater for the rising number of students’ intake in the college. Students should be able to make use of the teaching/learning resources available online and for self-study, moving away from their teacher dependence. Another recurring problem is the time and space constraints caused by their tight timetables, which most of the time force students to practice more of their language work outside the classroom. Therefore, our teaching materials and resources should be also developed and adjusted to foster such an autonomous approach to language learning (Nunan, 1997). A step further, we should always encourage our students to transfer their autonomous language learning strategies to their learning in general (e.g. in learning their other subjects of specialization), and in turn empowering them to become life-long knowledgeable, creative and inquisitive learners.

A last note of caution. This study is far from being comprehensive and therefore could not yield generalizations about all Arab learners. Participants in this research represent only a sample of the Arab students, mainly Egyptians, who are enrolled in the Maritime College at the Arab Academy, further research is needed on learners from different disciplines with different socio-economic and educational backgrounds as well as different cultural contexts.

References
Curriculum Vitae

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ACCEPTANCE OF, OPPOSITION TO AND COMPETENCY LEVELS IN MARITIME ENGLISH AS SEEN BY SEAFARERS

1. Introduction

In this gathering of professionals – educators, representatives of commercial language training bodies as well as seafarers – you have looked at the development of Maritime English for many years. The group met for the first time in my home town of Hamburg 28 years ago, at the time when I was still happily at sea and blissfully unaware that an effort was being made to unify international seafarers by promoting a common language which was essentially meant to make the seas safer and trading more effective. Much of what you have done in this group has in fact brought us nearer to that goal.

Having spent 25 years at sea and then having had the pleasure of teaching seafarers from many different nationalities at the AMC, there were some queries which kept recurring to me in an initially amorphous way again and again when it came to communications. I have tried to put these questions into an articulate form and then attempted to find some valid answers. The survey was ethnographic in nature and a quantitative technique – a questionnaire – was used along with the qualitative tools of interviews and case studies. The areas of inquiry, as I formulated them, were as follows:

- investigating the perception among seafarers for the need of a common language and how they see the viability of the English language to fulfil that role,
- revealing any possible opposition for cultural, political or religious reasons shown by individuals to having the English language imposed on them,
- determining the efficacy and the limitations of a codified language as in the SMCP and investigating the frequency of incidents in the maritime sector where communication was ineffective and led to mishaps or contributed in an adverse way to the outcome of accidents,
- examining the status of English language proficiency among seafarers today and seek the seafarer’s opinion on what level of Maritime English competence should exist for different ranks on board international trading vessels.

There is simply not enough time in this forum to go through the findings of all three strategies and I will refine myself to the technique of the questionnaire only. This should keep the “real” researchers among us happy. I have to say, though, that the most enjoyable exercise of the survey was that of the interview. These lasted from 40 minutes to an hour, were held in a semi-formal style and you could almost feel the wind in your hair and the ship roll as the conversation flowed.

However, as mentioned, I would like to look only at the results of the questionnaire in my presentation today. I have, for the purpose of this talk, selected the questions in a sequence which fits the array of the research as I presented it earlier.
In this presentation I will portray the view of seafarers in today’s industry in regard to:
- a common language at sea,
- the capacity of English to fulfil that role,
- reservations about English,
- the usage of the SMCP,
- miscommunication through deficient language skills,
- the Maritime English competency of seafarers today.

The summary contains conclusions and some thoughts which we in the industry and in maritime education will have to deliberate on in the future.

2. English as the common language

All in all, 132 questionnaires were received from seafarers of 17 different nationalities and 32 questions were asked of them. Let’s jump in medias res and have a look at the first question:

*Investigate the perception among seafarers for the need of a common language and how they see the viability of the English language to fulfil that role.*

There is a presumption I have found among native English-speaking seafarers – I am almost inclined to say among native English speakers – that English is the only feasible common language in the industry. I wanted some tangible proof rather than assume that the answer to the first query should be seen as a foregone conclusion.

Question 18 of the questionnaire (“Given the multinational and multiethnic nature of the international shipping industry it is imperative that a common language exists at sea”) went directly to the core of this first issue of the investigation.

There was an overwhelming support for the existence of a common language. 97.7% agreed or strongly agreed that this was an important matter. Only 2.3% of the participants were not sure or felt that there was no need for a lingua franca (see Fig. 1).

![Fig. 1. “A common language at sea is important”](image)

The question was then asked if students could suggest another language which might supplant English. (Q 16 “Is there a language other than English which in your view could realistically be used as the common language at sea?” (see Fig. 2). With one abstention, 93.2% declared that they felt English was the best choice.

It was of interest at this point to investigate if there was a difference in view between native English speakers and those who had to learn English as a second language on this issue.
Fig. 2. Alternatives to English as a lingua franca at sea

Table 1.

A cross-tabulation of native and non-native English speakers and their stance on English as the common language at sea

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother tongue</th>
<th>Alternative lingua franca</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>There is none</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>.8%</td>
<td>65.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>.0%</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian, Pakistani, middle eastern language</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of Total</td>
<td>.8%</td>
<td>93.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The percentage of non-native English speakers showed 88.1% with the view that English was the only choice. It was balanced against 91.5%, who felt the same among the native English speakers (see Table 1). This appears an insignificant disparity and the results show that, as far as this survey population is concerned, Maritime English has been firmly accepted as the common lingo. Incidentally, the only other noteworthy contenders were French and Spanish. There is also no clearly discernable trend among the different language speakers in as much as one particular group was seen as being biased against English.

At this stage the question arose as to whether the view on English as the lingua franca had any link to the degree of experience the various seafarers had in the maritime industry. Consequently the length of sea service of the participating mariners was weighed against their opinion of whether or not another language was considered feasible (Table 2).

The result showed that just over 6% of seafarers who had worked on ships for less than 10 years felt that there was another choice, while none of the more experienced ones shared that opinion. This trend, while really to be too small to be conclusive, could nonetheless have two possible interpretations. One could argue that with increasing familiarity and knowledge
of the industry the acceptance of English is greater, or one could form the opinion that in the
future, when the junior officers rise to higher ranks, there may be more deck officers who
would opt for an alternative to English.

Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of sea service</th>
<th>Alternative lingua franca</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>There is none</td>
<td>Other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>under 4 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 15 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No tendency, however, could be detected when comparing the seafarers going for senior
grade certificates with the junior ones. There was only a small number of participants, fairly
evenly spread from the seekers of the lowest to the most senior certificate who would suggest
an alternative to English.

The most unambiguous statement on this issue was given to Question 19. Less than 4 %
disagreed with the statement that English was the most suitable language at sea (see Fig. 3).

Fig. 3. “English is the most suitable lingua franca for the maritime industry”

2.1. Resistance to English

The next issue regarded potential reluctance to communicate in English. The aim was to.

Reveal any possible opposition for cultural, political or religious reasons shown by indi-
viduals to having the English language imposed on them.

It has long been recognised that language and culture are inexorably interwoven with each
other and one cannot learn a language without learning something of the culture in which the
language is set. Due to an overload of media information, the last decades have made us
aware of the great chasms that exist between different cultures, religions, ideologies and
forms of government. One of the aims of the study was to investigate whether the English
language was regarded as disagreeable or the imposition of the language on international mariners as offensive and objectionable by seafarers from backgrounds that were significantly dissimilar from the Anglo-Saxon one.

The questionnaire circulating among this survey population showed, in fact, some tangible evidence of such sentiments. A hint that the English language was not fully accepted as the lingua franca in maritime circles throughout and there was the suggestion of an unwillingness of some seafarers and shore staff which had been encountered by almost a quarter of the students.

Question 31 (“Have you ever experienced an unwillingness among other seafarers to use English as a common language?”) tried to shed light on a possible disinclination by seafarers to use the English language as common ground, and Question 32 tried to do the same in regard to shore staff who may have felt a similar way. The result of Q 31 is shown below (see Fig. 4).

![Fig. 4. Frequencies of encountering unwillingness by other seafarers to speak English](image)

The result shows that over 21.2 percent had experienced unwillingness on the part of fellow seafarers to use English to converse always or often, 31.1% had experienced some opposition to using the language at some time and 47.8% had rarely or never found that other seafarers were reluctant to speak English. In view of previous findings regarding the use of English, this appears to be a surprisingly high proportion of participants who had encountered a dislike of the language.

The same sentiment, that is a reluctance to use English, occurred in the experience of the participants with almost identical frequency in their dealings with shore staff: 18.9% of those asked...
had met disinclination by the ones who are engaging with the vessel from ashore always or of-
ten, 32.6% had come across such an attitude at some time whereas 48.4% had rarely or never
experienced this reaction. Q 32 (“Have you ever experienced unwillingness among shore staff
to use English as a common language?”) yielded the following result shown in Fig. 5.

2.2. Usage of the SMCP

The third purpose of the investigation regarded the role of the SMCP and was meant to de-
termine if and how often incidents occurred in the experience of the participating seafarers
where communication was ineffective.

Determine the efficacy and the limitations of a codified language as in the SMCP and learn
about the frequency of incidents in the maritime sector where communication was ineffective
and led to mishaps or contributed in an adverse way to the outcome of accidents.

Question 33 came directly to the point of the former issue: “How often was the IMO publica-
tion ‘Standard Maritime Communication Phrases’ or SMCP used at sea?” (see Fig. 6).

Fig. 6. The frequency with which the SMCP was used on board

The SMCP was previously described as the most prolific publication currently used in the
attempt to establish common linguistic ground at sea. However, almost two thirds (64.2%) claimed
that they never or rarely made use of the publication. This seems a remarkably high
figure and I feel that the reason for this lies partly with the teaching and training institutions
which are given the task of educating future officers.

However, it was apt at this juncture once more to break up the answer to this question
along the lines of native and non-native English speakers. The finding is shown in Table 3.
The split shows that 73.3% of native English speakers never or rarely used the SMCP, while
only 45% of non-native English speakers said they made use of it never or rarely. Or, to put
a positive slant on it and disregarding the participants who answered the question with “some-
times” (19% overall), there were only 10% of native English speakers who always or often
used the coded language as opposed to 31% of non-native speakers.

The explanation for the above result may at first glance be surprising. Native English
 speakers should after all be in their element: The SMCP is compiled in the English language
and by speaking that lingo as a mother tongue would, on the face of it, make it comparatively
easy for a native speaker of English to use the terms and phrases from the publication.
Table 3.

A cross-tabulation of native and non-native English speakers on the usage of the SMCP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother tongue</th>
<th>Use of the SMCP</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>always</td>
<td>often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian, Pakistani, middle eastern</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is the author’s view that in fact the very competence of native speakers of English is the reason for a reluctance to condescend to a much simplified form of verbal expression in their ‘own’ language. In other words ‘there is no need for me to use some stunted and simplified code of a language which I can speak perfectly well’.

2.3. Miscommunication

Included in the third thesis was also the question of whether an incapacity to communicate in Maritime English ever caused problems on board ship (Q 28 “How often did an inability to communicate competently in Maritime English competently create misunderstandings among crew members on board?”). The outcome can be seen in Fig. 7. 30.3% had experienced misunderstanding with other crew members because of inadequate English skills always or often, 25.8% said misunderstandings occurred rarely or never and 43.9% stated that the problem arose sometimes. Given that the crew consists of ratings and officers and there has been little attempt on a global scale to formalize English language teaching among non-officers, this result is not really surprising.

![Fig. 7. Frequencies of misunderstandings on board due to an incompetence to speak English](image)

There is, of course, on board always the opportunity to explain, show or clarify in some other, non-verbal way to get an order or an idea across to another person if words fail – as by demonstration or gesturing. If a message can be successfully conveyed in that way, there may be some who will feel that communication has been adequate.

The next question delved into miscommunication between ships and shore stations, which is almost entirely effected by radio communication. This is carried out exclusively by officers. The result of question 29 (“How often did an inability to speak Maritime English competently create misunderstandings between your vessel and another vessel or shore station?”) was this.
Again, almost one third of the students (31%) had faced misunderstandings when communicating with other vessels. The outcome is very similar to the previous question in percentage terms. One aspect worth pointing out here is the afore-mentioned notion that face-to-face communication may be more comprehensible because conversational partners are able to observe the body language and facial expressions of each other and that therefore understanding between speakers of different languages is assisted by this paralanguage. For supporters of this view it would mean that the linguistic capacity in English of crew members on a multi-ethnic ship is actually poorer than the statistics suggest and it is in many cases paralanguage that bridges the gap.

One question pertained to difficulties during pilotage operations, arguably one of the most tense times of a passage – question 30 (“How often did an inability to speak Maritime English competently create misunderstandings on board during pilotage operations?”). The answers yielded the following outcome (see Fig. 9).

Here, the frequency of miscommunication was a lot lower – with 12.1%. The reason for this is to be found in the composition of the bridge team at such times and the character of the situation. Present in the wheelhouse during pilotage are normally the captain, the watch keeping deck officer, the helmsman, the pilot and often an additional lookout. The helmsman is generally handpicked for his experience and ability to steer a given course and for his ability...
to understand and correctly execute helm orders. This part of the passage has been planned with particular care and during these times the procedures on a ship’s bridge become quite formal, follow a well known pattern and the need for constant alertness while the ship is in confined waters is greater than normal. In other words: everybody is at their best and the dialogue between helmsman and pilot follows a prescribed routine, an often performed pattern.

2.4. The standard of Maritime English at sea

Lastly the status of English language proficiency in the maritime industry was to be examined. Examine the status of English language proficiency among seafarers today and seek the seafarer’s opinion on what level of Maritime English competence should exist for different ranks on board international trading vessels.

Seafarers were asked how they saw the competency of English among their colleagues in the international arena (Q 26 “International seafarers are by and large competent enough in the use of Maritime English”, see Fig. 10).

![Fig. 10. “International seafarers are sufficiently competent in English”](image)

The outcome showed that a slightly higher number of participants felt that seafarers were by and large competent enough in their communication skills using Maritime English than those who believed they were not (39.4% agreed or strongly agreed that the communicating ability was sufficient, 31.8% disagreed or strongly disagreed that this was the case).

Here again a breakdown of the different language groups seemed indicated. Comparing these, the results showed the following (see Table 4).

Only 30% of native English speakers believed that the communication ability of international seafarers in English was sufficiently good, whereas twice that percentage (59.5%) of speakers of other languages felt that that was so.

It could be complex to interpret this result. One possible explanation is that the use of the coded language of the SMCP, less practiced by native English speakers as we have seen, is used by non-native English speakers to a larger extent and creates in its coded format problems for those whose mother tongue is English. However, this seems a less likely explanation than the following construct: The vast majority of native English speakers in the maritime industry comes from the USA, Canada, Britain, South Africa, Australia and New Zealand. While there are distinct dialects which set the clusters apart, speakers from these countries have arguably maintained a close relationship to the “Queen’s English” – the American English being probably more idiosyncratic than that of the other nations mentioned. Speakers have adapted English literally to their speech mode, have developed an enunciation, pronun-
ciation and in some cases syntax and terminology which fits their linguistic and cultural background. We have coined terms for this: “Jinglish” for Japanese English speakers, “Chinglish” for Chinese, even “Afringlish” and “Spinglish” have been heard. These idioms are not always easy to understand for native English speakers.

Table 4. Crosstabs showing the view of perceived English language skills of seafarers by nationalities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother tongue</th>
<th>“International Seafarers are sufficiently competent in English”</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>German</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian, Pakistani, middle eastern language</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.5. Levels of Maritime English proficiency

Ratings and cadets are not normally called upon to communicate with other vessels. They may, however, have to interact with shore labour during cargo operations. The question as to whether a more elevated position in the hierarchy on board warranted better Maritime English communication skills was addressed first by question 22 (“A competence in Maritime English is important to carry out the job of a rating/cadet on an international merchant vessel”). The answers were distributed as shown in Fig. 11.

Fig. 11. “A competence in English is important for a cadet or rating”

Most ratings have in the past not been required to learn English unless a particular company insisted that they acquire some knowledge in it. Cadets, however, who are signed on as apprentice officers, are generally taught English. Most bona fide companies send one or two cadets on board their vessels where these young people are trained in the various aspects of seamanship, including Maritime English skills.
The next question was selected to find out if seafarers felt that the English communication skills were seen as more important among deck officers than among ratings and cadets. The result was this (Fig. 12).

![Pie chart showing the percentage of seafarers agreeing or disagreeing with the statement: "A competence in Maritime English is important for a Deck Officer". The majority strongly agree or agree, with a small percentage disagreeing.]

Fig. 12. “A competence in Maritime English is important for a Deck Officer”

The outcome showing that it was seen as more important for deck officers to be competent in English than it was for lower ranks was, of course, not unexpected. There was in fact a strong perception – and thereby an approval of the STCW 95 directive – that an ability to speak Maritime English at an acceptable level should be a prerequisite for a certificate of competency for a deck officer (Q 24 “The ability to speak Maritime English at an acceptable level should be a prerequisite for a deck watch keeping certificate”, see Fig. 13).

![Pie chart showing the percentage of seafarers agreeing or disagreeing with the statement: "Maritime English at an acceptable level should be a prerequisite for a deck watch keeping certificate". The majority strongly agree or agree, with a small percentage disagreeing.]

Fig. 13. “Maritime English at an acceptable level should be a pre-requisite for a deck watch keeping certificate”

91.7% of participating seafarers backed the suggestion, 6% were not sure and only 2.3% opposed the idea. This outcome shows a very solid endorsement for the English language by the survey population. The operative term here, however, is Maritime English at ‘an acceptable level’.
3. Summary

The questionnaire showed a strong support for the need of a common language at sea and for this language to be English. This is, without a doubt, partly due to the historical fact that the British merchant fleet has for centuries played the most prominent role on the world’s scene. British colonization and the establishment of trading posts on an unprecedented global scale ensured that the language was spread far and wide. While other countries had similar ambitions they could not match the influence and sway of the British merchants and expansionists which brought trade, perceived progress and business – and some less desirable outcomes – to the indigenous people at the four corners of the earth.

Another explanation for the still continuing increase of the English speaking sphere is the ever growing influence of the computer world. While there is no real monopoly on Information Technology today, it had its roots in the English speaking world and much of the terminology remained and is now accepted and used globally.

A further reason for the acceptance of English is the fact that it is the most taught second language in the world. Educational institutions in Europe, South America, Africa and Asia have simply accepted as a fait accompli that the language has cut a wide swathe in international communication and are – for very practical reasons – promoting it.

When looking at the taxonomy of language groups and language families it is evident that some languages have very close relationships and others differ markedly from each other. In our world we have the opportunity to take note and listen to the speakers of languages foreign to us, be it through the media, the entertainment industry or the actual contact with persons from other lands. Most of us, having heard unfamiliar tongues, will try to make some sense of what reaches our ears and – if the language is not too far removed from our own – we might be able to discern a meaning or recognize a word or two. In other cases, an understanding seems impossible because the language structure and articulation is just too alien and strange. In simple terms: the more removed linguistically a language is from our own, the less comprehensible it is and the harder it is to learn for us. The Teutonic branch of the Indo-European family of languages bears little resemblance to the Uralic, Dravidian and Altaic families and even less to the Sino-Tibetan, Malayo-Polynesian, Bantu, Semitic, or Uto-Aztecan ones.

The nationalities singled out in the questionnaire as being problematic to communicate with in English were mostly from the Asian region or Eastern Europe, while no Teutonic language did rate a mention. As a native English speaker has greater difficulties with the learning of Chinese than e.g. German or Danish, the situation is understandably reciprocated when a Mandarin speaker is trying to become proficient in English.

The publication of the “Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary” and its updated and extended successor the “Standard Maritime Communication Phrases” has been the latest and most comprehensive international attempt by the IMO to facilitate communication at sea. It is unfortunate but obvious that the little booklet has not penetrated all walks of life in the international maritime arena as it was intended to do.

Miscommunication at sea has in the past often been an overlooked factor where incidents occurred. Blame was frequently apportioned to improper responses or mechanical breakdowns without delving deeper into the chain of events leading up to the event. It has really been only through unfortunate episodes in the late 20th century that the IMO has seriously looked at accidents from the perspective of verbal misunderstandings. That such misunderstandings still happen became unmistakably clear in the survey. Intra-ship as well as intership and ship-shore communication “went wrong” in the view of a surprisingly high number of seafarers. Even during pilotage, a crucial time in the professional life of a navigator, almost a fifth of the participants had experienced miscommunication due to language.
On board, language problems have the capacity to lead to misinterpretation and confusion which in turn, can escalate into disagreement and argument and the deterioration of the working environment. The meaning of a “happy” or an “unhappy” ship, terms every seafarer is familiar with, often hinges on such matters.

Then, on a more prominent note, there are consequences which reach further: groundings, collisions and pollution of the environment the world over, accidents, often relegated to a newspaper’s back page where no illustrious holiday beach or densely populated area is threatened, do occur with monotonous regularity. The more spectacular ones, as we all know, often occupy the media for weeks.

The answers to the last topic, i.e. how international mariners see the linguistic ability in Maritime English among their colleagues, coincided very closely with the results of the responses given to incidents of miscommunication. About 30% of participants had experienced language difficulties using English and about the same number disagreed or strongly disagreed that international seafarers were by and large proficient in Maritime English. There is, statistically speaking, a satisfying correlation here which should send a clear signal to shipping companies and training institutions alike.

The strong support for the view that ratings and cadets should be competent in Maritime English shows with clarity that the English language is regarded as an important and necessary professional skill and the even stronger, almost unanimous, opinion that deck officers should have that ability attests to what mariners expect from their officers.

And as a last point: it is perhaps inevitable that we will have to attach a uniform, measurable standard to Maritime English competency as a skill to be attained by international seafarers. This would probably require the determination of specific benchmarks in Maritime English competency for different ranks. How in detail this may be orchestrated is likely to be one of the most sensitive tasks this group has had to deal with.

References


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**Curriculum Vitae**

Ulf Georg Schriever

- Master Foreign Going (Master Class I), licensed compass adjuster, PhD Ed.;
- graduated in Hamburg in 1970; decided to go to sea and after finishing school joined a North Sea trawler for a few weeks as a galley boy. After this he sailed as a rating working in the engine room and on deck on cargo ships on the Europe, Africa and Asia run and then emigrated to Australia in 1971. There he was initially employed in the northern fishing industry;
- received his first certificate as master (fishing) in 1974 and sailed for a few years as skipper on trawlers and then on mother-ships;
- in 1984 he acquired his certificate (trading) as master on the Queensland coast and sailed as master of a couple of small coastal freighters in the north of Australia. He then decided to study at the Australian Maritime College to gain his foreign going qualifications;
- he was issued with an international watch-keeping certificate in 1988 and sailed on a Ro-Ro vessel in the Bass Straight for 18 months as 3rd and 2nd officer. He then joined P&O and sailed on the Australia-Japan-Korea run for 18 months again as 3rd and 2nd officer in the container trade;
- in 1992 he acquired his Master Class I certificate and worked as relieving master on a mother ship in North Queensland before joining Tidewater Marine in 1993 as chief officer. He stayed with that company for 3 years, 18 months as chief officer and 18 months as master;
- in 1996, after 25 years at sea, he decided to take a position as lecturer at the Australian Maritime College. This work included lecturing as well as acting as relieving master on the training ship ‘Wyuna’ until she was sold. He has been employed at the college now for 13 years;
- in 2001 he acquired a master’s degree in education at the University of Tasmania and has recently obtained his PhD in education;
- during the last 20 months he has spent seven months at sea during his leave periods from the college as relieving 3rd officer, 2nd officer and chief officer to maintain his professional skills.

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LANGUAGE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF MULTIPLE-CHOICE QUESTION ASSESSMENT IN MARITIME EDUCATION AND CERTIFICATION

Abstract

Mariners are required to hold certificates as qualification of competence to perform their duties. Certificates are issued following a testing and examination process that includes multiple choice questions (MCQ). The examination process is to ensure whether certificate holders can complete onboard tasks safely and with the least environmental impact.

Drown, Mercer and Jeffery conducted preliminary qualitative and quantitative research into international examination methods for mariners, including the use of MCQ items, and presented the results at IMLA 14 and IMEC 19. In 2008 Stephen Cross joined as an author. There are no similar studies on MCQ testing specific to maritime education and examination in the literature.

The paper describes a study comparing the MCQ performance of student mariners relative to students with no maritime technology knowledge (novices). The supposition is that novice test scores reflect factors other than subject knowledge, and that there is a relationship between scores and the student characteristics of gender, age, English as a first or second language, level of English comprehension (including word and concept association), and previous experience with MCQ assessment. The study’s objective is to provide insights into the relative significance of these factors so that they may be considered when constructing MCQ items.

The study uses English language marine technology MCQ items contributed by nautical colleges and maritime administrations, and currently in use around the world. With the cooperation of nautical college participants, student mariner and novice test subjects at a given location in different countries each write the same test. The study data contains no identifiable information about participants or study subjects.

The paper provides the study’s background; acknowledges the study method’s strength and limitations; presents the study’s results; offers observations; attempts conclusions, and suggests a way to engage researchers in further analysis of the study data.

Keywords: multiple choice questions, maritime competence, maritime examination.

1. Introduction

1.1. Situation

Mariners are required to hold certificates as qualification of competence to perform their duties safely and with the least environmental impact. Certificates are issued by a maritime administration pursuant to international convention (STCW 95), following an examination process that includes multiple choice questions (MCQ). Opinions as to the effectiveness of
MCQ assessment differ considerably amongst maritime education and training schools (METS) and maritime administrations, reflecting the broader debate in the literature.

1.2. Concerns

A general concern is that MCQ restrict independent thought and creativity, measuring recognition rather than understanding. Experienced test takers can identify patterns and apply ‘testwiseness’ such as deciphering the language of MCQ, thus discriminating between logical or problem-solving students, and students with skills in writing or argumentation.

There are concerns in maritime education about variations in MCQ use from one country to another, and doubts about effectiveness as an examination method. This lack of confidence is reflected by students’ attitudes to ‘multiple-guess’ questions. Concerns about difference, consistency and confidence result in a questionable assessment method, a situation unfitting for professional examination. Concerns are reflected in the technical press, as evidenced by articles in “Seaways” (2007), and mirrored in the general literature, for example Paxton’s (2000) criticism of poor design and construction and the over-emphasis on MCQ testing.

1.3. The Study Process and Purpose

The study is based on the rationale, methodology and demonstrated feasibility of the researchers’ preliminary investigations. The study addresses concerns regarding MCQ assessment effectiveness by comparing the performance of student mariners relative to students with no maritime technology knowledge (novices). The purpose is to draw attention to and provide insights into factors influencing MCQ testing.

2. Background

2.1. IMLA 14 Survey and IMEC 19 Exploratory Study

Survey results were presented at IMLA 14 (Drown et al. 2006). The survey gathered information and shared experiences about the use of MCQ, including concerns about the use within examination regimes, concerns about the way MCQ are prepared, and varying attitudes of maritime educators to MCQ assessment, including ambivalence, that is, welcoming the convenience but with reservations regarding effectiveness. Exploratory study results were presented at IMEC 19 (Drown et al. 2007), identifying factors influencing test scores by giving marine technology MCQ tests to persons with no marine knowledge (novices). The novices scored significantly above chance, indicating influences other than subject knowledge, such as language and question structure, and suggesting that ability to answer MCQ may be related to age, familiarity, testwiseness educational level and language skills. That MCQ testing may reflect influences other than subject knowledge is a concern in any learning situation, more so in maritime education, where MCQ testing and examination lead to professional qualification attesting to competence.

2.2. Literature

The authors find no studies on MCQ testing specific to maritime education. However, there are many studies relating to professions such as aviation and medicine, where the knowledge gained may be applied to maritime students, who have similarities in educational and cultural background. The authors are guided by Burton (2005), who observed that op-
nions, arguments and evidence in the field need to be considered critically and carefully, a pertinent observation considering that MCQ are used in assessment of STCW competence.

3. Competence and MCQ

The debate about MCQ assessment started in the 1930s, and continues to occupy educators’ thoughts. Much of the debate is relevant to maritime education, for example in the United Kingdom there is now a possibility for secondary students to score up to 75% by MCQ in science examinations. Proponents say this gives students “more chances to succeed” allowing them to be tested “at any time”. Opponents say this is an over-simplistic way of assessing a complex learning process, resulting in drilling students to master MCQ (Mansell 2006).

In maritime education the debate surrounds the use of MCQ in the evaluation of competencies described in STCW 95. There are different philosophies and definitions of competence, including “combinations of skill, attitude and knowledge”, or “ability to perform a particular activity to a prescribed standard” (Fletcher 1995), and, according to the Dutch Higher Education Council, a “potential to handle new, unexpected, untrained situations”.

While properly constructed, validated and reliable MCQ have a place in quickly checking factual knowledge, they may not be an appropriate part of the evaluation of seafarers’ competence, which requires a combination of experience, knowledge, skills, communication and other attributes, such as leadership. Certification attests to mariner competence to perform onboard tasks safely, and STCW signalled a need to move from knowledge-based towards competence-based learning and evaluation. For examinations leading to professional certification, MCQ variants may improve reliability and effectiveness, provided they form part of a multidimensional examination regime. Variants include confidence rating and alternative scoring procedures (Hutchinson 1993), and Parsons’ (1992) “thought-provoking” items. Cappel (2007) suggests multi-faceted exams comprising of communicative short answers, applicative essay and multiple choice questions.

4. The study

4.1. Participants and Test Subjects

Participants are volunteers from METS faculty accessing the test subjects and administering the tests. They seek groups of mariner subjects in at least the second year of a maritime program leading to a STCW certificate for Deck and Marine Engineer Officers. The mariners are students within participants’ METS and act as a control group. Participants seek a second group of test subjects without maritime technology knowledge (novices) and enrolled in a non-maritime program. Mariners and novices are characterized as multicultural male and female secondary education graduates, 17 to 25 years, and with English as a first or second language. Particular mariner and novice groups are in the same country, giving an expectation of a common English standard. Novice groups are diverse, and include Nursing, English Literature and Secretarial students.

4.2. Sample

Invitations to participate were sent to 104 METS faculty and maritime administrators in 37 countries. There are 18 participants from 12 countries, of which 10 are countries with English as a second language. There are 44 individual study tests with 930 mariner and novice study test subjects from North America, Europe, Asia and the Indian Subcontinent.
4.3. Study Tests

The study uses 1500 unedited examples of knowledge-based MCQ items presently in use, contributed by a faculty and officials from METS and maritime administrations. The questions are from the standard ‘single-best answer family’ (McCoubrie 2004). Contributors are not identified; provenance in terms of item construction, validation or reliability is not requested.

4.4. Process

Eighty 20-question knowledge-based English language marine technology tests are drawn randomly from the 1500-question pool. Each participant is provided with two tests, one for Deck Officers and one for Marine Engineer Officers, with a Response Form and a questionnaire. Mariners and novices do the same test. Participants are given administration instructions that include discouraging the subjects from guessing.

4.5. Data Tabulation

Appendix A is an example of data tabulation, showing Test 9D generated randomly from the database of questions generally within the experience of Deck and Engine students in their second or above year, with the 20 items arranged so that the first 10 are on basic topics, with the remainder including more advanced questions.

4.6. Strength and Limitations

The main strength of the study lies in the originality of an approach that has not been attempted in maritime education yet, providing freshness to a subject frequently occupying the thoughts of maritime educators. The main limitations are respecting participants’ understandably restricted time to interact with private researchers, so requests are not made for opportunities to follow-up on test responses and for more detailed information about the mariners’ technical knowledge level and the novices’ education level.

5. Study variables

5.1. Gender

Gender differences in MCQ testing are important considering increased female mariner recruitment. Studies find females do worse on MCQ tests than on essay tests (Hellekant 1994). Walstead and Robson (1997) attribute lower MCQ test scores for females to social and cultural differences. Ramos and Lambating (1996) conclude that MCQ tests promote values of objectivity, factual knowledge, and rapid performance (male socialization), and devalue subjectivity, reflection, introspection and feelings (female socialization).

5.2. Age

Age is a matter to consider, where there is a significant age difference between persons taking junior and senior certificate MCQ examinations, since older persons may be able to compensate for their lack of subject knowledge through deductive reasoning (Charness 1985) and through skills proportional to the absorption of culture (Belsky 1990).
5.3. English as a First or Second Language

The IMLA survey indicated the lack of English language comprehension as a significant factor in MCQ assessment. Stupans (2006) found that international students have problematic language proficiency, learning styles and attitudes at odds with persons of an English-speaking background, and an incompatibility with knowledge application and knowledge recall. Murrell (2009) comments on the IMO’s estimation of fatal accidents, injuries and damage caused by problems with the English language.

5.4. English Comprehension

Language and phrasing of the question stem is an important factor in MCQ testing, and item constructors need to use an appropriate level of language and technical terms. When the phrasing is unclear, students may read more into the MCQ than the item-writer intended, particularly if the writer is inexperienced or untrained, with the possibility of a word in the question stem stimulating an association with a word in one of the responses.

5.5. Previous MCQ Experience

Anecdotally, long exposure and experience with MCQ may enable a correct response to be selected by intuition, defined as a capacity to utilize the characteristics and formats of a test, independent of subject matter knowledge to receive a high score (Sarnacki 1979).

6. Study results

6.1. Study Statistics

Fig. 1 summarises the sample.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Study Subjects</th>
<th>Dock Questions</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Engine Questions</th>
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</table>

Fig. 1. Summary of the Sample (Appendix B)

Fig. 2 is an example of the analysis, with novices (deck) showing a pattern common to novices (engine) as well as for mariners (deck and engine). Females score about the same on the basic questions (1–10) and a little lower otherwise, noting that female numbers were only significant for novices. The 25-year and above group scores best, as do those with English first language and very good English comprehension. In the First MCQ group, those, whose experience started in primary education, do best. The PSec (Post-Secondary) groups are not represented because of the small sample.
6.2. Language and Language Understanding

Appendix C includes matrices showing correct responses to individual study questions. Study subjects are asked to read the questions and possible responses carefully, rather than simply choosing at random. The matrices show the frequency of individual questions answered mostly correctly, indicating the possibility of language clues and word or concept association.

6.3. Trends and Means

Fig. 3 is an extract from Appendix D giving graphical representations of the test results, showing the trend for novices to mirror the mariners.

Fig. 4 gives novices (shown as ■) scoring above means of 5.0 (25%) through to 9.0 (45%). Novices score above 25% in 20 out of 22 tests; above 30% in 13/22 tests; above 35% in 12/22 tests; above 40% in 8/22 tests, and above 45% in 4/22 tests.
6.4. Observations

The data requires more analysis to gain further information and insights. However, the features immediately apparent are the pattern commonalities in all databases (Fig. 2): the frequency with which novices correctly respond to certain questions (Appendix C); the frequency with which novice scores mirror and in some cases equal or exceed those of mariners, particularly for Advanced Deck and Basic and Advanced Engine (Appendix D – Novice Trends and Fig. 3), and the capability of scoring above 45% with no subject knowledge (Fig. 4).

Novices and mariners for a particular test have similar educational and linguistic profiles, so there is a reasonable expectation that the tools or mechanisms used by novices may also be used by mariners as well as, or instead of, subject knowledge in combinations that are not evident in the test score. For example, in Fig. 3, Table 1D, Test #10, the mariner and novice means are 10.0 (50%) and 8.0 (40%) respectively, so the mariners may have achieved 50% knowing only 10% of the subject matter.

7. Conclusion

Standard knowledge-based MCQ are not effective in an examination process leading to a professional certificate attesting to competence, because MCQ cannot reliably assess subject knowledge, and are not designed to evaluate competence.

Properly constructed and validated MCQ tests are valuable in-course tools where there is classroom dialogue between instructor and student. However, if MCQ are used in STCW competency examinations, they should be variants and a minor element in a multi-dimensional process that includes competency based assessment. They should be constructed clearly and explicitly with attention to the principles of Maritime English. Use of novices may be helpful in identifying questions that can readily be deduced from item language.

Variants require added resources for construction, marking and preserving objectivity. Considering the possible consequences of incompetence, these additional resources are a good investment in a safe maritime transportation industry.

8. Further research

The authors invite collaboration from Maritime Technology and English educationalists. Specifically: to investigate the relationship between the study test questions, Maritime English, the Standard Marine Communication Phrases, and word/concept associations.

Generally: to understand why use of MCQ in STCW examination varies, and if differing examination methods for the common (STCW) standard are of consequence.

Finally: considering the implications of wide MCQ use in STCW examinations, there is a need for this study to be replicated by others.

References

### APPENDIX A

Study results data tabulation – example

#### MARINERS - QUANTITATIVE STUDY RESULTS - DECK QUESTIONS

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#### Control Groups and Mean Scores

The test databases are generally within the experience of Deck and Engine students in their second or above year. However, some specific test items may not be within the knowledge expected from a particular student mariner group, hence they are ‘control groups’ providing a measure of comparison with novices. In order to obtain a better appreciation of student mariners’ knowledge levels, 20 items randomly selected from the databases are arranged so that the first 10 are on topics more likely to be familiar to the mariners, for example basic ship knowledge, safety and survival, with the remainder including the more advanced questions.

“Correct out of....”

The procedure is similar to ensuring validity and reliability, particularly through checking high and low scores. However, for this study the procedure attempts to identify questions answered mainly correctly/incorrectly through word and concept association, for example, why did 85% of novices answer the (Advanced) Question #20 correctly? What was the reason mariners score 0% on Question #2 and 100% on Question #10?
COMPILATION OF STUDY RESULTS

MARINERS & NOVICES - DECK QUESTIONS

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Table 1D

MARINERS & NOVICES - ENGINE QUESTIONS

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Table 1E

NOVICES - DECK

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Mean = 6.5

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Table 2D

NOVICES - ENGINE

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Mean = 7.8

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Table 2E

APPENDIX B

The Results

Tables 1 and 2 (Deck & Engine) compare the variables for study subjects scoring above and below the mean for the particular group of tests. For example, in Table 1D 334 mariners had an overall mean of 9.0 for the 20-question tests, with 194 subjects ≥9.0 and 140 subjects <9.0. Tables (Deck & Engine) compare the variables for novices with the same mean as the mariners. For example, in Table 3D, of the 334 mariners and 217 novices 194 and 44 respectively had a mean of ≥9.0.
DECK QUESTIONS - Frequency of Correct Responses ≥50%

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TOTALS: 65 Novices, 99 Mariners

ENGINE QUESTIONS - Frequency of Correct Responses ≥50%

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TOTALS: 63 Novices, 87 Mariners

The Matrices

The matrices attempt to identify questions, where language and word/concept association are factors in Novice responses. The Deck and Engine matrices record the percentages Novices and Mariners answered each test question correctly ≥50% of the time. For example, in Test 9D, Question #19, 69% of Novices and 85% of Mariners answered Question #19 correctly. In this Test (9D) there were 13 Novice and 13 Mariner test subjects, of whom 9 Novices (69%) and 11 Mariners (85%) answered Question #19 correctly. Compare with the Test 9D Data Record example (Appendix A). The TOTALS are the times each test question was scored correctly by ≥50% of Novices and ≥50% of Mariners. For example, out of the 260 Deck Questions in all 13 Tests, 65 (25%) questions were answered correctly ≥50% of the time by Novices, and 99 (38%) were answered correctly ≥50% of the time by Mariners.
APPENDIX D
Graphical representations

COMPILATION OF STUDY RESULTS: GRAPHICAL REPRESENTATIONS

MARINERS & NOVICES - DECK QUESTIONS

Mariners & Novices - Deck Questions

Mean of 20 Questions

Table 1D: Test 1 - 13: Questions 1 - 20 (Basic & Advanced)

Table 2D: Test 1 - 13: Questions 1 - 10 (Basic)

Table 3D: Test 1 - 13: Questions 11 - 20 (Advanced)

Mariners & Novices - Engine Questions

Mariners & Novices - Engine Questions

Mean of 20 Questions

Table 1E: Tests 1 - 9: Questions 1 - 20 (Basic & Advanced)

Table 2E: Tests 1 - 9: Questions 1 - 10 (Basic)

Table 3E: Test 1 - 9: Questions 11 - 20 (Advanced)

NOVICE TRENDS

STUDY TEST NUMBER - DECK QUESTIONS

Ques. Type

Basic & Advanced

Basic

Advanced

STUDY TEST NUMBER - ENGINE QUESTIONS

Ques. Type

Basic & Advanced

Basic

Advanced

Means and Trends

All the test results are accumulated in four databases, one for Deck (mariner and novice) and one for Engine (mariner and novice). In each of the four databases the mean scores are calculated for correct responses to the first 10, the last 10 and the complete 20 questions. For example, in Table 1D, Test 1, the mean scores for 20 questions were 7.6 for mariners and 5.8 for novices. “Trending with the Mariner Mean Scores” is where the Novices mirror the Mariners, that is, the greater the Mariner mean the greater the Novice mean.
Curriculum Vitae

Denis Drown, EXC, FNI

- retired from the Marine Institute of Memorial University;
- a Master Mariner and Fellow of the Nautical Institute, holding an Extra Master Certificate of Competency and a Teaching Certificate from London University, with over 45 years experience in the marine transportation industry as mariner, educator, and as consultant for training and oil pollution prevention projects, nationally and internationally;
- started his nautical education experience as an instructor at the Plymouth School of Navigation, and then, following a period in Kuwait as training advisor, to the Marine Institute, Newfoundland as instructor, becoming Department Head; later on, he became Project Manager and then Director for the new Centres for Marine Simulation and Offshore Safety;
- 1993-2003 he worked for Canship Ugland Ltd. of St. John’s (managers of shuttle tankers and escort tugs), and Marine Atlantic Inc. (ferries);
- developed training programs for ship safety and pollution prevention, and International Safety Management and ISO quality systems, including the ISO 14001 Environmental Management System;
- has provided business services for marine related projects, and published papers and articles on safety, education, simulation, human factors, and environmental law.

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Robert Mercer, MM, MEd

- an instructor in the School of Maritime Studies, Memorial University of Newfoundland where he has developed and delivered a variety of customized training programs for marine industry clients and the Diploma of Nautical Science program;
- teaches courses in Post-Secondary Education in the Faculty of Education relating to Curriculum and Instructional Development;
- has over 35 years experience in the marine industry in various positions including ship operator, maritime educator and consultant;
- holds a Master Mariner certificate of competency and a Master’s Degree in Education.

Gary Jeffery, PhD

- a professor in the Faculty of Education, Memorial University of Newfoundland until his retirement in Jan 2009;
- a licensed psychologist with extensive experience in both standardized psychometric and classroom assessment;
- holds a PhD in Educational Psychology and has been involved in university teaching and research for 33 years;
- maintained a private psychology practise, principally as assessor and expert court witness (large in matters related to parenting skills and child maltreatment) for over 20 years;
- as an educator, he has taught a range of courses including those at the graduate level in the assessment of cognitive and other abilities. He is a member of the Newfoundland Board of Examiners in Psychology and his past experiences have included serving as Associate Dean in Education and as a member of a team engaged in the assessment and the establishment of a profile of the learning needs in the Innu in Labrador.
Stephen Cross, MSc, FNI

- Director of Projects, Maritime Institute Willem Barentsz (MIWB);
- a Master Mariner, a MSc, a Fellow of the Nautical Institute, and an Associate Fellow of the Royal Institute of Navigation, London;
- served in the Dutch Merchant and offshore fleet on general cargo ships, tankers and crane/ pipelaying vessels for 10 years;
- has 11 years of teaching experience as simulation instructor and department manager including curriculum development with national educational working groups and the Dutch Ministry of Transport and Public Works state examinations;
- taught at the World Maritime University in Malmö, Sweden, for four years and has conducted simulator instructor training courses for KMSS for 7 years in France, Holland, United Kingdom, Canada, USA, Japan, Philippines, Papua New Guinea, Australia and France;
- was Director at MIWB for 9 years, responsible for budgeting, academic content, student services, operations at the full mission simulation center and on the training vessel;
- has consulted in Philippines, Taiwan, Singapore and Kazakhstan, with participation in European Union R&D projects on ship safety, communications, crisis management and maritime education;
- his present activities include implementation of quality assurance systems, international contacts and projects and business development and acquisition at MIWB.
MAXIMIZING STUDENT INTERACTION IN CLASS

Abstract

Our aim in teaching is to develop students’ ability to communicate freely and spontaneously in English. Fighting language anxiety can have considerable consequences on the whole language learning process. Undoubtedly, when students realize they understand and are understood, speaking activities will become their favourites. However, to achieve this we need to apply a variety of strategies. The purpose of the paper is to provide some ideas, tips and strategies to involve our students into speaking in order to maximize the usage of classroom time allowed for speaking and minimize our students’ anxiety while speaking.

Keywords: speaking practice, teaching ideas, oral communication

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to explore ways to maximize student interaction and participation in class, with a focus on role-plays which involve the learners in authentic communication.

Language teaching, to be successful, must provide the learner with a variety of opportunities to listen and talk related items, structures, and vocabulary so often that finally he is able to produce them automatically when required. However, speaking as a productive skill seems to the learners to be more difficult than listening, for instance. It requires more active participation. It is said that “nobody can learn to play the instrument only by listening to it being played by another person: one must try to play the instrument oneself”. If our students are to keep a conversation going on, they not only must have required language command and be motivated but know what to say, as well. And here is the rub! Let us be honest, many of us are not inborn orators, neither are our students. To possess the skill one needs years, not hours or even months. Certainly, we do not have time for this. Many of us are shy, anxious to speak, with fallible memory, losing tongues and getting stressed when asked. Some hints what to say may be a helping hand in such cases. Therefore, I recommend using guided role-plays as means to maximize student interaction in class and minimizing anxiety while speaking.

2. Close analysis of the role-play

There exists a variety of definitions of role-plays. A role play is a communicative activity during which the learners are given a task to complete. In order to ensure a lively and unpredictable course of the activity, the learners are told who they are, what their opinions are and what they know that is unknown to the others (Golebiowska A., 1998).

From what A. Golebiowska rightly observes it follows that maintaining the information gap is crucial if this type of activity is to be challenging, interesting and successful. In practical terms it means that under no circumstances should students look at their partner’s role-cards. Thus, making students aware of the importance of the rule is strongly advised.
We, the teachers, have to try to ensure that the role-plays practised during our lessons and responses given by our students are reasonable, used in real life and will be useful in their seagoing career, for instance.

It is the teacher who plans everything beforehand, adapts authentic materials, involves required language, decides on the whole procedure, its duration and content. Needless to say, the role-plays ought to be based firmly on the structures and vocabulary taught to the class at each step and there always should be a connection between the language of the English class and that used in other lessons. Such attitude provides much better chance of useful interaction.

Having role plays prepared this way, learners know exactly what the teacher wants them to say and probably the teacher obtains responses he simply wanted, aimed at the language introduced previously in the class. Thus, the teacher does not have to deal with situations where students have nothing to say or just pretend not to know what to say or start to complicate the task for themselves by attempting to present too complex ideas when their command of language is not sufficient, or they simply give unforeseen responses. Moreover, the teacher is able to control the time allowed for speaking more effectively. Through such guided dialogues the acceptable and common patterns of language are practised. It is usually found that learners will work hard and co-operatively at language tasks where goals have been clearly specified. All students with a poorer command of English will probably be able to handle the conversation because very often the most relevant vocabulary has been used for giving instructions what to say in the task.

The activities can be utilized to involve students in a kind of painless speaking practice. All the given suggestions put students on the right road and leave on the firm ground until all goals have been accomplished. The point is that such exercises are usually easy and learners are able to provide correct responses even without thinking much about them. The teacher can be almost sure that if everybody knows what to do, how to do it and what to do it for, then real, purposeful communication will take place even if the learners may make mistakes. The more opportunities to speak our students have, the better they speak. The better they speak, the more confident they are and more eager to participate in any oral exercise you suggest.

3. Practical tips for successful communicative activities

Classroom communicative activities to be successful not only require a friendly, relaxed learning environment, but a variety of other conditions as well. The list below presents some ideas providing better chance of useful interaction happening:

− Encourage interaction between students rather than only between student and teacher. Get students in pairs and small groups to maximize opportunities for students to speak.
− When you get students in pairs, from time to time try to mix students, so they do not talk to the same partner every time. It makes the conversations more unpredictable, more realistic and thus more interesting. Be persistent in doing so from the start as later your students may not only start complaining about changing pairs, but be reluctant to such an extent that they may play for time to do so, as well.
− Allow thinking time to let students think over given task and ask questions.
− Allow thinking time to let students or get them to finish their sentences.
− Replace unnecessary teacher talk to explain everything over and over again to make sure they have understood. Ask questions rather than give explanations.
− Encourage co-operation rather than competition. It seems to me useful and positive, even if less able or less eager to participate students copy ideas or rely “too much” on others’ help.
More or less they learn from others. Sometimes correction made by a classmate brings better results than authoritative correction made by us, the teachers. Although much of our educational experience may suggest that this kind of co-operation is to be discouraged.

- Allow students to become more responsible. Put them in situations where they need to make decisions for themselves.
- When you want students to discuss something, ask “open” questions, (e.g. what, where, why, how, etc.) rather than “closed” ones that require nothing more than yes or no. For instance, instead of “Is piracy a threat to navigation?” (answer = yes or no) you could as “What do you think of piracy?”
- Often we need to do something with what we hear – e.g. make notes, note down an address, spelt names, times of flights, etc. Bring that to students’ attention before the task so that they have what they need at hand. It is vital when students change their seating arrangement.
- If a student is speaking too quietly for you or the other students to hear, encourage him or her to speak louder so that everybody can hear. Always keep quite a distance from the quiet speakers, rather than be closer to them. This may sound illogical, but that naturally makes people speak louder.
- Make sure your students are able to listen to what you and the other students say. No matter how difficult it may seem to achieve, for me it is the foremost, indispensable condition for proper communication.
- Make sure your students have optimum exposure to each other. The easiest reorganization can be done very simply by getting some learners to turn to face those behind them, or if possible, rearrange desks in the classroom. If you follow the links below, you will find strategic seating arrangement of students for various purposes.

http://ematusov.soe.udel.edu/final.paper.pub/_pwfsfp/00000181.htm
http://www.huntington.edu/education/lessonplanning/seating.html
http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/hrd/seating.html

4. Conclusion

The above given role-play advice and tips for successful communicative activities are recommended to be used by teachers, who feel that their students need to spend more time on practicing spoken English. All of them are based on the assumption that the learners have already some knowledge of English and they need to put their knowledge in practice with an emphasis in oral training. By offering advice and sample set of role-plays I would like to encourage both teachers and their students to make up similar oral activities, extend the ones you have to enlarge this collection and share them with others.

References

Role-play 1

STUDENT A

You are at a London Airport.
Student B works at customer services.
You have lost your luggage.

- From Warsaw
- Answer questions – 10 Broad Street, Trent
- Ask for money (to buy basic things)
- Ask to talk to manager

You speak first.
Begin: “Excuse me, I cannot find my luggage.”

STUDENT B

You are at a London Airport.
You work for customer services.

Student A has lost his/her luggage.
Ask about:
- Flight and passenger details
- Details of bags
- If found – will send back – where?
- No refund now – must fill in form

Student A begins by saying: “Excuse me, I cannot find my luggage.”

QUESTIONS (optional for discussion)

1. What means of transport do you usually choose? Why?
2. Describe the accident you saw/heard about.
3. What are the advantages or disadvantages of public transport?
4. What do you think the minimum driving age should be?
Role-play 2

STUDENT A

You are a customer. Student B is a shop assistant. You want to complain about a laptop.

Talk about:

- reason – battery
- you want money back
- buy last week
- receipt – yes
- exchange

Begin by saying: “Excuse me, can you help me?”

STUDENT B

You are a shop assistant. Student A wants to complain about a laptop you sold him.

Ask about:

- reason for complaint
- when bought
- receipt?
- special offer products – no refunds!
- exchange for another possible
- short of this model- have a similar one

The candidate begins by saying: “Excuse me, can you help me?”

QUESTIONS (optional for discussion)

1. Who does the shopping in your family?
2. When did you last have a problem with a product? Did you complain?
3. What are the advantages and disadvantages of doing shopping online?
4. What do you think about big shopping centers?
Role-play 3

STUDENT A

You are attending a course for seamen to get higher professional qualifications. Student B is the course organiser.
You are not happy with the course.
Give reasons why you are unhappy with the course and ask for changes.

- Hours: not enough
- Rooms: too cold
- Students: too many
- Instructors: talk too fast
- Content: very good

Begin by saying: “Sorry to say, but I am not really satisfied with the course?”

STUDENT B

You are an organizer of a course for seamen.
Student A comes to complain about the course.

Talk about:
- reason for complaint
- temporary problems with heating, already reported to boiler house
- number of students and hours meet IMO requirements
- promise to talk to your instructors about reported problem
- thank for appreciating the content

Student A begins by saying: “Excuse me, can you help me?”

QUESTIONS (optional for discussion)

1. What courses are required for officers working at sea?
2. Have you ever complained about a course? Why?
3. What aspects would be important to you if you attended an English course?
Role-play 4

STUDENT A

You are at the travel agency in London. You have to be back home on Monday at noon. You have an economy class ticket for direct flight to Warsaw. Try to exchange your ticket.
Ask about:
How long – journey
Possible flights
Price
You speak first.

STUDENT B

You are a travel agent. Student A is trying to exchange his/her ticket.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Direct flight</th>
<th>Transfer flight</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Time</td>
<td>2 hours</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Price</td>
<td>$ 200</td>
<td>$ 170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class</td>
<td>Only business class left</td>
<td>Economy class still available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date</td>
<td>Monday afternoon leaves at 12</td>
<td>Monday morning leaves at 7.45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is a small fee for changing tickets.

QUESTIONS (optional for discussion)

2. What places have you visited lately? Why?
3. Do you often use public transport? Why / Why not?
4. What are advantages and disadvantages of having a car?
Curriculum Vitae

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- lecturer in Gdynia Maritime University,
- 2006 Gdynia Maritime University,
- 2000 – 2006 Naval University of Gdynia,
- 1996 Gdynia Maritime Training Centre,
- Qualifications: MA in English Studies.

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AUTHENTIC MATERIAL IN TEACHING MARITIME ENGLISH

There are a lot of resources for authentic and up-to-date materials for teachers of English. Nautical publications, such as Pilots, Notices to Mariners, Charts, and maritime magazines can provide basis for exercises devoted to practicing different skills. It is the teacher who decides which skills have to be developed and practiced. Internet is one of very useful sources of such material both for a teacher and for a student.

INTERNET

Teacher – resource for planning lessons
- can make exercises using authentic texts
- can use topical, authentic material with their students
- can complement a topic from the course book
- can create exercises that are easily reusable (saving time in the long run)

Student – resource for authentic material
- interactive exercises
- can check results at once
- can work at their own pace, whenever they want
- motivating and fun

Example exercises:

I. Subject ‘The Panama Canal’
1. Listening – KWL Chart (What do you know?, What do you want to know?, What have you learned?).
3. Writing – Ss make notes while watching video; home assignment ‘Write a short note on the Suez Canal’.
4. Speaking – Ss present orally what they’ve learned.

II. Subject ‘Oil Pollution’
1. Reading – read the full text and then do ‘the gap filling exercise’.
2. Writing – write a report using the MAIB Report Form.
3. Speaking – Find sea disaster connected with oil pollution and tell your friend about it (the other student has to note down some info, e.g. the location, time, vessels’ particulars, the cause of the incident, how it was tackled, etc. and then retell the story).

III. Subject ‘Presentations’
4. Speaking – Ss compare their remarks.

IV. Subject ‘Job’
1. Listening.
2. Reading – Letter of application.
3. Writing – Write e-mails to each other, e.g. letter of application and then answers to other Ss letters.
4. Speaking – Find ‘Top Ten Interview Questions’ Ss compare their Q, then role play.
Some useful links

m-i-link.com Maritime Dictionary
Medical English online exercises and games. Course suitable for doctors, nurses and pharmacists.
public speaking video - Google Search
Talk Like a Guru (Top 3 Video Clips) « Marketing Nirvana
Zentation.com Presentation - "Guy Kawasaki - The Art of Innovation"
marabout (Meaning/definition)
TEFL.net » Idea Thinktank
YouTube - Good and bad oral presentations
How to Change the World: The Art of the Start Video
Snma legal definition of Snma. Snma synonyms by the Free Online Law Dictionary.
Word Surfing - Dictations
http://vlc.polyu.edu.hk/default.htm
Telephone Expressions Dictation
Martindale's 'The Reference Desk' - International Art, Business, Science & Technology
Digital Ship guide to websites at sea - category
http://www.languageguide.org/eng/
Panama Information and the Panama Canal with video
Marine Accident Investigation Branch: Search results
Digital Ship guide to websites at sea - category
http://www.geocities.com/uksteve.geo/marine.html
http://www.mptusa.com/courses/oral_exam_prep_yachts_mca.html
http://www.mcga.gov.uk/c4mca/mcga-404.htm
http://www.solentwaters.co.uk/
http://www.export911.com/e911/ship/ship.htm
http://www.kalmarind.com/show.php?id=1020838
http://www.purgit.com/shippart.html
http://www.nga.mil/portal/site/maritime/?epi_menuItemID=35ad5b8aabcfa1a0fc133443927a759&epi_menuID=e106a3b5e50edce1fcec24fd73927a759&epi_baseMenuID=e106a3b5e50edce1fcec24fd73927a759
ESL Games: Crosswords (EnglishClub.com)
http://www2.kyamk.fi/~aoler/kone/maritime.html
http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/esl/eslstudent.html

Curriculum Vitae

Maria Łozińska, senior lecturer at Gdynia Maritime University in Poland for more than 30 years. Graduated from Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, English Philology, Post graduate studies at Warsaw University, Methodology of teaching languages. Participated in a number of workshops and seminars devoted to teaching both general and maritime English.

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THE MARENG PLUS PROJECT AND NEW APPLICATIONS

Abstract
The MarEng Plus project aims at widening the user group of the existing web-based Maritime English Learning Tool MarEng. The MarEng Plus project is about creating a new elementary level in addition to the existing intermediate and advanced levels, adding two new themes, that is Maritime Security and Marine Environment at all three levels and creating a Teacher’s Manual covering all the new and “old” learning materials.

There will also be an Answer Key to all the exercises in PDF-format and the MarEng glossary of maritime terms will be transferred into a mobile phone environment.

Keywords: Maritime English, multimedia format, inter-active exercises

The existing MarEng programme covers only intermediate and advanced level materials so there has been a clear need to create elementary level materials to enlarge the user group and to improve the usability and flexibility of the materials.

Encouraged by the generous feedback and a huge interest that the MarEng learning tool has met during the first years of its existence, the project partners were eager to further improve the project materials by adding new features to the tool.

After using the MarEng project materials in practice, many teachers, particularly in Italy, France and Greece have expressed the need for the basic elementary level to be prepared in an interactive format.

The new MarEng Plus project will take these requests into account and will also reflect the requirements of the modern world by including new topics such as Marine Environment at all three levels and security in ports. The MarEng Plus elementary level materials will include:

- Cargo Operations
- The Engine Room
- The Navigation Bridge
- Radio Communication
- Weather
- First Aid
- Severe Weather Conditions
- The Marine Environment (a new topic)
- Maritime Security (a new topic)

Two new topics, The Marine Environment and Maritime Security, will also be dealt with at an intermediate level and advanced level to reflect the current international trends and demands. The Teacher’s Manual will cover not only all of the new MarEng Plus elementary materials, but also the so far existing MarEng materials in the learning tool. As a new feature, the MarEng glossary of maritime terms will be transferred into a mobile phone environment.
All the MarEng Plus material is in English and is based on language used in actual situations on board ships and in ports. The materials will be extensively evaluated and tested by the advisory project partners and external evaluators.

The MarEng Plus Learning Tool is addressed both at Maritime English teachers and students as well as people working in various maritime-related professions. The MarEng Plus materials can be used in a classroom, in distance learning and for self-study purposes. The MarEng Plus Learning Tool will be available on the Internet free of charge in the autumn of 2010. It will also be available on a CD.

MarEng Plus partners include:
– Institute of Transport and Maritime Management, University of Antwerp in Belgium.
– Department of International Business Communication, Faculty of Applied Economics, University of Antwerp, Belgium.
– Antwerp Maritime Academy, Belgium.
– University of La Laguna in Tenerife, Spain.
– Cork Institute of Technology, National Maritime College of Ireland.
– Gdynia Maritime University, Poland.
– Latvia Maritime Academy in Riga, Latvia.
– Kymenlaakso University of Applied Sciences in Finland.
– Aland University of Applied Sciences in Mariehamn, Finland.
– Tampere University of Technology, Finland.
– STC Group in the Netherlands.
– Lingonet, Oy in Finland is responsible for putting all the materials into interactive multimedia format and for recording all the exercises.

Centre for Maritime Studies, University of Turku in Finland, is the coordinator of the whole project, which is partly financed by the EU Leonardo da Vinci programme.

Advisory partners include:
– Finnish Maritime Administration.
– Finnish Port Association, Finland.
– Emergency Services College, Finland.
– Finnish Port Operators Association, Finland.
– Estonian Maritime Academy.
– Latvian Maritime Administration.
– Lithuanian Maritime Academy.
– Baltic Ports Organisation, Poland.
– Ceronav Maritime Training Centre, Romania.
– Maritime and Fishing Polytechnic School, Spain.
– IFAPA Centre at Huelva, Spain.
– IPEP Maritimo Pesquero de Canarias, Spain.
– Dokuz Eylul University, School of Maritime Business and Management, Turkey.
– Turkish Maritime Education Foundation, Institute for Maritime Studies, Turkey.

Both the material making partners and the advisory partners will evaluate and test the MarEng Plus materials at their centers before their publication on the Internet in the autumn of 2010.
Curriculum Vitae

Barbara Katarzyńska

- has been teaching English at Gdynia Maritime University, Poland;
- has prepared and published teaching materials and books such as “Notes on Ships, Ports and Cargo”, “Mate’s Correspondence” and “Ship’s Correspondence”;
- has actively participated in both IMLA and IMEC conferences;
- has also taught English during the Intensive English Language Course at World Maritime University, Malmö, Sweden and during courses for the Italian Coast Guard at IMO-IMA in Trieste, Italy;
- has been involved in the Socrates/Erasmus Teacher Mobility programme in the Lithuanian Maritime College in Klaipeda, Universidad de la Laguna in Santa Cruz de Tenerife, Universidad de Ciencias Nauticas in Cadiz, and Universidad Politecnica de Catalunya in Barcelona, Spain;
- since 2004 Barbara Katarzyńska has actively participated in the Leonardo da Vinci programme as part of the team working on the MarEng project and now on the MarEng Plus project. The MarEng project is freely available on the Internet so will be its continuation, the MarEng Plus project.

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OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES
AS A MEANS OF INCREASING MOTIVATION

Abstract

Having three hours of English classes a week for engineering cadets proves to be not quite enough to use communicative approach in teaching a foreign language. Teacher’s centred approach usually predominates over the learner’s centred one. In such an environment the cadets usually aim at answering the given tasks and getting credit marks in final term. So, one of the ways to increase motivation in learning English is to pay a great deal of attention to different out-of-class activities. Among them are traditional youth scientific engineering conferences, English Olympiads and different course projects. Every year we choose a new problem to be discussed at the project. This year it has been “How is man threatening the marine environment?” A wide range of different tasks alongside with video presentation on the problem under discussion and various contests give the cadets a chance to demonstrate their utmost abilities, to feel self-confident when speaking English and to show off. Apart from educational effect, the project work raises the cadets’ awareness of the importance of the problem being discussed and makes them more ecologically-minded. To sum it up, all kinds of out-of-class activities proved to be a helpful tool to:

- increase motivation and interest in mastering English,
- develop cadet’s autonomy and self-skills study,
- activate various types of perception and memory,
- encourage cadets’ creativity and inventiveness,
- develop a team spirit and interaction.

Keywords: out-of-class activities, motivation, involvement, thorough planning, positive attitude, creativity, self-development

1. Introduction

We cannot underestimate the importance of the ability to communicate in English for those working on board a ship. According to Capt. Jan Horck (2005) “communication is our most important tool for understanding, cooperation and action (…). Maritime education and training institutions need to deepen education in English (…)”. Being fully aware of the necessity to give the highest priority to using communicative approach when teaching our trainees Maritime English, we, at the Maritime State University named after Admiral G.I. Nevelskoy, are often deprived of such a possibility due to a number of reasons.

2. Pre-history

First of all, it is not our tradition to have a gap year. So, right after finishing high school and passing their written “Unified State Exams”, which has become obligatory all over our country since this very year, boys try to enter any higher educational institution. Some of them because of having a good idea of what they want to become by their profession and what tertiary education they want to get. But still there are those who have not got the slightest idea of what their profession is like and what personal qualities and capabilities they are to have in order to meet the demands and challenges of a seafaring career, for example. Such
advantages as free education along with the free meals, uniform and dormitory to live in, and what is more, company officers to supervise them, are an attraction for many of the entrants. Some of the applicants come from single-parent families, originating from small towns and settlements, where the level of teaching English at school doesn’t always correspond to the highest quality standards of contemporary demand. Entering a maritime university for them is a good opportunity to get not only free higher education, but also a well-paid job in future. Then, they can have a good excuse not to join the army as common soldiers, and to take a course of naval training at the Naval Institute of the University instead, successful completion of which will give them a promotion to officers of the reserve position. On one hand, we can consider them to be highly motivated to study at our University, while on the other hand we should keep in mind that their general average level of proficiency in basic school subjects, English in particular, leaves much to be desired. Of course, there are applicants with very strong motivation to become seafarers because of long-life family traditions, but these, in fact, do not constitute a majority of our trainees.

3. Why Fail Using Communicative Approach

To start with, it is necessary to enumerate some of the problems we face when teaching ESL. During the first year of study we make every effort “to bridge the gap between the trainees’ existing knowledge of English and course content” as it is indicated in the IMO Model Course 3.17 (2000). But realizing that a classroom is not always designed for “natural” communication, as it is considered more to be a place where the information is given and received, with the students often sitting back to back and with teacher being in the centre of the classroom, we are trying to make use of the following patterns of classroom English that generally come along the lines of those recommended in IMO Model courses:

- **teacher-to-student communication**: greeting students, small talk, checking those present / filling in the register, checking the homework, giving basic instructions, asking questions, giving simple explanations of some grammar phenomena;
- **student-to-teacher communication**: greeting, delivering the report, asking for help and explanation, answering questions, and the like;
- **student-to-student communication**: everyday conversation, exchanging some information, role-playing simple situations, pair and group work activities, etc.

For sure, English can be used quite frequently during the lessons, but not always and not by everyone attending your class. When having only three hours of English a week for engineering cadets and only four hours for first-year navigating cadets, as in our case, and thus, as Glenn Decker (2004) points out, having very “little exposure to English outside the classroom”, we are to find out the ways “to motivate students to become more autonomous in their learning” (Diane Malcolm and William Reindfleisch, 2003). Here comes the keyword to success – motivation, which is usually associated with high educational achievement and enjoyment by students: “much depends on motivation: if the instructor shows that he or she is actively interested in trainees as individuals, trainees will respond well, contributing to a good rapport and productive learning atmosphere”. We believe students to be motivated if they attribute their educational results to internal factors that they can control, if they think they are effective agents in reaching desired goals, and if they are interested in mastering a topic. This applies to both in-class activities and out-of-class ones.
4. Specifically designed out-of-class activities

Thus, taking into consideration our little exposure to English outside the classroom, teachers of Maritime English Department (MED) found their own solution to the problem of increasing motivation through a variety of out-of-class activities aimed at involving trainees in the process of continuous self-development, giving them a chance to participate in such specifically designed out-of-class activities as Youth Scientific Conferences, English Language Olympiads, and Group Project work.

5. Implementation

For any of the above-mentioned activities to run smoothly and to become a remarkable event for trainees, a thorough preliminary planning is of vital importance. Both planning and implementing will depend, firstly, on the kind of activity to be carried out, and secondly, on the kind of skills to be emphasized on the part of the trainees, taking part in this or that specific activity. These are annual events, generally spaced throughout the academic year like this: October is the usual time for holding youth scientific engineering conferences, December presents lots of possibilities for implementing different both in-class and out-of-class activities in the framework of so-called “English Language Week” (ELW). April and May are the periods for realizing project work for senior cadets of engineering and navigation departments.

6. Conferences

These have been traditionally held at our university, having quite a long history. This year we will host the participants of the 57th Youth Conference. Junior MED teachers and cadets are encouraged to participate in the sitting of the English section of the conference. Over time, more and more trainees become interested in such an event. On the average, more than 20 cadets (ranging from the second-year to the fifth-year ones) deliver their reports to the audience consisting mostly of their peers. The topics of the reports cover a wide range of pressing issues from marine environment protection to these of maritime safety and security. Much attention is generally paid to the role of human factor for safe, secure and environment-friendly navigation. Present-day cadets are more prepared to be autonomous when surfing the Internet or browsing through authentic periodicals. Quite often their reports are accompanied with video presentations to make these even more interesting and cognitive. As far as MED achievements are concerned, I would like to note that in spring 2007 one of our cadets won the right to take part in the international conference held in Moscow (under the sponsorship of MUNA and MSU administration), and in autumn 2008 another one was delegated to IAMUS Conference held at California Maritime Academy, USA. It was a thrilling experience not only for the participants themselves, but for many of us back at MSU involved in facilitating and rendering assistance in preparation. An English section of the Youth Scientific Conference is usually conducted by the leader of the conference selected from among senior cadets with a good command of English. He is to introduce the speakers and to keep the presentation and discussion of reports going according to time limits allocated for each speaker. It is him/her who is in charge of directing the discussion as required so that trainees’ speaking time predominates, while instructors/teachers are only welcomed to ask questions, if any.

7. English Language Weeks. Olympiads

Lots of different events and activities are held in the framework of the so-called “English Language Week”, which became a special event at the university. Conducted by MED teach-
ers every December, it was initiated by then the Head of the Department Assoc. Prof. Valentina Mazur, supported by the next Head Assoc. Prof. Olga Kazinskaya, and it is for sure, to be continued by the current Head Assoc. Prof. Alexei Strelkov, who himself has been in charge of planning and implementing ELW activities on more than one occasion. These tasks are quite varied in their presentation, because almost all the groups, studying ESL/ESP are involved in different activities: not only team contests, including different vocabulary and listening tasks, but also humorous assignments. Senior navigating cadets often meet MSU alumni now taking positions of Masters, Chief Mates and pilots. Such meetings with former MSU navigating cadets, who are now experienced navigators, are held in a warm, friendly atmosphere and always in English, thus underlying the importance of the language learning. But the core of any ELW is an Olympiad. The teachers in charge of the activity develop the scenario, which requires a great deal of creativity and inventiveness both on the part of the teacher and his/her assistants (usually senior cadets). It should be once again emphasized that the preparatory stage is of great importance.

The main topics of any Olympiad (and these are usually designed for the second-year engineering and navigating cadets) are predetermined at the beginning of a study year and are chosen either in view of some outstanding event in the history of Russia, important world shipping event or the topic related to the study programme, which can be given more priority and extension. Among the latest there were Olympiads for the second-year engineering cadets devoted to the “125th Anniversary of FESCO” (a local national shipping company headquartered at Vladivostok), “Piracy on High Seas” and “Types of Ships”. An Olympiad is not an ordinary contest. It is a kind of a festivity. The cadets embark upon the programme of preparation about a month before, because they are given some home tasks, which, depending on the topic under discussion, may include the following:
- choosing the best suitable name for the team and making its emblem,
- preparing a poster and/or wall-newspaper,
- dramatization,
- singing a song (the text of which is to be translated from Russian into English beforehand),
- thinking over a list of questions to competing teams.

When planning the scheduled event, this should be done thoroughly and the following is to be taken into consideration:
- the room for hosting the event, its layout and decoration,
- announcement to be made,
- invitations for guests to be sent,
- handouts with tasks and exercises for the teams,
- evaluation forms for the members of the jury,
- posters’ display,
- necessary equipment and aids for carrying out different tasks,
- jury composition.

During the Olympiad the cadets are expected to demonstrate their creativity, team spirit, witness and interaction, and their command of English of course. What is of special value in this type of the out-of-class activity is that every trainee, whether with talent for the language or not, can do their part and their contribution is much appreciated. In such a group work one can be a “generator of ideas”, some others – having more artistic talent – can perform as good guitar players, or good “painters”. As a result, everybody will benefit from the shared responsibility: those who are more confident language users and those who are shier and less confident with their language skills. What is more, the cadets are inspired by the fact that usually
the Dean or a Deputy Dean attends these events and even participates in them as a member of the jury alongside with senior cadets. The address in English delivered by the Navigation or Marine Engineering Faculty senior staff, when summarizing the results of the contests and handing in the prizes, has a striking psychological effect upon the team members and spectators. Though it is a contest at which we do not consider the results in the terms of winners/losers, as everybody is exposed to English environment, everybody acquires an excellent learning experience, and besides, after being involved into such activities, our trainees volunteer for taking part in conferences and project work, which are the domain of senior navigating and marine engineering cadets.

8. Group project work

Group project work is usually carried out by the fourth-year engineering and senior navigating cadets. Some of the projects are done as homework, and may indicate any of the following:

- to draw a poster and/or a wallpaper
- to prepare a report and/or video presentation

As to the topics generally selected for discussion, they tend to be more related to international shipping matters. For example, the 2009 Group Project for marine engineering cadets was titled “Why Is the Man Threatening the Marine Environment?” the navigating cadets highlighted the problem of Piracy. The previous year’s topics were “Leading the Way to Greater Safety”, and “Human Element in Shipping Industry”, correspondingly. The procedure of developing a project plan includes some conventional steps:

- defining the topic to be discussed
- assigning the responsibilities for some stages of the project among the teachers of the department
- choosing the group project leaders among the cadets (usually two of them are approved on a competitive base at the sitting of the department after a certain kind of contest among those recommended by the teacher)
- developing the type of home tasks
- choosing the proper date and time for carrying out the project and making necessary arrangements
- writing announcements attracting attention to the forthcoming event
- inviting persons-in-charge to attend the project

The project event is traditionally started with a presentation of a short video film (approx. 10 min) or video clips for the participants to plunge into authentic English language environment and to raise the awareness in subject under discussion. Next, the Project leaders invite their fellow cadets to present reports (usually about 20 cadets get a chance to speak in front of their peers and teachers). First of all, it is a good opportunity for them to demonstrate their “speaker’s” skills and, secondly, everyone should be ready to answer on-the-spot questions, asked either by their peers or teachers. The reports, in their turn, can be accompanied by video clips, diagrams, or tables/figures, when necessary. The next stage of the Project work usually involves different quizzes, training students to be cooperative within a team, meanwhile developing competitiveness among teams representing different groups. The first task, for instance, was to deliver a speech lasting 30 seconds in which they were to summarize all the important aspects previously discussed.

Eventually, the teams were offered different tasks, among them two listening tasks and vocabulary development tasks: one was to match a word with its definition, and the others
were to build a word-net on marine pollution and to unscramble some words. All tasks were to be done in one minute, so the teams had to be very organized and cooperative. Finally, the teams were to write slogans. They put forward the following ideas:
- SOS – Save Our Seas!
- If you want to be OK, save the ocean every day!
- East or West, clean oceans are best!
- If the oceans are clean, you can enjoy healthy life and tasty dish of fish!
- Save the sea for the next generation!

When composing the slogans and discussing the problems of marine environment, the cadets became more fully aware of the importance of safe marine habitat, grew more ecologically minded, and, of course, had a nice English learning experience. After-project discussions in classroom proved that we had chosen the right way when trying to increase motivation through close cooperation of students and teachers, giving them an impetus to embark upon a life-long self-development process.

As to the chronicle of all out-of-class activities, they are accounted for in our local intranet and our university’s newspaper “Meridian”. Corresponding reports are kept in special folders of our department, which provide for prompt looking up and giving guidelines for the junior teachers to keep this tradition going on.

9. Conclusion

There is a Chinese proverb, saying: “The teacher opens the door, you enter by yourself”. Thus, the providers of Maritime English seeking the ways for achieving their trainees’ good progress in learning ESL/ESP should “open the door” by introducing cadets to the wonderful world of maritime English, by increasing their motivation to master the language. Out-of-class activities designed by MED teachers have proved to facilitate more rapid positive attitude progress in our trainees’ second language learning; making cadets take more responsibilities for their learning experiences has had excellent results. Moreover, these out-of-class activities have become of real help to teachers during ordinary classes, as cadets are able to assume some teachers’ roles when acting out different situations, working with the vocabulary. From the point of view of psychology, out-of-class activity participants have become proud of them and have acquired more confidence through the experience of being in the centre of attention in the classroom. So the more we get involved in different out-of-class activities ourselves, the more students are engaged in these, the more positive is their attitude to autonomous learning. Apart from good educational effect, extracurricular work helps create a good psychological atmosphere in the classroom, and a good motivation for continuous self-development process. Therefore, we succeed in what Maynard Hutchins has worded as “the object of education is to prepare the young to educate themselves throughout their lives”.

References

Curriculum Vitae

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- has been teaching ESL / ESP at the Maritime State University named after Admiral G.I. Nevelskoy, Vladivostok, Russia for over 15 years;
- has authored and co-authored some textbooks and methodological teaching aids used in teaching engineering cadets, incl. English for Engine-Room Matters (2004), English for Marine Engineers (2008), Practice Book on Ship’s Safety (2005). Papers covering methodology of teaching ESL / ESP amount to more than 10;
- attended “Maritime English Training Program” by Ms. Valerie A. Short (AMETIAP Training), PDC Course delivered by Ass. Prof. Clive Cole (WMU).

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Abstract
Language is regarded as a social and cultural phenomenon. It is commonly believed that studying a foreign language involves not only being knowledgeable of the grammar and vocabulary, but also submitting to the foreign culture. Communicating in a foreign language involves communicating interculturally and this may lead to certain features concerning cultural differences. Communication problems may arise among those who do not use the language adequately as a result of their inability to share the features or norms of the target culture. As IMO officially adopted English as the language of the sea, the responsibility of those who teach Maritime English to non-native English speaking students has increased. The upsurge of interest in the content of language syllabi, classroom materials and appropriate teaching techniques as well as the concern with the development of students’ communicative competence reflect the teachers’ endeavour to seek for methods that facilitate learners to adequately master Maritime English. Our presentation focuses attention on a communicative approach to Maritime English teaching and learning by means of which we shall try to develop students’ cultural awareness. The adoption of this communicative approach to Maritime English teaching and learning attempts to meet the learners’ necessary communicative needs when they are on board.

Keywords: language, culture, cultural awareness, communication, Maritime English teaching and learning

1. Introduction

In a post-modern society, the groups that make a society are no longer clearly defined, the borders are open. The national and local cultures have come in a suction of global forces, and have to adapt. The individual is seen as an open system: she/he interacts actively with her/his environment, mostly through the means of communications. That is the encoding and decoding of messages exchanged with her/his environment.

At the beginning of any intercultural transformation process, the individual is seen as being in equilibrium: their world view and actions are in line with their meaning structure. If through communication or other encounters the meaning structure is disturbed, in the terminology of Kim, experiences ‘stress’, the individual will aim to actively adapt to regain equilibrium.

If the individual is exposed to other cultural values, a reflection process starts. To various extends, the human mind starts to review, anticipate, generalize, analyze and plan, and starts an active transformation process. The individual ‘grows’. This adaptation process is dynamic, cyclic and continual, as the individual is in continuous interchange with its environment. As the environment changes, the equilibrium of the internal meaning structure is continuously disturbed. This requires a continuous adaptation or growth process.

In a direct intercultural encounter, the individual inevitably experiences difficulties in communicating: due to other cultural premises and assumptions of the other party. Whether or
not the communication takes the active form of direct conversation (with its immediate feedback and propelled cybernetic adaptation process) or the form of a limited feedback conversation or exposure, the ‘otherness’ projected by the other party will inevitably evoke some reflection about the person’s own cultural premises and assumptions. The degree of the heterogeneity of the ‘other’, and the context and feedback of the communication, is of course a determining factor in the need for such a reflective process: if the heterogeneity is high, and the context low, the impact of such an encounter will only call for a very limited amount of reflection. If the context is high, and diversity equally high, then the reflection process has to be more in-depth, it is challenged more significantly.

2. Communicative Maritime English Competence

In trying to tailor a model for specifying the communicative competence of a Maritime English participant, it would seem inappropriate to work within one particular linguistic theory. Central to the formation of our framework is the concept of Maritime English users’ competence and its relation to knowledge and communication, to which we now turn.

Chomsky’s view of what it means to know a language is shown in his distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance. This distinction has a psychological implication and it is not the same as the Saussure’s (2002) langue and parole: “Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically relevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random and characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance….“ (Chomsky, 1965).

The perfect knowledge we refer here to, is the mastery of the abstract system of rules, by which a person is able to make out and produce any and all of the well-formed sentences of his language. The actual use of language affected by what he means grammatically irrelevant conditions and identified with classification of acceptability, not grammaticality, is the domain of linguistic performance (Munby, J., 1994).

Communicative competence involves the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative acts and to understand the communicative functions of sentences and their relationship to other sentences. Maritime English language teaching focuses on the idea that the purpose of language acquisition is communicative competence, which is the ability to use Maritime English correctly and appropriately in order to fulfil communication goals. The desired outcome of Maritime English language learning process is the ability to communicate competently, not the ability to use the language exactly as a native speaker does.

In the early stages of Maritime English language learning, instructors and students may want to keep in mind the goal of communicative efficiency: that learners should be able to make themselves understood, using their current proficiency to the fullest. They should try to avoid confusion in the message (due to faulty pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary); to avoid offending communication partners (due to socially inappropriate style); and to use strategies for recognizing and managing communication breakdowns.

2.1. Models of Maritime English language teaching and learning

Maritime English Language instructors are often in one of three situations:
- They are language instructors with experience teaching.
- They are professionals in other fields but are not trained as teachers.
- They are new trainee in this domain.
These instructors often must begin their work in the classroom with little or no guidance to help them appreciate which methods work, how, and why. In response, they may fall back on an outdated model for understanding language teaching and language learning. The older model has the following description: Language Learning is a product of transmission. Teacher transmits knowledge. Learner is recipient.

This teacher-centred model views the teacher as active and the student as fundamentally passive. The teacher is responsible for transmitting all of the information to the students. The teacher talks; the students listen and absorb (or take a nap) (Nunan, D., 1988; Bennet, J., 1996).

The teacher-centred model may be attractive to new language instructors for several reasons:

- It is the method by which they were taught.
- It makes sense: the teacher should be the focus of the classroom, since the teacher knows the language and the students do not.
- It requires relatively little preparation: all the teacher needs to do is present the material outlined in the appropriate chapter of the book.
- It requires relatively little thought about student or student activities: all students listen to the same (teacher) presentation, then do related exercises.

However, experienced language instructors who reflect on their teaching practice have observed that the teacher-centred model has two major drawbacks:

- It involves only a minority of students in actual language learning.
- It gives students knowledge about the language, but does not necessarily enable them to use it for purposes that interest them.

To overcome these drawbacks, language teaching professionals in our University and elsewhere have adopted a different model of teaching and learning. This newer model is described in the following way: language learning is a process of discovery. Learner develops ability to use the language for specific communication purposes. Teacher models language use and facilitates students' development of language skills (Ellis, R., 1994; Byalystok, E., 1999).

In this learner-centred model, both student and teacher are active participants, who share responsibility for the student's learning. Instructor and students work together to identify how students expect to use the language. The instructor models correct and appropriate language use, and students then use the language themselves in practice activities that simulate real communication situations. The active, joint engagement of students and teacher leads to a dynamic classroom environment, in which teaching and learning become rewarding and enjoyable (Bennet, 1996).

Maritime English Language instructors who have never experienced learner-centred instruction can find it daunting in several ways.

- It requires more preparation time: instructors must take into consideration students' language learning goals, identify classroom activities that will connect those with the material presented in the textbook, and find appropriate real-world materials to accompany them.
- It feels like it is not going to work: when students first are invited to participate actively, they may be slow to get started as they assess the tasks and figure out classroom dynamics.
- It sounds like a bad idea: the phrase “learner centred” makes it sound as though the instructor is not in control of the classroom.

This final point is an important one. In fact, in an effective learner-centred classroom, the instructor has planned the content of all activities, has set time limits on them, and has set them in the context of instructor-modelled language use. The instructor is not always the center of attention, but is still in control of students' learning activities.
3. Understanding Language Acquisition

To become engaged learners, students need to understand that learning a language is not the same as learning about a language. When students think of the language as a school subject like any other, they may learn a great deal about its vocabulary, grammar, and sentence and discourse structure, but the language will not become a true medium of communication for them and won’t engage them very deeply. Students need to understand that learning a language means becoming able to use it to comprehend, communicate, and think – as they do in their first language.

Students also need to recognize that language learning takes place in stages. Interpretive skills (listening, reading) develop much more quickly than expressive skills (speaking, writing), and the ability that students covet most – the ability to speak the second language fluently – requires the longest period of growth.

All language learners have to work through a sequence of “approximate” versions, each of which represents a level of understanding of the target language (Ellis, R., 1994).

Students learning a language have two kinds of knowledge working for them:

- their knowledge of their first language;
- their awareness of learning strategies, the mechanisms they use, consciously or unconsciously, to manage the absorption of new material.

Students differ as language learners, in part because of differences in ability, motivation, or effort, but a major difference lies in their knowledge about and skill in using “how to learn” techniques, i.e. learning strategies. Classroom research demonstrates the role of learning strategies in effective language learning (Littlewood, 1981):

- good learners are able to identify the best strategy for a specific task; poor learners have difficulty choosing the best strategy for a specific task;
- good learners are flexible in their approach and adopt a different strategy if the first one does not work; poor learners have a limited variety of strategies in their repertoires and stay with the first strategy they have chosen, even when it does not work;
- good learners have confidence in their learning ability; poor learners lack confidence in their learning ability;
- good learners expect to succeed, fulfil their expectation, and become more motivated; poor learners expect to do poorly, fulfil their expectation, and lose motivation.

Maritime English Learning strategies instruction shows students that their success or lack of it in the language classroom is due to the way they go about learning rather than to forces beyond their control. Most students can learn how to use strategies more effectively; when they do so, they become more self-reliant and better able to learn independently. They begin to take more responsibility for their own learning, and their motivation increases because they have increased confidence in their learning ability and specific techniques for successful language learning.

To teach language learning strategies effectively, instructors should do several things:

- build on strategies students already use by finding out their current strategies and making students aware of the range of strategies used by their classmates;
- integrate strategy instruction with regular lessons, rather than teaching the strategies separately from language learning activities;
- be explicit: name the strategy, tell students why and how it will help them, and demonstrate its use;
- provide choice by letting students decide which strategies work best for them;
guide students in transferring a familiar strategy to new problems;
plan continuous instruction in language learning strategies throughout the course;
use the target language as much as possible for strategies’ instruction.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1986) “language learning is conditioned by the way in which the mind observes, organizes and stores information”. In other words, the key to successful language learning and teaching is not in the analysis of the nature of language, but in understanding the structure and processes of the mind.

4. Why cultural awareness training?

Understanding and appreciating intercultural differences ultimately promotes clearer communication, breaks down barriers, builds trust, strengthens relationships, opens horizons and yields tangible results in terms of business success.

An essential skill in the provision of culturally appropriate services, cultural awareness entails an understanding of how a person’s culture may inform their values, behaviour, beliefs and basic assumptions.

Cultural awareness recognizes that we are all shaped by our cultural background, which influences how we interpret the world around us, perceive ourselves and relate to other people. You do not need to be an expert in every culture or have all the answers in order to be culturally aware; rather, cultural awareness helps us to explore cultural issues with our care recipients more sensitively.

5. Cultural awareness on board ships

International crews require intercultural awareness and effective cultural communication skills. Culture in an intercultural crew is now regarded as having impact on safety, management, leadership and team-building. Most seafarers carry out their management tasks through or with multicultural crews. Managers on board have to demonstrate qualities such as reliability, open-mindedness, positivism, assertiveness, etc. when dealing with people from different cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless, these qualities are differently exhibited and put across cultures.

The fact must be mentioned that captains, officers, engineers have to lead, manage, motivate, direct, inspire and generate a sense of trust in their multicultural crews. This means we need to provide our students with cultural awareness in order to operate more effectively as intercultural managers. The quality of communication is a main team-building factor and a certain factor of cohesion. Familiarity between team members may breed safety and effectiveness. In order to develop cultural awareness students should acquire:

- common knowledge and awareness of the concept of culture, cultural differences, religions, values, perceptions and behaviours of other cultures;
- knowledge and awareness of the concept of stereotyping and main characteristics of other cultures;
- knowledge of the concepts of prejudice and discrimination;
- awareness of history between nations/cultures and its possible influence on safety;
- awareness of direct and indirect way of communication globally.
6. Conclusion

In this paper we have attempted to focus on the dimension of cultural awareness in teaching and learning Maritime English. We have provided some models of teaching and learning Maritime English from a communicative perspective. We have also dealt with the key elements one needs in order to understand language acquisition. From the above-mentioned statements we shall sum up the following:

- Students should understand the importance of appropriate communication;
- Students should be aware of their own cultural influences and should not judge other people’s behaviour according to the standards of their own culture;
- Students should be aware of making assumptions about cultural influences and applying generalisations to individuals;
- Students should understand that the behaviour and beliefs of people within each culture can vary considerably;
- Students should understand that the extent to which people adopt practices of their new country and retain those from their cultural background can vary within communities;
- Students should understand that not all people identify with their cultural or religious background;
- Students should understand that culture itself is a fluid entity, undergoing transformations as a result of globalisation and migration.

References

Curriculum Vitae

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PROBLEMS WITH MARITIME ENGLISH SCHOLASTIC WRITINGS AND THEIR COUNTERMEASURES

Abstract
For the past two years I have been repeatedly picked out to judge maritime English (ME) essays, some of which are intended to be published in the journals overseas and the others to be presented at the International Convention Implementation Contest, which will be held in the latter part of this year by the Ministry of Communications of China. As most writers have not been trained required of English majors, it is a matter of course to find their writings glutted with grammatical slips and spelling errors. But the question is: how much tolerance shall we give these ME essays written by non-English majors or what should we do to improve English writing for a scholastic purpose. The present paper is based upon 40 maritime essays written in English by officers serving in Fujian Maritime Safety Administration as well as two on-service senior officers reading for master degrees in the World Maritime University. The paper consists of three parts. Part one is a detailed overview, in which an analysis has been conducted of the pros and cons of these essays from the perspective of linguistic considerations and maritime English (ME) purpose. In the second part a comparative study of these problem-cluttered essays and of the model ME writings by IMEC contributors has been made. Part three includes a question about what should be required of formal ME writing and how to improve it.

Keywords: writing, officer, maritime, linguistic, scholastic

1. Introduction

1.1. Yes or No

The 17th greatest English scholar Francis Bacon wrote: “Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man. And therefore, if a man writes little, he had need have a great memory....” From the three adjectives Mr. Bacon used, i.e. full, ready and exact, one can sense the significant role that the writing plays in the scholastic pursuits of a person’s career development and the higher demands affixed to writing. To write is to be an exact man. In other words, only exact men can pursue writing required of exactitude. Therefore, it is no easy job to do writings of any description. However, it should be pointed out that Bacon in his Studies refers to writing in his own native language instead of a foreign language. So it is less easy to attempt writing in a language that one is not born with. And it can be further deduced that Bacon means writing about the field he is versed in. Hence it is the least easy to try to write about something in a foreign language that some persons are not trained to be conversant with. The scholastic writings discussed in this paper are not students’ classroom compositions; their authors are not undergraduates, but those who are highly professionally competent in their shipping companies. They have attempted something beyond what their average colleagues cannot do. Still a closer scrutiny of their writings reveals some linguistic problems that an English major can perhaps avoid. That makes me think.
Does it mean that Maritime English writing is something what should be a forbidden fruit to those non-English people? It seems to be ‘yes’ and ‘no’. By ‘yes’ is meant the fact that Maritime English writing has not been so popularly touched on or treated with passion as communicative competence, cross-cultural communication or even reading comprehension in the previous proceedings of WOME 2A and IMEC 20, the only two whole sets of papers that I can lay my hands on. The singular importance of writing ability seems to have been eclipsed by the other three language skills, i.e. speaking, listening and reading. ‘No’ is the answer of such a multitude of Maritime English contributors, whose origin maybe is of no English blood, but who can write so impeccable English. Then why do I choose to write on such a thankless subject? The answer is that I have perused and judged 40 papers related to maritime studies written in English by on-service officers, captains, engineers, chief engineers and senior PSC officers, not undergraduates I should make it clear. It is a mixture of feelings reading these writings of many pages. On one hand, I do admire their professional accomplishments that have reflected good ideas and contents in their papers; on the other hand, I feel a bit uneasy for their English that is also imperfectly reflected in their long papers. The present paper, based upon the 40 papers, categorizes their English problems and analyzes the root causes for the errors and finally offers some countermeasures to write grammatically correctly and clearly.

1.2. An overview of the 40 papers

It is a rewarding experience for me to peruse and judge these pure technical ME papers as they help enrich my scanty knowledge of navigation. What’s more, a few of these young writers, mostly in their late 20s and early 30s, are quite at home with the use of ME, and it should be stressed that they are graduates of maritime science instead of English majors like me. They are all the backbone of their shipping companies. Here’s one abstract written by a senior maritime pollution accident surveyor, who studied two years in WMU and whose paper received my highest score:

With the quick development of Chinese marine economy, the activity density of marine vessels increases rapidly: vessels for transporting harmful polluting goods become more and more specialized and large-scale, and thus the risk of incurring contamination accidents by vessels rises, which results in mounting pressure on compensation for pollution damage caused by vessels. The paper brings forward some opinions and suggestions on establishing and perfecting the pollution damage compensation mechanism of China through analyzing the role of implementation of the International Convention on Civil Liability for Bunker Oil Pollution Damage, 2001.

At first glance, to be honest, I cannot find any grammatical problems with the above abstract except just to give it a polish-up or some improvement from exacting linguistic and rhetoric perspectives. The following is my revised version:

The rapid development of China’s marine economy has brought about the significant frequency of vessels engaged in transporting harmfully pollutant goods that put increasingly high risks of contamination accidents on the vessels which are more and more specialized and enormous in tonnage. Hence arises the mounting pressure on pollution damage compensation caused by vessels. The present paper brings forward some opinions and suggestions on establishing and perfecting the pollution damage compensation mechanism of China by analyzing the role played by the implementation of the International Convention on Civil Liability for Bunker Oil Pollution Damage, 2001.

However, quite a few papers, whose authors have not the experience of studying abroad, contain spelling mistakes, misuse of part of speeches, capitalizations and punctuations. Grammatical errors are numerous especially in those papers, which I scored below 15 of the 20 points. Let’s look closely at another abstract, the paper of which I scored 12 points, the lowest one.
From the second half of 2008, a severe financial turmoil sweeping the globe. Then affects the global economy. A large number of small and medium-sized enterprises with export-led shut-down. The national economic situation and shipping economy faces all sorts of difficulties and challenges. The maritime safety supervision department of marine service work with the new requirements. The paper analyzes the economic crisis of shipping economy as well as the influence of maritime safety administration. And puts forward the relative countermeasures of maritime safety administration. Seeking support shipping out of trouble.

In the above abstract, every part, not a unit of a sentence, has some kind of errors which range from the misuse of punctuations and capitalizations, to the absence of subjects and wrong use of predicates related to basic grammar and to ambiguity. Now I try to correct it, just the defective parts:

Since the second half of 2008, a severe financial turmoil has swept the globe which affects global economy. A large number of small and medium-size enterprises with export-oriented businesses have closed down. Our national economic situations and shipping economy face difficulties and challenges of every description. The maritime safety supervision departments are confronted with the new requirements. The paper analyzes the economic crisis of shipping economy as well as the influence of maritime safety administration and puts forward the countermeasures of maritime safety administration so as to pull shipping businesses out of predicament.

1.3. A few remarks about the titles

According to Visual Thesaurus, a title refers to an identifying name given to a book, play, film, musical composition, or other work. Here, it can be learned that the title has a distinguishing function telling the reader what the entitled book or chapter or paper is about. The reader then can instantly decide whether to do it or not. In my opinion, a title shall be brief and meaningful which allows for no error or ambiguity. If the title is defective, perhaps the reader may question the credibility and authenticity of the contents. However, from the 40 papers I have judged, almost all their titles are somewhat defective, leaving much to be desired. Owing to the space, I will just list the top ten or the least defective titles. The defects range from the misuse of part of speeches, articles and capitalizations, something related to grammar, to the choice of words, i.e. diction, ambiguity, something connected with rhetoric. Table 1 is the original titles; Table 2 is mine. The underlined bold types refer to the corrections or improvements I have made.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Serial</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>On the Role of Implementation of International Convention on Civil Liability for Bunker Oil Pollution Damage, 2001 in Establishment and Improvement of the Pollution Damage Compensation Mechanism of China</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Study on Chinese Wreck Removal Costs</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>On Amendment 2004 to Annex II of MARPOL 73/78 and Its Implementation in China</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>The thought of whether to join Convention on Limitation of Liability for Maritime Claims, 1976</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>The influence upon China’s accession to The International Convention For The Safe And Environmentally Sound Recycling Of Ships and a few suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Discharge of the international obligations under Search and Rescue Convention and guard the last line of defense of the Safety of Life at Sea</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>On the discharge of the international obligations concerning search and rescue conventions as its last defense line of the SOLAS</td>
</tr>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>A tentative study of MSA’s normalized precautions against typhoon disasters</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 1.4. Error Causes

#### 1.4.1. Capitalizations

According to Wikipedia, capitalization rules are often quite complex, the first word of every sentence is capitalized as are all proper nouns.

From the errors or imperfections of these ten titles, it can be understood that the authors are somewhat confused about the capitalizations of the titles. Generally speaking, there are three rules for capitalizing a title: No. 1. All capitalized just as the requirements for IMEC 17 – PAPER TEMPLATE (TITLE: font size 16, all capitals centred, bold); this is the most convenient and easy way to entitle a book or a paper; No. 2. The sentence rule, i.e. the first letter of the title is capitalized, all the other parts except the proper nouns are uncapitalized; this is also an easy way to avoid slips; No. 3. Function word and content word rule that is the first letter and all the content or lexical words are capitalized and the function or grammatical words are uncapitalized. According to Wikipedia, the following is a list of the kind of words considered to be function words:

- articles – the and a. In highly inflected languages, the articles may take on the case of the declension of the following noun;
- pronouns – inflected in English, as he – him, she – her etc.;
- adpositions – uninflected in English;
- conjunctions – uninflected in English;
- auxiliary verbs – forming part of the conjugation (pattern of the tenses of main verbs), always inflected;
- interjections – sometimes called “filled pauses”, uninflected;
- particles – convey the attitude of the speaker and are uninflected, as if, then, well, however, thus, etc.;
- expletives – take the place of sentences, among other functions;
- pro-sentences – yes, okay, etc.
This function and content words rule are most tricky, so it is recommended to avoid entitling your books or papers this way, if you are not self-confident enough, especially for non-English majors.

1.4.2. Number of the noun

According to Wikipedia, number is a grammatical category of nouns, pronouns, and verb agreement that expresses count distinctions (such as “one” or “more than one”). The count distinctions typically, but not always, correspond to the actual count of the referents of the marked noun or pronoun.

The misuse of the singulars and plurals of the noun, including the agreement of pronouns abounds in Chinese English writings. One reason is that, unlike English, Chinese is an uninflected language; in Chinese there is no marked distinction of endings between singular and plural forms and between the tense and voice of the predicate, in other words, there are usually no special endings to denote a plural form, past tense or passive voice, etc. For instance, *a vessel* and *two vessels* – here the spelling of vessel is different), but if put into Chinese, the word *vessel* (written in the Chinese character 船) is the same. So it is difficult for the Chinese English learner to slip out of this tricky situation. And to avoid the misuse of noun forms, it is essential to have a correct understanding of the countable and uncountable nouns. How to correctly use the noun forms, I have developed an easy golden rule. Simply put, a countable noun shall appear in one of the five forms, take the word vessel again as an example: it can appear in a sentence or a title taking the form of *a vessel*, *the vessel*, *vessels*, *the vessels* or *another vessel* preceded by a determiner. Not otherwise! Judging by this rule, it is a piece of cake to spot where the mistakes are and how to correct them. Examples:

1. Vessel appeared on the horizon.
2. There appeared vessel on the horizon.

In the above two sentences, *vessel* is a countable noun and is misused. Based on my rule, it can be corrected as follows: *the vessel*, *a vessel*, *vessels*, *the vessels*, *one vessel*, *his vessel*, *that vessel*, *this vessel*, *another vessel*, etc.

According to Wikipedia, determiners, in English, form a closed class of words that number (exclusive of cardinal numerals) about 50 and include:

- Alternative-additive Determiners: *another, other, somebody else*
- Articles: *a, an, the*
- Cardinal Numbers: *one, two, fifty*, etc.
- Degree Determiners: *many, much, few, little...*
- Demonstratives: *this, that, these, those, which*
- Disjunctive Determiners: *either, neither*
- Distributive Determiners: *each, every*
- Elective Determiners: *any, either, whichever*
- Equative Determiners: *the same*
- Evaluative Determiners: *such*
- Existential Determiners: *some, any*
- Interrogative and Relative Determiners: *which, what, whichever, whatever*
- Negative Determiners: *no, neither*
- Personal Determiners: *we teachers, you guys*
- Positive-mutual Determiners: *a lot of, many, several*
- Positive-paucal Determiners: *a few, a little, some*
- Possessive Determiners: *my, your, our*, etc.
Qualitative Determiners: *that*

Quantifiers: *all, few, many, several, some, every, each, any, no, etc.*

Sufficiency Determiners: *enough, sufficient*

Uniquitive Determiners: *the only*

Universal Determiners: *all, both*

This is a golden rule or a rule of the thumb to correctly use the countable nouns.

**1.4.3. Ambiguity**

According to Visual Thesaurus, ambiguity is an expression whose meaning cannot be determined from its context. Although brevity shall be taken into consideration in making a title, it is ill-advisable to sacrifice the brevity of the title to its ambiguity.

Title 8. *The influence upon China’s accession to The International Convention For The Safe And Environmentally Sound Recycling Of Ships and a few suggestions.*

The title is ambiguous in that the paper does not just deal with one definite influence exerted by China’s accession to (preferably use *into* instead of *to*) The International Convention For The Safe And Environmentally Sound Recycling Of Ships.

After reading the whole paper, I conclude the paper is concerned with the pros and cons of China’s accession into that international convention.

Title 9. *Discharge of the international obligations under Search and Rescue Convention and guard the last line of defense of the Safety of Life at Sea.*

Discharge is a verbal noun, while guard serves as a verb in Title 9. This undermines the rule of balance; what’s more, it sounds a bit imperative, that is not the tone of the original paper.

**1.4.5. Collocations**

According to Wikipedia, collocation comprises the restrictions on how words can be used together, for example which prepositions are used with particular verbs, or which verbs and nouns are used together. There are many kinds of collocations, such as those of verb and noun (attach importance to, bid farewell to, catch sight of, do sb a favour, give rise to, make haste, make use of, play a role in, pay attention to, take care of, take place, take the place of, etc.), verb and prepositions (look at, look after, look for, take after, take in, take on, etc.) and adverbs (look up, look down, look forward to, go ahead, go astern, etc), adjectives and prepositions (kind to, strict with, hard on, fond of, popular with, good at, grateful for, etc.), nouns and prepositions (interest in, involvement in, insight into, comment on, disappointment with, advantage over, etc), adverb and prepositions (instead of, ahead of, regardless of, irrespective of, up to, apart from, away from, together with, along with, etc.), prepositions and nouns (in advance, in part, in order, in position, in place, etc). Collocations play an important role in the effective expressions of English writing. As most of the collocations are arbitrary and fixed, good care and pains should be taken to take note of the new collocations while reading or listening to develop writing ability. This is a lifelong process. Take some examples of collocations from ME, we have *stand by, weigh anchor, make fast, cast off, let go, first officer, chief engineer, mate's receipt, sea protest, note of sea protest*, as well as some orders such as *finished with engine, finished with wheel, hard-a-port, hard-a-starboard, port five, ease to five, full ahead, full astern, dead slow ahead* and the like. All these collocations are fixed and allow no change. All in all, correct use of collocations can serve as a yardstick of the quality of English writing especially for non-native English speakers.
1.4.6 Chinglish

By Chinglish is meant bad English spoken or written by the Chinese according to the Chinese grammar rules instead of the English grammar which is, in most cases, unintelligible to those who do not understand Chinese and sometimes even difficult for the ordinary Chinese unless shown the original Chinese version. Let’s look at the following short paragraph taken from one submitted paper.

(3) The effect of port

China’s key factors driving port requirements for the domestic demand and the European countries import and export trade growth. Export-oriented economic growth mode impact. Due to the economy needs a period of recovery. 2009. port industry growth slowed inevitable. The financial crisis of the entity economy continues to worsen. and caused serious influence. the total social demand and shipping goods will continue to reduce quantity of port. shipping. ship quantity of railway number.

Its Chinese version is as follows.

(三) 对港口生产的影响

我国港口需求的关键驱动因素为欧美国家的需求以及国内进出口贸易量的增长。外向型的经济增长模式受到冲击较大。由于经济需要一段时间的复苏，2009年，港口行业增速趋缓不可避免。金融危机继续恶化，对实体经济造成严重影响，社会总需求和海运货物量将会继续减少，抵离港船舶数量下降，滞港船舶数量增加。

Honestly, even for me it is Greek, not English. Chinese cannot help me to understand at all. Obviously, not a single sentence is correct. With the help of its original Chinese (its Chinese version is good and intelligible, but not exactly means what its English version intends to express after it is decoded), I have got some head and tail of what it is about. The first sentence is interpreted as follows: The pivotal driving force for the demands of China’s ports hinges on the needs of the Europe and the United States as well as the increase of the domestic imports and exports. Now let’s get down to the root cause of Chinglish. As Chinese and English belong to different families of the language, each has its own peculiar ways to form phrases and sentences, expressing idiomatically, effectively, figuratively, abstractly and concretely. Put in a nutshell, Chinese is an uninflected language, using fewer particles, such as prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns and there is no such a term as articles, the formation of a sentence depending more on semantics than grammatical relationships, while English is an inflected language, seemingly more relying on the complicated intriguing interrelationship determined by the rules of grammar. It is interesting to note one cannot build a sentence without learning English grammar while in China even high school students have not much knowledge of what subjects and predicates are about, but their lack of grammatical terminologies and rules does not affect their learning of their mother tongue. One more point: in Chinese, an adjective can be used as a predicate, while in English there should be a linking verb combined with an adjective to form a predicate. It can be safely concluded that the differences between Chinese and English are poles apart. So it naturally follows that a Chinese, if not immersed in seas of English before starting to write his paper in English, may commit grammatical errors of this or that kind.
2. A comparative study of IMEC papers and 40 papers

It is unfair to put the following two abstracts of the contributors for comparison, as they are not on the same equal footing. The paper entitled *A study of normalization of MSA tackling typhoon disaster* is written by a deputy vessel management director, who graduated in 1996 as a navigation major from Dalian Maritime University. He is professionally competent, motivated and dedicated. I have judged his three papers written in English. Here is one abstract of his paper. There are a lot of problems with his abstract, now let’s examine it.

**Abstract 1**

*Being differ from other natural disaster, Typhoon disaster would yearly happen and impact south-east part of China and tackling typhoon disaster becomes a routine work of China MSA. Normalization of this work has objective necessity. This essay describes the meanings and analyses the objective necessity of normalization of MSA tackling typhoon disaster, and discusses the basic content of it which consists of both daily precaution normalization and emergency management normalization.*

Comments: First the title does not make good sense, normalization is ambiguous, tackling is not as good as fighting or combating, disaster shall be corrected into disasters. I try boldly to reentitle it this way: *A study of routinely combating typhoon disasters by PRC, MSA.* Also, there are many other errors in this abstract as short as 70 words in length, such as, differ to different; disaster to disasters; Typhoon to typhoon; disaster to disasters; yearly to annually, would shall be omitted; work to job; has to is; an shall be added before objective; disaster to disasters (third time); comma shall be left out; the basic content of it to its basic content.

The corrected abstract runs as follows:

*Being different from other natural disasters, typhoon disasters happen annually and affect southeastern part of China and combating typhoon disasters becomes a routine job of PRC, MSA. Normalization of this work is an objective necessity. This essay describes the meanings and analyses the objective necessity of normalization of MSA fighting typhoon disasters and discusses its basic content which consists of both daily precaution normalization and emergency management normalization.*

From the above comments I have made it can be seen that both the title and the abstract fail to meet the basic criterion that is grammatically sound and makes good sense. The author should have been a bit more cautious with his English writing, to say the least. Many careless errors could have been avoided if he had consulted more dictionaries and invited more help from his colleagues and even his former English teacher(s). I talked it over face to face with him about the problems in his papers. He just shrugged his shoulders as a sign of shame for his carelessness. However, I should point out that attitudes always count in writing. Dictionaries should always be handy while writing. Do not rely too much on translation software and online help and the like.

Next comes an abstract that can serve as a model abstract, by Professor Boris Pritchard, also participant of this 21st IMEC. He shows us how to write a title and an abstract in perfect English. The title is: “Creating minimum Maritime English vocabulary – a practical exercise” and the abstract is:

*The workshop is a continuation of the paper on a similar subject presented at IMEC 19. Workshop objective: To involve the Maritime English teacher in the process of creating the technical vocabulary within the syllabus and to engage subject teachers in determining the minimum vocabulary needed for the requirements of the IMO STCW 95 for separate levels.*
Comments: This sample abstract can serve as a model for us to understand what good writing is and how to write a perfect title and an abstract. Something indispensable is needed to be a model essay when it is flawless, effective and exquisite. Professor Boris is very accurate in diction and grammar. Just look at the use of articles before the word vocabulary. Vocabulary is grammatically different from the word in that the former can only be used as an uncountable noun, while the latter can be used both as a countable noun and an uncountable one. As I have mentioned in the preceding sections that a countable noun appears in the sentence in one of the five forms, that is, a word, the word, words, the words or preceded by a determiner such as another word, this word, some word, etc. The article is not used before vocabulary in the title because vocabulary is uncountable; but there is the before the second vocabulary in the abstract, because it is restricted or modified by something following it. Let’s focus on another detail, i.e. the use of countable nouns. Take the word teacher as an example, the Maritime English teacher and subject teachers in the abstract, if we leave out the article the before Maritime English teacher and the plural form s, that is wrong English. There are many other points in the abstract worthy of our study.

3. Countermeasures

3.1. IMO’s Mission

It is a fact that English has been recognized as the only acceptable international language for the international crew working on the open seas around the world. It is true that an ocean-going vessel comprises a multilingual crew speaking English with different accents, sometimes, without a single native English speaking seaman. This fact has more often than not been hammered into our mind that the majority of sea perils have been caused by human factors which are always attributed to poor English proficiency, namely, the low communicative competence of the universal language. That’s why STCW has put the communicative ability of the four English skills in the paramount position and the IMO SMCP has been developed to change the situation. However, it seems that it works to some extent but it is not a cure-all. From the linguistic perspective, listening and reading fall into the category of reception; while speaking and writing – that of production. As it is known, a man is born with the ability to listen and speak (he/she cries when coming into this word); no baby will lose this ability unless born deaf or dumb. Of course, that happens in his or her mother tongue. Admittedly, when it comes to foreign language acquisition, things will be a bit different, but not different at all. Speaking is the easiest one of the language skills, foreign languages not excluded. A person who can communicate orally is not necessarily an educated person; an illiterate grandma can do so. But she can not read or write unless taught. In other words, listening and speaking are innate, intuitional, being thus the easy side of language, while reading and writing are acquired, taught, and are thus the more difficult parts of language. Now let’s come to the point: why the seamen cannot communicate adequately. The answer is that we fail to have a good understanding of the IMO SMCP, because we interpret communication only one-sidedly. Communications can be conducted not only with ears (listening) and mouth (speaking) but also with eyes (reading) and hands (writing). Secondly, native language acquisition and foreign language learning are of different processes. In learning a foreign language, what lacks is input, language input, while native language acquisition is immersed into input. As mentioned before, speaking and writing belong to output process. No input, no output. Less input, less output. As communicative competence (here it refers to listening and speaking only) is unprecedentedly focused on in Maritime English study, which seems to throw writing skills into oblivion, now only IMO can turn the wheel, that is IMO’s mission:
Recommnd setting a universally standardized ME test, compulsorily putting writing skills into it accounting for a certain proportion of the test.

3.2. Government’s Mission

Almost all governments have attached vital importance to the improvement of English skills. Many countries have their respective own systems to assess and test what’s called communicative ability of their seamen. In China, every navigation student must pass National Maritime English listening and speaking assessment online and written examinations in order to graduate to work on board. On-service professional seamen are also required to take the same kind of Maritime English assessments and tests if they want to get promoted to higher ranks. But this testing system has a self-evident defect, i.e. no writing ability test is included. The national testing organization has cancelled the writing section (before 2007, there is a translation section Chinese into English taking up 20%) and gets ready to conduct tests all online merely out of consideration of their own convenience and saving time. This will, I believe, have a destructive impact on the Chinese seamen’s whole English ability. My reasons for the downslide of Maritime English proficiency for lack of testing writing are as follows. No. 1. Writing is the most difficult part of the four language skills. If the most difficult part is not tested, examinees may not take the test too seriously, or do not have to spend enough time on it. No. 2. Writing is the integral part of IELTS, TOIEC and new TOFEL, to name just a few. Why writing included? Because it is not enough to measure a candidate’s English ability without testing his writing ability, I suppose. This may be deduced from the fact that old TOFEL did not test writing skills, only testing reading and listening skills in the form of multiple choices. But from 2004, the ETS of the United States developed and included writing skills as well as speaking skills in the new TOFEL on the grounds listening and reading are not enough or reliable to assess the whole English ability of a candidate. No. 3. Writing as a means of production will promote the accuracy of language, just as Bacon once remarked that “writing maketh an exact man”. When analyzing the inadequate communicative competence leading to marine perils, do we have second thoughts that insufficient language skill may be improved if writing ability gains some importance in testing and assessment?

In Japan, in order to properly assess each learner’s competence in Maritime English as required by the STCW95, Professor Takeshi NAKAZAWA from the Tokyo University of Marine Science and Technology (TUMSAT) and the California Maritime Academy, a California State University (CMA) developed a test of Maritime English competence known as TOMEC that consists of five parts characterized by multiple choices, testing only listening and reading ability. It is quite a shame that TOMEC does not test writing skills as it is done in the Testing Center of PRC MSA. It is highly recommended governments from different countries or even different continents join forces to develop new TOMEC that incorporates writing skills into it. That is the mission of Governments.

3.3. Teachers’ Mission

According to IAMU Research Project Team’s THE PROFESSIONAL PROFILE OF A MARITIME ENGLISH INSTRUCTOR (PROFS) there are four categories of ME teachers, namely:

a) Career specialists (career Maritime English language teachers).
b) English language and literature graduates.
c) Former seafarers.
d) English speaking nomads.
I fall under b) English language and literature graduates. In China, ME is taught mainly by graduates of navigation or engineering specialty who are a bit confident of their English. But as they are not trained as English majors, they are not so sensitive to the nuances of English. It will be a bit difficult for them to teach ME writing, because they have not been proficiently trained for that purpose. But when it comes to specialized knowledge related to navigation, engineering and the like, the language teacher will be at a disadvantage, in a dilemma and at a loss. The twinning (i.e. cooperation between Maritime English teachers and maritime-technical subject teachers for conducting various activities in learning and teaching Maritime English) suggested by Peter Trenkner and Boris Pritchard at The METTS Seminar, 2008 IMEC may prove constructive, but the best way is to train the trainer (preferably the language teacher) regularly, to marinate the language teacher, to pave the way for them to experience sea life, but the true fact is that a language teacher cannot go aboard easily, as they cannot undertake seamen’s jobs, and, what’s more, no company will run the risk to sponsor their undertaking something related to ME aboard. It is known that many certificates and formalities are needed to work on board an oceangoing vessel. So the ME teachers’ mission is to get trained to train others. **It is proposed that the IMEC do some substantial work to help the uncertificated language teacher to experience sea life, simply put, they should be immune to any checks when working on board overseas.**

4. Conclusion

This paper is not intended to underestimate the importance of the communicative competence; on the contrary, it is meant to upgrade the understanding of the extent to which writing contributes to the improvement of the other language skills such as speaking and listening. In the foreword of the IMO SMCP is stated: “As navigational and safety communications from ship to shore and vice versa, ship to ship, and on board ships must be precise, simple and unambiguous, so as to avoid confusion and error, there is a need to standardize the language used”. How can being precise and unambiguous be ensured? It is easy to compile and standardize a set of phrases like the IMO SMCP. If phrases and communications can be standardized, then a question may arise that a machine like computer or robot can stand in its place so as to avoid human factors. Perhaps it may be argued that seamen are of diverse educational backgrounds and speak with distinctive accents, if communications are not fixed and standardized, then more confusion may occur and accidents will probably ensue. All these points sound sensible, but the IMO SMCP is not a panacea. Great research and teaching efforts must be made to improve whole English ability. Writing as a means of language production should be emphasized. In Chinese there is an old saying, 好记性不如烂笔头, literally translated into English, “good memory cannot match an old pencil”. That proves another point that writing promotes memory. In Maritime English, there are many orders such as wheel orders, engine orders, anchoring orders, berthing orders, etc. All these orders shall be given spontaneously and intuitionally. How to memorize all these orders? Do we just teach the trainees to speak, speak, and speak until these orders are ready at the tip of their tongues? I have never done so, I require my students to write them all on the paper, making sure they can reproduce all these orders in writing. If something can be spelled out correctly, then it will be as easy to speak out orally as turning the palms.

In 2000 WOME 2 A, I submitted a paper entitléd “Problems with China’s Maritime English Teaching and its strategies”, I suggested that all ME students in China should undertake the study of ME the moment they enter the universities. As most of them have already been
learning English for at least 9 years, their word power reaching about 3000 words or above, unlike students of other specialties, they are not required to learn College English, just ME. Thus, all the four language skills will be sufficiently trained, writing will be taught in the sixth term. I made a close study of the Syllabus which tells us that of the 11 sub-items of English skills required of the third or second mate at least six items concern translation or writing ability, which should not be left untouched on.

Looking back on the errors or defects of the papers I corrected and how much error tolerance it should be given, my answer to it is that no basic grammatical mistakes are to be tolerated. For the purpose of avoiding making basic grammatical mistakes, I offer the following recommendations or advice for the trainees.

**Advice One**

One cannot be too careful with your English writing as it is scholastic and for international exchange.

**Advice Two**

Better not write the paper first in your native language and then put it into English, as this may make your writing appear not so idiomatic and a bit of lingo and sentences structure too clumsy.

**Advice Three**

Immerse yourself into the sea of related materials written by native language speakers whose points may contribute to your views and meanwhile refresh your English thinking as your writing shall be in English.

**Advice Four**

The best reader of your paper should be the native language speaker if you can find one. But the final judge is you.

**Advice Five**

Make full use of the Internet but do not cross the demarcation line of plagiarism.

**References**

Curriculum Vitae

Chen Zhenyan

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- graduated from East China Normal University as an English postgraduate,
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A SHIP, A FAMILY:
THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT AND CULTURES

Abstract
Recent years have witnessed an increased emphasis on complex and technologically advanced ships and on a global maritime workforce composed of many different nationalities and cultures. Both characteristics represent substantial challenges for the seafarers, especially in terms of recruitment and career development.

We do agree that, during these financially difficult years, the training of the sea staff should be of top priority since any decline in standards conducts to the increase in casualties.

The present paper illustrates some maritime English training events focused on exploring the ship’s multicultural environment.

One of the recent sessions entitled “Life on board the mixed-crewed vessels, good or bad?” established meaningful contexts based on real cases relevant to seafarers’ life and working environment.

Together, trainees and lecturers have identified the background of the multinational, -cultural and -linguistic crews where sometimes problems and even conflicts appear.

The session framework proposed that the officers develop and present:
1. appreciation of the interrelatedness of technical and human systems,
2. considerations on multiculturalism and particularities of this phenomenon on board vessels,
3. case studies envisaging problems and conflicts specific to the multinational crews and their issues.

Conclusions: The multicultural ship environment was depicted as realistically as possible. Creation and maintenance of good morale, teamwork and rapports are essential for the overall functionality, particularly in situations of crisis. The crews, either “national” or “international” have to create a culture in which effective communication and professionalism will become part of the daily round.

Keywords and phrases: training event; exploration; multicultural background; real-life; opportunity; issue
A SHIP, A FAMILY
THE WORKING ENVIRONMENT AND CULTURES

Author: PAULA MANOLACHE
CERONAV - ROMANIA

Background:
- Course: Maritime English – Refresher
- Participants: 16 engineer officers
- Level of English: 30% intermediate, 70% upper intermediate
- Duration: 2 + 3 hours (two days)

Session description. Organization.

I. Characteristics:
- student-centered method: students’ learning facilitated by the trainer
- experiential style: personal stories; learning through case studies of good practice

II. Trainer’s Motivation:
1. tailoring actively the learning to the seafarers’ aims and objectives
2. encouraging communication through attractive topics
3. sharing knowledge and experience
4. raising awareness of cultural diversity
5. finding out more about multiculturalism and globalization and thus facing the labor market demands
6. trying issues for creating an optimum working place and finding work more meaningful

III. Strategies. Hints.
- Lesson is sequenced: briefing/preparation/presentation/discussions, debates
- Groups are organized
- Tasks are assigned
- Procedures are summarized
- Resources are recommended
- Facilitation and monitoring
- Evaluation
IV. Trainees suggest and select topics:

**Team 1 choices:**
- GLOBALISATION
- ROMANIAN SEAFARER AND WORLD CRISIS
- IS LANGUAGE A BARRIER?
- LIFE QUALITY ON BOARD
- HINTS FOR BUILDING UP A GOOD TEAM

**Team 2 choices:**
- FACING A VARIETY OF CULTURES, CUSTOMS AND BELIEFS
- THE “ART” OF SOCIALIZING
- ORIENT vs. OCCIDENT
- CULINARY DIFFERENCES
- INCIDENTS, CONFLICTS, DISPUTES AND THEIR ISSUES

V. Through logos and banners, the trainer added new themes:

“Strengthening the European Union as an area of freedom, security and justice”

Key messages:

- Under the slogan “Imagine. Create. Innovate”, the Year 2009 aims to promote creative and innovative approaches in different sectors of activity.

- While promoting the well-being of all individuals in society, the purpose of the Year is to contribute to better equipping the European Union for the challenges ahead in a globalised world.

1/ “2009: Year of creativity and Innovation”

2/ “2010: Year of the Seafarer”,

3/ Seafarers “Bill of rights”
Imagine a new world!

"Imagination is more important than knowledge. For knowledge is limited to all we now know and understand, while imagination embraces the entire world."

Albert Einstein

"Seafarers' Bill of Rights", a major step towards decent work on the seas:

Title 1: Minimum requirements for seafarers to work on a ship
Title 2: Conditions of employment
Title 3: Accommodation, recreational facilities, food and catering
Title 4: Health protection, medical care, welfare and social security protection

Title 5: Compliance and enforcement: on board complaint procedures

The Convention will become the "fourth pillar" of the international regulatory regime for quality shipping, complementing the key conventions of the International Maritime Organization:

- The International Convention for the Safety of Life at Sea, 1974 as amended (SOLAS),
- The International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watch Keeping, 1978 as amended (STCW), and
- The International Convention for the Prevention of Pollution from Ships, 73/78 (MARPOL).

In case of conflicts between our values and the work place realities:

- Give the best effort for own satisfaction and the good of the workplace.
- Let's have a cooperative attitude: don't act begrudging or resentful.
- Let's be fair, honest and realistic in our dealings with others.

- Learn new skills and stay up-to-date on developments.
- Be dependable and trustworthy: use the time well and follow the commitments.
- Take a creative problem-solving approach.
EXPLORING THE SHIP’S MULTICULTURAL ENVIRONMENT

Ever-changing maritime conditions e.g.
- Multilingual and multicultural crews
- Decreased manning
- Minimum requisite qualifications
- Changes in technologies
conduct to team formation difficulties
and performance problems.

WHAT IS NEEDED IN THE PRESENT SHIPPING CONTEXT TO OVERCOME STRESS AND CRISES?

• Behaving as we would like others to;
• Working as we would like others to;
• Learning to create and maintain a positive atmosphere;
• Communicating effectively within the multi – national and multi – ethnic crews.

Ion: That’s my crew!

Birthday party on board.
Chat: Religion, a matter of argument

• Chat: Muslim engineer vs. Christian electrician:
  “Which one is the real God, mine or yours”?

• Chinese A/B:
  “Both religions are the same. Each of us prays his Allah, God or Buddha for something, no matter how we call Him, it’s the same”.

• A Romanian colleague: “Who can tell why the devil is black for white people and white for black people?”

• A Philippino colleague: “Then, what colour is my God supposed to be?”
Romanians speak about their fruitful experience on board:

• **COSTIN:** “I helped ratings to make communication progress. I made effort to change mood of some people driven in despair. I was happy to share opinions about life and cultures”.

• **MARIUS:** “I was lucky to work in such an environment. I think we should:
  - get used to differences and thus, work and life together will be easier than expected;
  - embrace the others’ culture and customs and you’ll be rewarded.”

• **AUREL:** “Advantages: enrich culturally and enjoy sharing traditions. Disadvantages: without English, no relationships, just work and work…”

• **LAURENTIU:** “Either easier or harder, life on board means compliance with rules, respectful attitudes, high degree cooperation.”

• **DUTZU:** “My ship? A Babel Tower! ”:
  - 29 people, 12 nationalities, 10 months
  - 85 % - poor English;
  - some Asians “paid” for a longer contract (3 years) which seemed an “infinity” for them;
  - every 4 hours rest for Allah prayers;
  - quite all complained about work.”

  "Where are you, Jerome K. Jerome ?”

CRISTIAN reports what Petko (a Bulgarian) used to say:

“Crewing agencies to show more professionalism when recruiting. Criteria: vocational and language skills.
Before signing in, we have to know what nationalities we join and how to better cooperate.”

CRISTIAN reports what Samir (a Turkish mate) used to say:

“English was difficult for me, but without it I used to be blind, deaf and dumb.
A day of mine looked like this:
Hard work → meals → cabin retire → very many cigarettes.
Now I discuss, tell jokes or listen to sea stories.”
"It’s high time to wake up", DAN said.

"Lack of education conducts to serious crises: stress accumulates or unpredictable behaviour is generated.
What to do? Give up bad habits. Leave your cabins and socialize. Develop leisure and chat. Be a Family."

He is an exclusive guy...

They are socializers!!

Communication breakdown enables “emotional problems” and other “bad habits”.

CONCLUSIONS:

I.

• Through case studies and debates we identified problems and analyzed causes.

• Trainees were reflective and critically evaluative throughout the session.

• Analysis does not mean “solution” finding, playing the “analyst” role, we did not identify with the “problem solvers”.

• Since this subject deserves particular attention, the trainees will be able from now on to stand their grounds more efficiently:

  “REASONABLE CHANGES EXPECTED FOR THE SEAMEN’S LIFE”
CONCLUSIONS: II.

- All seamen, regardless of their nationality and the flag of the ship they work on, have to enjoy decent working and living conditions.
- From shipowners and operating companies they expect issues associated with:
  - fatigue / occupational accidents / recruitment / employment opportunities

CONCLUSIONS: III.

- (Some) Shipping companies policy regarding human resources generates inconveniences to seamen’s everyday life (fatigue, stress, discomfort, wages shortage a.s.o.).
- Inadequate basic education and training are among the main conflict causes on board, if any...

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Subject specializations: general and maritime English; maritime safety and security.
She is the author of numerous student and teacher coursebooks.
Special interests: multimedia language learning environment; globalization and employability in the maritime industry; electronic resources and copyright.
Future projects: short-term courses construction; experimenting online self-study.

...and not at all

... nationalities, cultures or religions...
This diversity is a precious “asset”, a “binding power” for a safe, decent, and pleasant life on board.

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- www.marisec.org
- www.itfglobal.org
- www.maritimeglobal.net
- www.clipart-graphics.net
Curriculum Vitae

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SYSTEMS OF CREDITS FOR MARITIME ENGLISH COURSES
– SOME ASPECTS OF ASSESSMENT AND TESTING

Abstract

The Bologna process places special requirements on MET institutions and on teaching Maritime English. The advantages and disadvantages of the Bologna Process are a matter of deep disputes among teachers and educational authorities. These are reflected especially in the learning outcome, which may sometimes be in conflict with STCW requirements.

In the first part of the workshop, via specially designed questionnaires, the participants will be involved in discussing the issues of course design with particular reference to assessment of knowledge and skills as per STCW and CEF in order to help overcome the drawbacks of the Bologna process.

The only way of overcoming the disadvantages is the automation of a part of student assessment in the form of specially designed computer programmes for testing. The second part serves to engage participants in designing and discussing pros and cons of electronically-based assessment, with particular reference to maritime VHF communications and application of SMCP. For this purpose, the Moodle e-learning application will be used.

Keywords: CBT, assessment, Maritime English, testing

1. Introduction

The paper providing background will be presented before the workshop: Boris Pritchard & Sandra Tominac: Learning outcomes, workload and systems of credits for Maritime English courses – some aspects of the Bologna Process

2. Course of studies – curriculum, Maritime English: course description, syllabus (ECTS), STCW contents in ME classes

Questionnaire 1
Task 1: (7’)
Fill out the questionnaire below giving details of the Maritime English course(s) held at your Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institution.
General information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of programme of studies:</th>
<th>(underline)</th>
<th></th>
<th>BSc / Ass. Diploma</th>
<th>ECTS / credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>– Nautical Science</td>
<td>– Marine Engineering</td>
<td>– Logistics &amp; Management of (Mar) Transport</td>
<td>– Other:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of study:</th>
<th>Course held in term: (tick off)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year I.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>6.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of course:</th>
<th>Optional: (tick off)</th>
<th>% of STCW content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic: (tick off)</td>
<td>I.</td>
<td>I.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>II.</td>
<td>II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task 2: (10’)

Discuss the results of the Task 1 in your group and report on some common features and differences held in your countries and MET institutions.

General information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of programme of studies:</th>
<th>(underline)</th>
<th></th>
<th>BSc / Ass. Diploma</th>
<th>ECTS / credits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>– Logistics &amp; Management of (Mar) Transport</td>
<td>– Other:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>Years of study:</th>
<th>Course held in term: (tick off)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Year I.</td>
<td>1.</td>
<td>4.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year II.</td>
<td>2.</td>
<td>5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year III.</td>
<td>3.</td>
<td>6.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status of course:</th>
<th>Optional: (tick off)</th>
<th>% of STCW content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Basic: (tick off)</td>
<td>I.</td>
<td>I.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>II.</td>
<td>II.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>III.</td>
<td>III.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task 2: (10’)

Discuss the results of the Task 1 in your group and report on some common features and differences held in your countries and MET institutions.

Questionnaire 2

Task 3 (10’)

Fill out the table below writing down the learning outcomes for the selected course(s) of Maritime English held at your Maritime Education and Training (MET) Institution.
Learning outcomes (sample: Year II, Term ___)

By completion of the course the student is expected to:
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.

Course description – contents

topics (content-based learning):
1.
2.
3.
4.
5.
6.
7.
8.

Task 4 (7’)

Discuss the results of the Task 3 in your group and report on some common features and differences holding in your countries and MET institutions. How are these related to STCW requirements?

Questionnaire 3

Task 5 (5’)

Fill out the table below by considering the extent of focus you place in your training on the various language systems. Please express the focus in percentage of the time and/or rate of importance you assign to a particular language system, with reference to the language systems as a whole.

Focus of the language systems:
1. Pronunciation and prosodic elements: _____ (%)  
2. Grammar (syntax, morphology): _____ (%)  
3. Vocabulary: _____ (%);  
   a. maritime terminology: _____ (% in the total vocabulary)  
4. Discourse/Text: _____ (%)  
5. Pragmatics (formal-informal language use, etc.): _____ (%)  

Task 6 (7’)

Fill out the table below by considering the extent of focus you place in your training to the four language skills. Please express the focus in the percentage of the time and/or rate of importance you assign to a particular skill throughout the course as a whole. How do you combine the skills?
Focus on the language skills:
1. Reading   _____  (%) 
2. Listening  _____  (%) 
3. Speaking   _____  (%) 
4. Writing    _____  (%) 

Questionnaire 4
Task 7 (15’)
Fill out the questionnaire below by showing **ECTS credits** assigned to the various activities and learning outcomes in your Maritime English course. Describe the **methods of assessment and percentage points** assigned to assessment and discuss them in your group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>ECTS</th>
<th>Learning outcomes</th>
<th>Specific student activity</th>
<th>Methods of assessment</th>
<th>Points in (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Attendance</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>– lectures</td>
<td></td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– tutorials</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activities during the classes</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. listening to, writing, transmitting VHF messages, role-play (VHF exchanges using SMCP)</td>
<td>students' assessment (e.g. evaluating compliance with SMCP and RR) Teacher's assessment (language systems and skills; learner's communicative competence)</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous assessment</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. two CBT tests:</td>
<td>– MCT</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– terminology</td>
<td>– cloze</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– language systems</td>
<td>– fill in</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(structure, vocabulary, discourse)</td>
<td>– complete the sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– (reading &amp; listening) comprehension</td>
<td>– alternative answer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– quiz</td>
<td>– short answers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– jumbled sentences / texts</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– matching</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– report</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– paper</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>– study</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final exam</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1-6</td>
<td>e.g. oral exam &amp;/or test</td>
<td></td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Assessment, evaluation, testing

Questionnaire 5

3.1. Role of testing within assessment

Task 8 (3’)
Discuss in your group the role of testing in the overall assessment process in ME courses you teach. What are your experiences? What percentage of the assessment do you assign to periodic tests?

Questionnaire 6

3.2. Types of testing (when): continuous vs final, medium: written vs spoken, modes of testing: conventional testing vs CBT

Task 9 (10’)
Fill out the table below regarding the type, medium and mode of testing you apply in your class. Discuss the results of the task 10 in your group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of tests</th>
<th>Medium</th>
<th>Modes of testing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuous vs Final</td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>Conventional vs CBT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous</td>
<td>Written</td>
<td>Conventional testing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>Advantages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Final</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>CBT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Final</td>
<td>Spoken</td>
<td>CBT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>Advantages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
<td>Disadvantages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task 10 (5’)
Discuss the following questions in your group: How often do you apply continuous testing in a semester/year? What type of medium do you use for the continuous tests and what type of medium/method do you use for the final test?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continuous testing</th>
<th>Final test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When?</td>
<td>When?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What medium/method?</td>
<td>What medium/method?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Questionnaire 7**

**Task 11 (10’)**

**3.3. CBT**

*Fill out the table below and discuss the results of the task in your group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How often do you use CBT?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What computer programme do you use?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tick the methods you use the most within the CBT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MCT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cloze</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complete the sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alternative answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short answers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jumbled sentences / texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>any other</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**References**

**Obligatory**

1.  
2.  
3.  
4.  

**Recommended**

5.  
6.  
7.  
8.  
9.  

**Pre-course requirements**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Requirements for entering the course</th>
<th>Maritime English course 1&amp;2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Requirements for final exam</td>
<td>Tests, attendance, classroom activities, home assignments, report (paper)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Curriculum Vitae**

Sandra Tominac & Boris Pritchard – see page no. 72.
FUSION OF CONTENT AND SKILL
IN MARTEL MARITIME ENGLISH STANDARDS

Abstract
MarTEL (Maritime Test of English Language) is an ongoing European Leonardo Da Vinci project, which intends to establish European standards for Maritime English. Since the commencement of the project in November 2007, it has evolved into a multi-layered structure with a thorough approach to achieve the project objectives. As the project is in the final stage of its development, it is supported not only by its original founding partners, but also by several new maritime institutions, some of which are in EU and some outside of it.

Starting point of MarTEL was to create standards in testing Maritime English (MarE) of three groups of seafarers, namely the would-be cadets of maritime academies (Phase 1), graduates of these academies and the officers of junior rank (Phase 2) and the seafarers of senior level who are captains, chief engineers, pilots and other high level port authority personnel (Phase 3). Today, the project also aims to create some sort of standardization for teaching of MarE by way of designing “study guidelines” and “study units” for each of its phases.

The workshop intends to focus on the second phase of MarTEL, which is regarded as the core of the project. In this phase, MarTEL brings a new approach to the testing of MarE as it upholds the language element above the maritime knowledge and distinguishes the language skill levels of deck and engineering officers. Therefore it is designed as a “skill based” test, which assesses the English proficiency of the test taker in maritime context and based on criterion referencing. When it comes to the studying or preparing for the test, MarE is expected to be taught through a content of maritime knowledge.

In this workshop, answers to the following questions are discussed:
1. Do content-based study and skill-based testing contradict each other or are they complementary for Maritime English competency?
2. What can be the optimum skill and content allocation in MarE for deck and engineering officers?
3. Can the study guidelines for the MarTEL tests be used as “the guidelines for trainers’ training” in the future?
4. How could MarTEL standards at this level/phase be improved?

The workshop intends to focus on the second phase of MarTEL which is regarded as the core of the project. In this phase, MarTEL brings a new approach to the testing of MarE as it upholds the language element above the maritime knowledge and distinguishes the language skill levels of deck and engineering officers. Therefore it is designed as a “skill based” test, which assesses the English proficiency of the test taker in maritime context and based on criterion referencing.

When it comes to studying or preparing for the test, MarE is expected to be taught through a content of maritime knowledge. The aim is to design a certain type of teaching material, which will successfully combine the language skills with the aspects of Maritime Competency. Therefore an allocation of language skills to the selected topics of maritime knowledge is needed. The workshop intends to ponder this allocation and its pros and cons.

Program (Running Time: 1 hour)
00:00 – 00:10 minutes: Introduction; explanation of the aims and stages of the workshop, a general and brief survey of MarTEL Project works and phases through a power point presentation.
00:10 – 00:15 minutes: Remarks; inviting the participants to give their remarks on the general aspects of the MarTEL Maritime English Standards.
00:15 – 00:20 minutes: **Preliminary Study;** explanation of the *MarTEL Study Guidelines for Phase 2 Deck and Engineering Officers* to the participants through a power point presentation.

00:20-00 40 minutes: **Group Study;** formation of two groups from the participants and declaration of the topic questions:

a) Do content-based study and skill-based testing contradict each other or are they (or could they be made) complementary for Maritime English competency?

b) What can be the optimum skill and content allocation in MarE for deck and engineering officers?

Study and discussion of the answers by the group members. The authors will join the groups to support the discussions.

00:40 – 00:50 minutes: **Conclusions;** the speakers of the groups will present their conclusions to the participants and answer possible questions.

00:50 – 00:60 minutes: **Open discussion and general remarks;** the participants will be invited to give their views on the two remaining questions, which are:

a) Can the study guidelines for the MarTEL tests be used as “the guidelines for trainers’ training” in the future?

b) How MarTEL standards at this level/phase could be improved?

00:60 + few minutes: **Final statement;** authors’ closing statement briefly summarizing the workshop conclusions and thanking the participants for their involvement.

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**Curriculum Vitae**

**Serhan Serniklî**

– started his maritime career by entering Naval High School, Istanbul in 1978;
– after graduating from Naval Academy in 1986, he served in the Turkish Navy for 20 years;
– retiring in 2006, he started to teach Maritime English in TUDEV and is a member of the MarTEL Task Force based at TUDEV;
– Senior Maritime English Lecturer, TUDEV, Turkey;
– Member of MarTEL Project Task Force, Turkey.

**Aydin Şihmanetepe**

– Maritime English Lecturer;
– started his maritime career by entering Naval High School/Istanbul in 1978;
– after graduating from Naval Academy in 1986, he served in the Turkish Navy for 22 years, retiring in 2008;
– holds a master’s degree in International Relations he lectures on Maritime English in TUDEV.

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Abstract
Nowadays, shipping industry not only depends on seafarers who know how to operate and navigate a ship, it also needs a seafarer who can interact effectively with multicultural crews, who knows how to adapt and adjust in any new multicultural environment and also to be an assertive manager and motivator on board. Thus, assertiveness is the crucial skill on board reducing depression, isolation, fatigue, prejudice, stress and misunderstandings. An assertive seafarer knows how to speak up in a diplomatic way, how to question a senior officer in an appropriate way, and how to defend rights in a respectful positive way, acknowledging needs of others.

We cannot directly observe and measure culture. Therefore, we cannot easily change culture. But we can change some particularities influencing safety on board by teaching assertiveness techniques at maritime institutes worldwide.

Some cultural patterns value accord and harmony (passive communication), while others are more “masculine” (aggressive communication). Assertive communication (equal, open, honest, win–win) can strengthen intercultural relationships on board; thereby improving human factor issues and safety.

Keywords: cultural awareness, assertiveness on board, shifting cultural patterns, education

An understanding of different cultures may well be our own most important asset in meeting the challenges of our times, both abroad and at home

Mildred Reed Hall

1. Introduction
Effective communication skills, as well as understanding and motivating different cultures and intercultural management skills are necessary competences for seafarers operating in an intercultural environment. In the time of globalization, economical crisis and cuts in crewing levels, seafarers are confronted with increasing pressures such as fatigue, stress, workload, more paper work and tight sailing schedules which seriously impact on safety, health and communications problems.

A large part of the “human element” in accidents is non assertive communication, attitude and behaviour. Fatalistic acceptance of risk; non assertive adoption of unsafe procedures because others do it this way; poor communications resulting from “high power distance” (“master knows the best”); quest/submissive mentality if seafarers sail under flags of other countries, therefore, they are being expected simply to follow orders and instructions; value of non-confrontational style and harmony, what contributes to confusions, poor team work, miscommunication, delay in dealing with problems. These are the issues of not assertive communication.

Modern seafarers need to have the ability to be assertive with their crew members and outside agencies in order to express themselves clearly, stop their job if it is unsafe or involves unaddressed hazards, interfere in risk-taking actions of other crew members if it can lead to accidents or incidents.

There is a need for the seafarers to have a higher level of assertiveness with a high level of respect and cultural sensitivity and it flows up-and-down the hierarchy chain.
2. Assertiveness and cultural patterns

Due to different historical backgrounds, economics, ideology, politics, culture, lifestyle and social customs seafarers’ communications patterns tend to be different, especially those from the East and those from the West. Communication problems can arise when “masculine” cultures, defined by domination, competitiveness, ambition, come in contact with “feminine” cultures that value accord and harmony.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Masculine/Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that masculine cultures are more likely to use aggressive/more direct styles of communication (start sentences with You; use tactics such as loud talking, bullying, forcefulness to get their way; stand up for themselves, even at the expense of others) and that feminine cultures tend to use passive styles of communication (indirect; falling back easily to avoid conflict; uncomfortable in expressing themselves).

Whether seafarers tend to be indirect, direct, aggressive or passive, their relationships on board are not satisfying and issues are not resolved. Differences in communication styles might cause breakdowns, conflicts, misunderstandings, accepting risk-involved jobs.

Raising of voice when giving orders is perceived by the eastern seafarers to be caused by a superiority complex. When shouted at, Filipino or Chinese crew members suffer a loss of
face, especially when it is done in the presence of other people. This leads to a disturbance of the interpersonal relationship. As a consequence, interpersonal relationship of the crew as well as efficiency in accomplishing the work is affected and dangerous situations may occur.

3. Assertiveness is a crucial skill on board

Assertiveness could be seen as the balance between passive and aggressive communications. Passive behaviour of seafarers can lead to feeling hurt, upset, and angry, isolation and alienation, being fatigued or stressed. When seafarers act aggressively they can hurt people, put others down, use sarcasm, generalization, personalization, prejudice and do not respect the rights of others.

Advantages of assertive communication on board:
- strengthens relationships;
- enhances safety;
- leads to the development of mutual respect;
- enhances active listening;
- reduces negative emotions, fears, depression, stress, fatigue;
- minimizes hurting and alienating other people;
- protects us from being taken advantage of by others;
- teaches to express disagreements in diplomatic way;
- manages conflicts, misunderstandings more effectively.

Seafarers enhance relationships as they approach other crew members and initiate conversation. It gives them the ability to express both positive and negative feelings. Truly assertive seafarers consider themselves as equal partners in relationships. Assertiveness is a crucial skill in developing intercultural competence on board. The key issue is developing respect for you, respect toward others, respect for cultural differences, understanding, appreciation and developing win-win dialogues.

"many a friendship is lost for lack of speaking"  
*Aristotle*
4. Changing cultural particularities influencing safety

“The biggest room in the World is the room for improvement”. This is a Japanese proverb, and is as true today as when it was first written. We need an ability to accept change, not just saying it was always this way.

What are the reasons not to give cultural and/or assertiveness training to seafarers?

Seafarer’s assertiveness training can improve cross-cultural management skills and teach them how to handle problems, conflicts, criticism, and misbehaviour, aggressive or passive communication in an assertive way, considering diversities; develop leadership creativity to suit an increasingly multinational and multicultural environment.

While assertiveness training is not new to the business world, the novelty in the maritime approach lays its focus on culture and cross-cultural management skills in order to improve intercultural communication competence.

5. Techniques for effective assertive communication

Use “I Messages”
If you start with “I”, the focus is more on how you are feeling and how you are affected by their behaviour. It shows more ownership of your reactions, and less blame.
“You Message”: “You need to stop that!”
“I Message”: “I’d like it if you’d stop that.”

“When you [their behaviour], I feel [your feelings].”

When... I hear a voice raised at me I feel... humiliated.
And what I’d like is that I... can debate an issue with you without ending up feeling hurt.
Factual statements, rather than judgments or labels
Describing the effects of their behaviour, do not get personal. This formula provides a direct, non-attacking, more responsible way of letting people know how their behaviour affects you. Confrontation must always be constructive.
“When you yell, I feel attacked.”

Assertive body language
Make sure your body reflects confidence: stand up straight, look people in the eye, and relax. Use a firm, but pleasant, tone.

Paraphrasing
Paraphrasing is the key to make assertiveness work.
"In other words . . .”
"Let me get this straight . . .”
"So you felt that . . .”
"What I hear you saying is . . .”
"If I understand you correctly . . .”
"Would you say that . . .?”

Broken Record Technique
1. Stick to one point and don't get side-tracked.
2. Repeat the goal statement with minor modifications.
3. Avoid explanations for your chosen statement. This is not necessary. Explanations will introduce negotiation and that again leads to compromises. When this happens you are sure to lose track of your goal.

6. Conclusions

Assertiveness is one of the essential skills for seafarers in the modern shipping/maritime intercultural environment. There is a task ahead for governments, shipping companies and Maritime Institutes to make a start and educate seafarers worldwide in Cultural Awareness and Intercultural Competence On Board in order to get the right results. In fact, we should be more assertive in this so that we can achieve a better way of communicating, getting responsible team players who will provide feedback, dealing with problems and dangerous situations and improving the well-being of seafarers who know how to set clear boundaries around work demands and pressures on board ships.

Assertiveness training for seafarers helps to appropriately delegate workload, time pressure and people pressure. Seafarers, who mastered the skill of assertiveness and got training on intercultural management and intercultural communication, are able to reduce the level of interpersonal conflicts or misunderstandings with great assertiveness and great respect towards other cultures, thereby reducing a major source of stress.

It is necessary to make changes in educational programme for seafarers and include the Intercultural Competence on Board as a mandatory course worldwide. It will lead to well organized and good working multinational crews, which will make life at sea safe and maybe even easier for many seafarers.

The survival of mankind will depend to a large extent on the ability of people who think differently to act together
Geert Hofstede

References
8. STCW (loose leaf edition).
9. STCW 39/12, 28 March 2008. IMO, Sub-Committee on Standards of Training and Watchkeeping, 39th session, Agenda item 12.

Curriculum Vitae

Hannie Stok-Knol was born in the Netherlands in 1951. She had formal training in both librarianship (Amsterdam) and in the English language (Middelburg) in the Netherlands. Working in London, UK and in the Netherlands, teaching general English at the HZ as well as maritime English at the MIR.

She taught specialised courses for local and regional organisations, e.g. PSD (ferry service Provence Zeeland), Euroship – Cobelfret (Dutch for Russian captains), HZ – civil engineering (technical English) and has been coaching students of the International Business and Management Studies in their student companies. Other interests are related to maritime subjects (Stichting Behoud Hoogaars, for the preservation of local wooden types of ships), or to housing (former committee member of the Women Advisory Committee (WAC/VAC) for housing in Vlissingen and VAC Zee-land and tutor/trainer for WAC Gowan Mbeki, South Africa (twin-city project Vlissingen-Gowan Mbeki).

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Lutsenko Olesia was born in 1975 in Russia. She earned a Bachelor's degree in English and Russian language at the Ukrainian State Teacher's Training University and was teaching Maritime English at the Ukrainian State Maritime Technical University in Nikolaev from 2000 to 2003. She has been teaching Maritime English and Cultural Awareness on board at the Maritime Institute de Ruyter, ROC Zeeland, Vlissingen, the Netherlands since 2006. Her primary current interests lay in developing methods for improving assertiveness on board and teaching materials on maritime intercultural competence at management level.

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AN EXAMPLE OF HOW TO CREATE TEACHING MATERIALS TO IMPROVE CULTURAL AWARENESS IN A MARINE SETTING

Abstract
Since ships are manned with multicultural crews, there is a need to make all the players in the maritime field aware of cultural differences to avoid miscommunication and misunderstandings. The purpose of this workshop is to give the participants examples of how to create teaching materials on cultural topics covering the four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening). In this example of a thematic integrated skills unit, the students will learn about culture at the same time as they will be developing and practicing the following study skills and strategies:
- writing an effective introduction,
- writing definitions,
- taking notes while listening,
- taking notes from a text,
- presenting information to a group,
- synthesizing information,
- improving language awareness.

Culture
Since arriving here and meeting colleagues from various countries around the world, you have probably become aware of various cultural differences among you. You may even feel that you are experiencing culture shock. Culture influences every aspect of our lives including what we eat, how we dress, how we feel about personal space and even how we think. In this unit you will learn about various aspects of culture, cultural differences and culture shock. While you are learning about culture you will also be developing and practicing the following study skills and strategies:
- writing an effective introduction,
- writing definitions,
- taking notes from a text,
- taking notes while listening,
- presenting information to a group,
- synthesizing information,
- thinking critically,
- improving your language awareness.

**Culture Unit: Thinking about the topic**

**1. Activating Personal Knowledge**

As international students, you have undoubtedly experienced some cultural differences that have lead to misunderstandings or confusion. Freewrite for about 10 minutes, in the space below, to describe one such experience.

___________________________________________________________________________

Now, read out and/or explain what you have written in a small group of three or four colleagues. As a group, make a list of the general kinds of cultural differences.

**Vocabulary Assessment**

*Use the vocabulary development scale to rate the words below.*

5 can explain use in various contexts  
4 use to a limited extent in speaking/writing  
3 understand the ‘gist’ of it  
2 recognize but do not understand  
1 unknown to me

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in tandem</th>
<th>invention</th>
<th>faux pas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to relate</td>
<td>diffusion</td>
<td>honeymoon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inextricably</td>
<td>ethnocentric</td>
<td>regress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intercultural</td>
<td>high context culture</td>
<td>react</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>germane</td>
<td>low context culture</td>
<td>reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubiquitous</td>
<td>monochronic</td>
<td>innate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explicit</td>
<td>polychronic</td>
<td>myth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>implicit</td>
<td>ingrained</td>
<td>integrated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multidimensional</td>
<td>punctuality</td>
<td>adaptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enculturation</td>
<td>continuum</td>
<td>alteration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>socialization</td>
<td>rigid</td>
<td>traits</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3 Write a definition or give a synonymous word for the ones you have rated 5.  
4 Make a word web for as many words as you like.

**Definitions of Culture**

1. Working in a small group, create your own definition for “culture”.
2. Read the article on the definitions of culture and fill in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researchers</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


3. Which definition from the reading most closely matches your own?

4. Now that you have read seven definitions, rewrite or make changes to your own.

**Final Definition of Culture**


**Culture: Our Invisible Teacher**

An Example of an Introduction

Read the opening paragraphs to *Culture: Our Invisible Teacher* and answer the following questions with a colleague or a small group.

1. What kind of information does each paragraph provide?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paragraph 1</th>
<th>Paragraph 2</th>
<th>Paragraph 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

2. Identify the purpose of each paragraph.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paragraph 1</th>
<th>Paragraph 2</th>
<th>Paragraph 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
3. For each paragraph, is there a sentence that outlines the purpose of the paragraph? If so, underline it.

4. Do you think this is an example of an effective introduction? Discuss why or why not.


Stages of Culture Shock: Predicting Content

Source: http://highwaytohealth.com/travel_centre/student

Read the introduction to the article and the titles given to the 4 stages of culture shock. Use this information to predict what types of 'symptoms’ or behaviours characterize three of the stages. Make notes in the spaces below. Then compare your answers with your colleagues.

The Four Stages of Culture Shock
By Mary Anne Santoro Bellini, PhD

When a student or other individual relocates to a foreign country, he or she inevitably faces a host of emotions and reactions ranging from awe to rejection, isolation to assimilation. These emotions compromise the four stages of culture shock.

Honeymoon Period
While preparing to relocate and during the first days or weeks in the new country, a person will experience a Honeymoon Period during which he or she will feel extreme joy and enthusiasm. Responding to the new environment with fascination, an individual will enjoy the differences in fashion, food, social customs, etc. This period is exhilarating, full of observation and discoveries, lasting a few days to a few weeks. Like most honeymoons, however, this stage eventually ends.

Rejection

Regression and isolation

Adjustment and Adaption
The Four Stages of Culture Shock
By Mary Anne Santoro Bellini, PhD

When a student or other individual relocates to a foreign country, he or she inevitably faces a host of emotions and reactions ranging from awe to rejection, isolation to assimilation. These emotions compromise the four stages of culture shock.

Honeymoon Period

Rejection
The next phase of Culture Shock Syndrome is referred to as the period of Rejection. This stage is marked by criticism, resentment and anger. When an individual sets out to study, live or work in a new country, he/she will invariably experience difficulties with language, housing, friends, schoolwork and understanding idiosyncrasies of the local culture, often resulting in frustration. The Rejection period can be triggered by the realization that, as an outsider in a new culture, language or misunderstandings of cultural cues can often make the simplest task seem like a daunting challenge. Furthermore, because the high expectations set during the Honeymoon Period appear much farther out the reach, the individual can feel disillusioned.

Regression and isolation

Adjustment and Adaption

Stages of Culture Shock: Predicting Content

Source: http://highwaytohealth.com/travel_centre/student

Read the introduction to the article and the titles given to the 4 stages of culture shock. Use this information to predict what types of 'symptoms' or behaviours characterize three of the stages. Make notes in the spaces below. Then compare your answers with your colleagues.
Rejection

Regression and isolation
The extreme letdown experienced during the Rejection period prompts the individual to become critical of his/her new environment – of the people, their culture and of all the perceived differences with the culture at home. This letdown often propels an individual into the stage of Regression and Isolation. In this stage, the culture from which the individual has come is idealized. For example, an Italian student studying in the US for a semester may indiscriminately view his Italian university, past experiences or friendships as superior, regardless of any problems inherent to those relationships. The student risks further isolation from the new environment. Symptoms exhibited during this period include anxiety, sadness, homesickness and anger. These feelings manifest themselves in changes in behaviour: inappropriate anger over slight delays and minor frustrations, changes in sleeping patterns, compulsive eating and/or drinking, irritability, poor concentration and unexplainable crying. The stage of Regression and Isolation is variable in length but can last up to 6-8 weeks.

Adjustment and Adaption

Stages of Culture Shock: Predicting Content

Source: http://highwaytohealth.com/travel_centre/student

Read the introduction to the article and the titles given to the 4 stages of culture shock. Use this information to predict what types of 'symptoms' or behaviours characterize three of the stages. Make notes in the spaces below. Then compare your answers with your colleagues.

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Honeymoon Period

Rejection

Regression and isolation

Adjustment and Adaption
Gradually the crisis of regression and isolation is resolved allowing the individual to begin recovery in the Adjustment and Adaption stages. In these stages, the individual establishes
a routine and becomes more comfortable with the language and the customs of the new country. He/she may still have problems with some of the social cues and may still not understand everything people say. However, adjustment to the new culture is almost 90% and the realization sets in that no country is really superior to another – it is just a matter of different lifestyles. With this complete adjustment, the individual accepts the food, drinks, habits and customs of the new country and may even find him or herself preferring some things in the host country to things at home.

**Hall’s Classification of Cultures: Listening and Notetaking**

Use the following chart to take notes as you listen to the lecture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Cultures</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Definition)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Interpersonal relationships)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>(Personal space)</td>
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<td>(Time)</td>
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<td>(Disadvantages)</td>
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<td>(Advantages)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Cultures</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td><strong>Type 2</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>(Definition)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Interpersonal relationships)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>(Personal space)</td>
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<td>(Time)</td>
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<td>(Disadvantages)</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Advantages)</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Conclusions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hall's Classification of Cultures : Using your notes

Use your notes to answer the following questions. Then compare your answers with a colleague.

1. How does Hall define the following terms?
   a) high-context culture:
   b) low-context culture:

2. True or False?
   _____ a) Edward Hall believes that cultures are either high-context or low-context.
   _____ b) Edward Hall believes that most people are aware of their culture’s assumptions about time, space and interpersonal relations.
   _____ c) A culture in which who you know is more important than what you know would be a low-context culture.
   _____ d) “Business negotiations took place and the participants simply shook hands to finalize the deal.” This would be reasonable in a low-context culture.
   _____ e) Hall would predict that, generally, members of low-context cultures would not break the law due to the fact that they would not want to bring disgrace to their families.
   _____ f) A culture that values individuality would be a high-context culture.
   _____ g) Hall would predict that people in low-context cultures would prefer that visitors call before dropping by to visit.

3. What is the difference between a “polychronic” and a “monochronic” view of time? Define each view and give one example of how this view could affect one’s acts and attitudes in everyday life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Polychronic view of time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monochronic view of time</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. According to Hall, what are the advantages and disadvantages of a high-context culture and a low-context culture?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Disadvantages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High-context culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low-context culture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Give four examples of how Hall’s ideas could have relevance for international business negotiations.
   a) 
   b) 
   c) 
   d) 

**Rude Awakenings: Scanning for Details**

Quickly scan the article, Rude Awakenings, to find answers to the following questions.

1. What cultural faux pas did the following people commit?
   - Bill Clinton:
   - George Bush:

2. What kind of company is Multilingual Communications Management? What services does it provide?

3. What cultural ‘rules’ should be observed when travelling in the following countries?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Rules</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pre-Reading: PREDICTING**

Predict from the title, subtitles and caption what this article is about. Make brief notes on the right hand side, then share your predictions with your colleagues.

Cross-cultural communication – essential for shipboard safety

Knowledge of culture differences is of crucial importance. You cannot run a ship safely without a leadership, which has a mature understanding of these matters, says Bjarne S Eide, Director of Marine Personnel at Singa Ship Management in Oslo.
He was one of the popular speakers
Invited to the annual conference of WISTA
(Women’s International Shipping and Trading Association) in Oslo in September.

The “Lennart-syndrome”

Working together

Women’s status varies

Ask and smile

Cross-cultural Communication – Essential for Shipboard Safety

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Reading Challenge: In a limited time (15 minutes), scan the article to find answers to the following questions. Select the answer that is most accurate according to the information given in the article.

1. According to Bjarne S. Eide, in order to run a ship safely you need:
   a) good leadership,
   b) knowledge of cultural differences,
   c) expensive communication equipment,
   d) people and goods.

2. The main topic of the WISTA annual conference was:
   a) culture,
   b) communication,
   c) shipping as a high risk industry,
   d) women seafarers.

3. The tragic event of the murder of two Swedish captains might have been avoided, if:
   a) the Filipino crew-member spoke Swedish,
   b) the Swedish captains had understood Filipino culture,
   c) the Filipino crew-member had understood Swedish culture,
   d) the captains and the crew members all spoke the same language.

4. The “Lennart-syndrome” is an example of:
   a) an unusual cultural problem,
   b) a common cultural problem,
   c) a cultural problem with a common solution,
   d) a cultural problem with an unusual solution.

5. The workers decided to use their helmets and safety gear because:
   a) management threatened to send one worker home, if they didn’t,
   b) Lennart asked them to,
   c) safety regulations require them to wear this equipment,
   d) none of the above.

6. The CD – ROM “Working Together” was produced:
   a) by Wallenuis Lines and Broström,
   b) for foreign seafarers,
   c) by the Swedish Merchant Marine Officers’ Association,
   d) b and c.
7. Anette Paulsen Lovik gave up her dream of being a sea captain because of:
   a) lack of respect onboard a ship with a Polish crew,
   b) not being treated as an equal onboard a ship with a Norwegian-only crew,
   c) negative experiences onboard both ships,
   d) none of the above.


8. According to Anette, women who want to sail would benefit from:
   a) more women onboard,
   b) better education,
   c) an improved mentor-system,
   d) all of the above.

9. Mette Karina Thorpe is an expert in:
   a) Asian culture and business,
   b) Asian business practices,
   c) Asian people, culture and business,
   d) Asian people and culture.

10. In order to avoid cultural misunderstandings, Mrs. Thorpe suggests you:
    a) smile and ask when you are unsure of how to act,
    b) avoid asking yes/no questions,
    c) avoid asking about religion,
    d) a and b.


### Language Awareness

**Prepositions**

Fill in the missing prepositions using the ones given in the below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>for x3</th>
<th>over x1</th>
<th>into x2</th>
<th>aboard x2</th>
<th>between x2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>with x1</td>
<td>for x5</td>
<td>by x4</td>
<td>to x7</td>
<td>about x2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>of x10</td>
<td>in x7</td>
<td>from x3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While last week’s US government analysis _____ the Cosco Busan casualty was primarily _____ pointing the finger _____ blame _____ the incident, the larger message concerned, the improvements needed to prevent future calamities.

As always, the National Transportation Safety Board’s report comes _____ two parts, assessing the accident’s cause and making recommendations _____ the future.

NTSB members first assigned blame _____ the pilot, and many others, _____ the November 2007 incident _____ which the outbound container vessel sideswept a pier _____ the San Francisco Bay Bridge, causing more than $70M _____ damage. They then said that the lack _____ communication _____ the pilot and the ship’s captain, the master’s inattentiveness and poor training contributed _____ the collision that spilled _____ 178 tonnes _____ bunker fuel _____ the bay.
all, 30 separate issues were isolated as causative and there was plenty blame to spread the Coast Guard, state pilot controllers, the pilot’s doctor and others. The report pointed “cultural differences” as one factor that prevented the Asian captain intervening as the pilot steered the ship the bridge support. It also noted that poor communication the captain and pilot should not be repeated.

this case, there was no pre-departure conference and the pilot never shared, and wasn’t asked his intended plan to exit the fog-shrouded bay.

Language was another issue, and the fact that the crew spoke fluent English was isolated as a concern. Acknowledging a general ignorance the crew the vessel’s Safety Management System documents, the panel is asking the Coast Guard to suggest that the IMO mandate that safety manuals ship should be the crew’s native language.

While discussing the crew, the NTSB pointed long days, occupied watchkeeping and record-keeping duties precious little time rest and necessary training. Board member Robert Sumwalt even wanted to affix major blame the incident vessel manager Fleet Management because the poorly trained captain and crew.

To prevent other drug-addicted pilots taking ships’ helms, the NTSB asked the Coast Guard to compel mariners to update their medical files whenever conditions or medications changed – not just annually as is the case now. The board also urged better supervision pilots, who the US are overseen state officials and not the USCG.

Language Awareness Sentence Combining

Combine the following sets of sentences (1 – 9, 10 – 12, 13 – 15, 16 – 18 and 19 – 21) into 5 sentences.

1. The nobles of Sweden deposed of King Gustav IV.
2. This happened in 1809.
3. This happened in a peaceful revolution.
4. It was the last revolution in Swedish history.
5. The nobles of Sweden considered King Gustav IV incompetent.
6. They invited Jean Baptiste Bernadotte to become King of Sweden.
7. This was surprising.
8. He was a French general.
9. He had served under their enemy Napoleon.
10. Bernadotte accepted.
11. He became King Charles XIV.
12. His descendants occupy the Swedish throne to this day.
13. When the new King was installed, he addressed the parliament.
14. The parliament was Swedish.
15. He addressed them in their language.
16. His Swedish was broken.
17. This amused the Swedes.
18. They roared with laughter.
19. A Frenchman had become King.
20. He was very upset.
21. He never tried to speak Swedish again

Key
In a peaceful revolution – the last revolution in Swedish history – the nobles of Sweden in 1809 deposed of King Gustav IV, whom they considered incompetent, and surprisingly invited Jean Baptiste Bernadotte, a French general, who served under the enemy Napoleon, to become King of Sweden. Bernadotte accepted it and he became King Charles XIV; his descendants occupy the Swedish throne to this day. When the new King was installed, he addressed the Swedish Parliament in their language. His broken Swedish amused the Swedes, and they roared with laughter. The Frenchman who had become King was so upset that he never tried to speak Swedish again.

Writing under time pressure

Instructions:
- Take 20 minutes to read the writing prompt and plan your responses
- Take 60 minutes to write your responses
- Answer two questions; one from Part A and one from Part B

Part A:
1. Write a comparative analysis of your culture and Swedish culture based on hall’s classification system.
2. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of living and studying in a multi-cultural environment.

Part B:
3. “The growth in the multicultural manning of vessels during the last 20 years has been a positive development for the shipping industry”. Evaluate this statement, illustrating your answer with examples.

4. “Cultural influences from abroad have a negative impact on many countries and their inhabitants”. Evaluate this statement, illustrating your answer with examples.

Good Luck!

Inger Battista

Some thirty years as teacher, lecturer, curriculum designer, and Maritime English for academic purposes materials developer. Employed at WMU since 1984 and Coordinator of the English and Study Skills programmes since 2000.

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PRESENTATION
OF “MARITIME ENGLISH FOR SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH”

I am very happy to present my book “English for scientific research”, written last year and addressed to the masters of maritime engineering. At the 6th year of studies at Odessa National Maritime Academy the cadets have a special course of English designed to give them the necessary skills to read, understand and summarize original English scientific and technical texts while they are preparing their diploma thesis. The main idea of the book is to teach reading comprehension on a high level of original English texts, which were taken from the periodic publications such as MER, Lloyd’s Register, etc. magazines. The book actuates such vital topics as marine pollution prevention, reducing NOx emission, buffer zones, Hi Tech, monitoring methods, systematic overhaul, trouble spot in machinery space, digital electronics, bunkering problems, safety, etc.

Altogether the book consists of 18 units, each of which is dedicated to a given topic presented in the form of an original text, and in each unit 6 to 10 tasks are suggested, the idea of which is to form and train reading comprehension and summarizing skills. The tasks are diverse and include such training exercises as matching equivalents or definitions to the English terminological word combinations, choosing the most suitable heading from the given list to the text’s paragraphs, multiple choice testing for checking the comprehension of the text, writing a summary of the article, etc. Apart from a specific scientific topic discussed in each unit, there are some grammar notes and exercises, which are essential to a maritime scientific text: passive constructions, -ed and -ing forms of adjectives, contrasting, expressing reason, result and purpose, conditionals, peculiarities of using articles in a technical text, etc.

The book is organized so that its textual difficulty changes gradually and the last units are much more complicated than the first ones in the way of the texts presentation and the tasks suggested. While dealing with professional maritime and scientific publications the readers concentrate not only on the text messages but also on comprehending figures, diagrams and graphs, and that is why a special section of the book is dedicated to this.

“English for scientific research” has been used at the department of English at Odessa National Maritime Academy and has been approved of by the teachers and cadets.
Curriculum Vitae

Elena Nikoulina

- Candidate of Science (PhD) in Romance-Germanic Philology, Odessa State University, Ukraine, 1987;

Professional honours, awards, fellowships
- research work and attending the course in ESP at St. Mark & John College, Plymouth, UK, 1995;
- British council, Odessa branch, fellow member, 1995 – present;
- Oxford University Press English language Study Center, fellow member, senior teacher, Odessa, Ukraine, 1996 – present;
- Fulbright Scholar at Department of English as an International language, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (UIUC), 1998.

Professional appointments and teaching experience
- SENIOR Lecturer and ESP teacher, Odessa State Maritime Academy, Ukraine, 1981-1991;
- Ystad of the English Department, Odessa National Maritime Academy 1991 – present;
- taught maritime business English, all levels, and maritime business communication for marine engineers and electrical engineers;
- developed teaching materials for the courses taught and syllabi and curricula for maritime business class;
- does all kinds of administrative work;
- publications:
- language skills; near native English, native Russian and Ukrainian;
- computer skills.

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RE-INTRODUCING THE FUN ELEMENT / WEB 2.0 RESOURCES IN ME TEACHING

Abstract
Making use of modern web-based resources may help teachers develop their own methods on the basis of combining new technology with proven didactic approaches and standard teaching contents like SMCP as well as using the students existing joy and knowledge of the internet environment.

Keywords: web 2.0 resources, podcasts, forums, joint writing, productive activities

Curriculum Vitae

Uta Buttler
I have been working as a teacher of Maritime, Technical and Logistics English at the Department of Maritime Studies for 7 years now.

I graduated from Leipzig University in 1989 with a Diploma as an Adult Trainer of English for Special Purposes. Since then I have worked in various special fields of English, including shipbuilding, law and banking. I have been a member of GAME (Association of Maritime English) since 2004, where I presented workshops on internet resources and tools for Maritime-Technical English teaching in 2004 and on Maritime English project work in 2008.

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LIFE SUPPORT FOR THE SMCP: VOCABULARY ACTIVITIES TO HELP STUDENTS UNDERSTAND AND LEARN THE STANDARD MARINE COMMUNICATION PHRASES

Abstract

Rote memory is not a good way to get cadets to learn the huge vocabulary load required by the SMCP. Peter and his team have developed a number of novel techniques to make the vocabulary interesting and real for students. One of the first steps is showing cadets, who may have never been to sea, the importance of the SMCP. The lessons are life-like, fun and, best of all, effective.

This workshop will be dedicated to practical exercises to make learning the SMCP more fun for students. Today we will concentrate on a few of the various games and exercises that are listed below.

Teaching the SMCP is unique:
1. Teaching the SMCP is not like traditional language instruction. Normally, students are learning items of language and grammar rules that they will use in order to generate an infinite number of new structures. A student learns to go from ‘the coat is red’ to ‘the coat is blue’, ‘I am blue’. Then they become multi-lingual salesmen, write Hamlet, etc. However, most students studying the SMCP never use the SMCP vocabulary creatively (and don’t need to). The SMCP is not learnt the way language is usually learnt. A huge proportion of the material must be learnt by rote. None the less, the Maritime English (ME) teacher needs to make this potentially tedious process interesting for his students.
2. We are teaching vocabulary the students know but they probably won’t use. It would be impossible to create an authentic leaning environment for most of the SMCP.
3. For example: ‘I am under attack by pirates’.
4. With luck our students will never use this or other utterances written for emergencies. Naturally, many learners can’t be bothered to learn a lot of the material they think is unnecessary, so we have to add some interest to the lesson.
5. Students usually need self-access material. The vocabulary load of the SMCP is huge. Few schools can realistically dedicate the time necessary to teach the SMCP. Bearing in mind that learning the phrases is mandatory, that is a problem for ME teachers. The ME teacher can open the door to understanding and remembering the SMCP in class but we should also provide the student with the keys for self-study.
6. The following exercises are designed to create a relationship between the student and the target words as painlessly as possible. That may sound difficult or pretentious but these exercises can pump life into the SMCP and it does mean students learn the material. That is a good reason to experiment with these techniques.
7. The SMCP are obligatory. All watch officers are obliged to learn the SCMP by IMO regulation. In Italy, the IMO SCMP regulations are regarded as law. This has two effects on our teaching:
   a. The students are motivated to learn because they are obliged to know the phrases by IMO regulation.
   b. Students of different levels need to learn the same material. Confitarma, the ship owners’ association, members of IMO in Italy, shipping company lawyers often make decision for buying SMCP courses because they are afraid that an insurance company will refuse to pay in the event of an accident. Watch officers proficient with English in other areas are studying the same material as beginners so lessons should be aimed at different levels.

The following exercises can be applied to more than one part of the SMCP.

1. Spelling Warmers

1.1. Spelling

Most seamen know the IMO spelling but certain groups have problems with pronunciation. The rule we use is to teach the spelling ‘little and often’. The students need to practise the alphabet during every lesson until they have learnt it (usually easy) and the pronunciation, which can be very difficult for certain language groups. A minute or so, at the beginning or the end of each lesson, for three or four meetings usually gets the information across.

The following are basically simple repetition exercises dressed up with some student participation.

**SMCP Spelling 1(i): Marine Chants.**
The students stand and repeat the letters after the teacher five at a time. The teacher tells the students to repeat quietly, loudly, quickly, slowly. When the students are following the teacher’s lead the teacher reads the alphabet as a marine drill sergeant chants to his men during drills.

**SCMP Spelling 1(ii): Spell your favourite things.**
Tell the students to spell their names, favourite football teams etc. using the alphabet.

**SCMP Spelling 1(iii): Alphabet conversation.**
Students have short conversations to familiarise them with the target structure (IMO spelling, Procedure etc.) in an entertaining way. Instead of words the students use the target language in everyday conversations (in this case, it is often easier to demonstrate the procedure than to explain it). Students make everyday conversations substituting the usual vocabulary with the SMCP spelling/digits/numbers. The teacher explains the game and gives conversation topics:
‘Say hello and how are you / argue / ask a girl to dance and she refuses / someone in love at first sight’.

1.2. Spelling of digits and numbers

2i: Sums with digits and numbers
Teach the students plus + and minus – and ask them to set and answer problems using the SMCP digits and numbers.
2ii: Number conversation (as Alphabet conversation 2iii)
2iii:
In Italy, where the students are crazy about football, I sometimes get them to say imaginary football results using the SMCP selling and numbers.
E.g. Echo, November, Golf, Lima, Alpha, November, Delta – Niner
India, Tango, Alpha, Lima, Yankee – Zeero
(England 9 Italy 0)

2. Procedure

Procedure consists of only two phrases, and often the quickest way to teach them is to tell the students to learn them and check they have.
(90% of the deck officers on the last ship I was on did not know ‘Please use the Standard Marine Communication Phrases’, ‘I will use Standard Marine Phrases’)

Teachers can dress them up with:
3i Love at first sight

The teacher chooses pairs of students to practice the Procedure phrases at a class level. The teacher assigns the roles.
- Say the sentences as angrily/happily/quickly/aggressively/sexily/ as possible. The students read the sentences in the new roles.
- Imagine you are a DJ/the most important person in the school/in love at first sight/the sexiest seaman in the world/ and read the procedure phrases. The students read the sentences in the new roles.

3. Fillers

These exercises are ‘fillers’, one or two to be used for a couple of minutes in each lesson.

3.1. Pronunciation and listening

Pronunciation of SMCP terms in connected speech

Rationale One common complaint is that mariners don’t understand the pronunciation of individual SMCP vocabulary items (this leads to another deep ME teacher insecurity, teaching pronunciation). This lesson will help teach both.

Many students complain that they can understand SMCP vocabulary in the class but they can’t comprehend it at sea. I explain that many English words are pronounced in one way as individual words and another in connected speech.

I mention the reason but don’t go into detail unless the students are interested (i.e. English is stress-timed, the length of a sentence depends on the number of stresses [accents] it contains, not the number of syllables. To obey this rule, English mother tongue speakers change the pronunciation of words in connected speech). I find that students only want to know that many English words are pronounced in two ways – one individually and another in connected speech e.g.

The word ‘Goodbye’ is usually taught as it is pronounced – as an individual word ‘Goodbye’, but in connected speech it is pronounced ‘Goobpye’ /gud.bai/ /gub-!/.-!/ (there is no d). There are hundreds of examples. ‘Do you’ becomes ‘Dyou’, ‘and’ becomes ‘n’ (‘Rock n roll’). I use the following exercise to help familiarise students with pronunciation of SMCP terms in connected speech.
I tell the students we are going to do a short dictation and dictate the following sounds:

1. Je  
2. Ee  
3. Er  
4. E  
5. rra  
6. Jew  
7. I  
8. In  

I write them on the board as I say the sounds one at a time (I don’t use the IPA with students). I emphasise that we are listening to sounds and the student cannot make transcription mistakes. I ask the students if they recognise any of the sounds, then I read the phrases below and write them on the board so it looks as below. I point out that the word we learn as ‘dangerous’ is not the word we hear on the SMCP. We hear something like ‘dangrous’ etc.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>A1/1.1.3.3. What kind of assistance is required? /ˈeɪs.tənts/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>er</td>
<td>A1/3.2.1. I require boat for hospital transfer /ˈtraens.fə:/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eə</td>
<td>A1/3.2.4.1.1. Unchartered rock /ɪˈʃɑː.tə/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1/3.2.4.1.1. Unchartered dangerous wreck /rək/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jew /dʒu/</td>
<td>A1/2.1.2. What problems do you have? /dʒu/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In /ɪn</td>
<td>A1/3.1.2.1. What is visibility in your position? /ˈvɪzə.бл/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In</td>
<td>A1/3.1.3.2.1. Ice situation is not expected to improve /ɪnˈbruːv/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This exercise has proved very popular with Italian and Chinese cadets. I often get a huge positive reaction from students, who have never been shown that English words can be pronounced differently in connected speech. NB I point out that this exercise is to help comprehension not pronunciation. Some students try to pronounce like a mother tongue speaker.

I always follow this up with a homework that involves listening to something like ‘Safe Sailing’ CUP or even the IMO CD.

Pronunciation 2
In class, I follow up by getting the students to choose a vowel sound and present it to another student, e.g. the second ‘i’ in ‘visibility’ above. The student must say the i as it is pronounced in the word θ, not i as in the alphabet.

They pass this sound to another student who repeats the sound and then chooses another vowel sound to repeat and pass to their partner.

Pronunciation 3
I put a group of phrases that I want to teach on the board. I read them or play the CD and the students repeat without making any noise, i.e. they move their faces without speaking.
**Rationale** The students concentrate on the muscles they need for good pronunciation, and learn new vocabulary safe in the knowledge no one will notice a mistake. They can try verbalizing sounds with Pronunciation 4.

**Pronunciation 4**
The teacher chooses a series of utterances. For this exercise I have chosen:
A2/3 1.1. Propulsion System
A2/3 1.1.1. Is the engine a diesel or a turbine?
A2/3 1.1.2. Is the engine-room manned or is engine on bridge control?
A2/3 1.1.3. How long does it take to start engines from ahead to astern?
A2/3 1.1.5. Is extra power available in emergency?
A2/3 1.1.8. Do you have single propeller or twin propellers?
A2/3 1.1.11. What is the maximum power ahead?
A2/3 1.3.12.1. Do the twin propellers turn inward or outward when going ahead?

The teacher reads or plays the phrases, then selects a student to repeat the phrase after the phrase is spoken so the whole class must listen (ideally recording the answer). If the student indicates that they are satisfied with their pronunciation the teacher moves on to the next sentence. If the student indicates that they are not satisfied with their pronunciation the teacher plays the phrase, or repeats the phrase, again. The student decides if their pronunciation is good, not the teacher.

**One sentence**
The teacher divides the students into groups and distributes the target dialogue written as one sentence. The students divide the dialogues into words/sentences put in the punctuation and read the dialogue to the teacher who writes it on the board.

This can be used for speaking, listening and teaching all the vocabulary in the SMCP (this dialogue is to teach call sign, destination, arrival and how to make interrogatives in English).

In large groups they can’t all dictate to the teacher so I distribute two dialogues and students from group A dictate to group B, and vice versa.

*For example:* A1/61 Phrases for acquiring and providing data for a traffic image.
What is the name of your vessel and call sign? The name of my vessel is M.V. Mesaba call sign MMU.
Spell the name of your vessel. Mike, Echo, Foxtrot, Sierra, Alpha, Bravo, Alpha
What is your position? My position is 45.44N 10.24W
What is your port of destination? My port of destination is Genoa.
What was your last port of call? My last port of call was Naples.
What is your ETA in position 44 25 N, 8 57 E

**Answer**
What is the name of your vessel and call sign?
The name of my vessel is M.V. Mesaba call sign MMU.
Spell the name of your vessel.
Mike, Echo, Foxtrot, Sierra, Alpha, Bravo, Alpha
What is your position?
My position is 45.44N 10.24W
What is your port of destination?
My port of destination is Genoa.
What was your last port of call?
My last port of call was Naples.
What is your ETA in position 44 25 N, 8 57 E
Continuous Important Words and difficult words

Tell the students to choose five words they think are important to remember and five words that are difficult to remember. They write these words on a sheet of paper with their names. The teacher keeps the paper and returns it at the next lesson.

Rationale This exercise (which I learnt from Mario Rinvolucri at a British School seminar in the British schools) is to encourage the students to enter into a relationship with the vocabulary. The student decides where the problems are, and it is a very effective teaching aid which uses little time.

Message Markers

Substitute

Instruction, advice, warning, information, question, answer, repeat, intention.

Alternative word list:
objective, enquiry, response, say it again, data, caution, order, recommendation.

Elicit the message markers and write them on the board. Then distribute the alternative word list. Read the following passage and the students substitute the words from the alternative word list with the message markers.

Data from the coastguard contains a caution that the sea is rising. The Captain gave an order that speed must be reduced and a recommendation that passengers don’t go on deck. One of the tour guides made an enquiry to see if American passengers could be allowed ashore. The Captain’s response was that the US passengers should go ashore and stay ashore. The guide asked the Captain to say it again and the Captain said it was not his objective to talk to guides when he should be sailing his ship!

NB This exercise can be used for any important groups of 10 to 50 vocabulary items and the passage can be tailored to the required level. Of course, the passage can be used to pre-teach or revise other items on the syllabus (we used a similar exercise to teach the vocabulary of boilers). For students of a lower level the words can be written in the L1. It does require adding new non-SMCP vocabulary, but that can be useful if there is extra vocabulary the teachers wishes to include.

Follow up lesson for message markers

Listen to the following Distress traffic communications and decide which of these IMO SCMP message markers apply to the following phrases (instruction, advice, warning, information, question, answer, request, intention).

1. _______.What is the nature of the sea bottom?
2. _______.Stay in the area.
3. _______.MV Jolly Roger will follow you.
4. _______.Underwater obstruction position Latitude 44.5 Longitude 8.35
5. _______.I will stay in the area.
6. _______.How many persons will stay on board?
7. _______.No persons will stay on board.
8. _______.Stand bye on VHF.
9. _______.Your present air draught?
10. _______.I will increase my speed.
11. _______.I require a tug.
NB This exercise is taken from the International Examination of Basic SMCP Proficiency and is used with permission.

A1 External Communication Phrases

**Rationale** The external communication phrases are very similar and difficult to learn, beginners could make potentially fatal errors (I am on fire, I am flooding, I have collided, I have dangerous list, I am aground, etc.). In addition, the signal must begin with the Bearings, making it difficult to remember and harder to differentiate between the phrases.

Divide the class into groups of three and write on the board:
Distress Communication, SAR Communications, Requesting Medical Assistance.

Ask the class to write some distress traffic phrases under the correct heading, and then distribute these phrases on strips of paper.

1. I am on fire after explosions.
2. I cannot control flooding.
3. I have collided.
4. MV Optimist aground.
5. I am sinking.
6. MV Pessimist not under command.
7. I am under attack by pirates.
8. MV Warlord has problems with engines.
9. The crew of MV Jolly Roger has to abandon vessels after explosion.
10. I have lost persons overboard in position XXXXX.
11. My EPIRB is transmitting by mistake.
12. I require boat for hospital transfer.

Tell the students to classify the phrases according to category, i.e. Distress Communication, SAR Communications, Requesting medical assistance. For example:

**Hot seat 1**

One student sits facing the class with the board behind them, the teacher writes SMCP vocabulary on the board and the other students have to do all they can to make the person say that phrase. They can do this by giving hints, e.g. a context when the word might be used, a definition, another way of saying it etc.

**Battleships**

This is adapted from a traditional English children’s game (full details on http://www.amherstlodge.com/games/battleships.htm) and is a good game for beginner to pre-intermediate students to practise letter and number codes. Students work in pairs. The teacher distributes one grid to each student and students then secretly mark in their ‘ships’, in this case, words from the SMCP. The idea of the game is to detect and destroy your opponent’s ‘ships’.

Students take turns in giving a coordinate, e.g. B4 (or ‘Beta four’ in order to practise letter and number codes). If the coordinate is a hit, student says ‘hit’ and says the letter, if it is a miss, student says ‘miss’ and takes their turn.
The teacher prepares some phrases which they’d like to revise. The students are put into groups (one group per phrase) and each given a word from an SCMP. Students are then told to construct their phrases by standing in the correct order to recreate the sentence as a group, e.g. 4 people would do ‘I cannot control flooding’.

**Sentence order 2**

The teacher distributes parts of a dialogue to different members of the class. For large groups – large dialogues, for small groups – smaller dialogues etc. Each student reads a word and the teacher writes a word on the board. The idea is to guess the dialogue before all the words are read.

The teacher marks the spaces for the words on the board.

______  ______  ______  ______  ______  ?
______  ______  ______  ______  ______  ______

The above is for:
A1/3.3.10. Can you identify the polluter?
A1/3.3.10.1. Yes, I can identify the polluter – Polluter is MV Jolly Roger.

**Hangman**

Traditional children’s game easily adapted for SMCP vocabulary. Remember to insist the students use SMCP pronunciation for the spelling.

**Find someone who ... (has the response to your SMCP).**

The teacher makes pairs of cards which consist of two-line SMCP dialogues. The teacher hands out one card to each person in the class (making sure that both cards in each pair have been given to someone). The class mills about saying the SMCP on their card to each person they meet until they find their ‘partner’ (the person who has the response card).

E.g. Must I take tugs? No, you need not take tugs.
Curriculum Vitae

Stephen Murrell

- he began his career in the film industry and then became a higher education teaching lecturing in Communications;
- worked as an English teacher in Germany, Greece and Italy and opened his own school, the English Conversation Club, in 1986 to apply his ideas about the importance of humanistic teaching. The new methodology was very successful and it was applied to a variety of original courses that developed the idea that learning English was natural and pleasant;
- wrote and administered the Italian state railways scheme to teach commuters English;
- worked on board ships all over the Mediterranean and transatlantic ships for nine years;
- introduced informative articles in English to three national publications and began ‘edutainment’ English courses for cruise ship passengers (Costa, and Festival);
- still works with Touring Club Italia organizing and training teachers for entertainment courses. He has been teaching maritime English since 1997;
- founded the Training Company srl to apply the ideas developed for student participation in the language learning to occupational training. In addition to teaching languages, the TTC uses humanistic methodology for other maritime training problems (engineers, stewards, deck officers, bridge team management). The Training Company works or has worked with ACME Training Confitarma (the Italian Ship-owners Association), Costa Cruises, Festival Cruises, GNV, K line Le Navi, Messina Shipping, Princess Cruises, Premuda Shipping, the Italian Maritime Academy, Fratelli Cosulich, etc.;
- is involved in trying to create an international recognised examination in the SMCP.

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AUTHENTIC MATERIAL IN TEACHING MARITIME ENGLISH:
AN ACCIDENT AT SEA

Abstract
Using authentic and up-to-date materials is of great importance for students’ acquisition of maritime vocabulary. Reading about a recent accident, that student has already heard about, makes learning more motivating (he/she wants to know what actually happened) and more effective (it is easier to remember new words when they appear in a real language and in an interesting context).

The aim of the workshop is to demonstrate how to use the latest piece of news from a news site to teach maritime vocabulary and grammar.

Keywords: questions, matching words to definitions, role-play, true or false statements, providing definitions, Passive Voice

The workshop objective is to demonstrate how to use a real, authentic material, in this case a BBC NEWS report taken from http://newsvote.bbc.co.uk, to introduce a scope of words and phrases related to the language concerning marine accidents with a stress on rescue operations, and to revise or improve the use of the Passive Voice.

1. Speaking and Reading

1.1. Speaking
Have you heard about any accidents at sea lately?
What happened to the ship and the crew?

Pre-reading task
Work in pairs. Look at the photos and answer the questions.
1. Where was the ship when the accident happened?
2. Why did the crew have to be rescued?
3. How was the crew rescued?

1.2. Reading
I. Scan reading
Read the text quickly to find the answers to the questions in the pre-reading task. Were your guesses right?

II. Comprehension check
Read the article and answer the questions below.
1. What kind of ship is the MSC *Napoli*?
2. Did any crew member suffer any major injuries?
3. How many helicopters airlifted the crew?
4. What was the weather like at the time of the rescue?
5. What kind of cargo is the *Napoli* carrying?
6. What damage did the ship suffer?
7. What nationalities are the crew members?
8. What is the current plan to salvage the vessel?

### Crew rescued from stricken ship

A crew consisting of 26 people has been rescued from a damaged British container ship in the English Channel 50 miles (80km) off the Lizard in Cornwall. The crew of the MSC *Napoli* abandoned ship after it got into difficulties. No one suffered any major injuries. The 62,000-tonne vessel took in water through a hole in its side as it made its way through the Channel. Two helicopters from RNAS Culdrose airlifted all the crew in the French coordinated rescue.

Falmouth Coastguard received a distress call from the *Napoli* at about 1030 GMT after a 1m by 0.5m (3ft by 1ft 6in) hole in its starboard side started letting in water. The crew of the 275m-long ship (900ft), owned by Mediterranean Shipping Company, abandoned ship for a lifeboat.

Despite storm force winds, the Royal Navy aircraft, from 771 Search and Rescue Squadron, were able to hover above the crew’s lifeboat and perform the rescue in what was described by the rescuers as “pretty horrific” conditions. Weather on scene was south-westerly severe gale force nine (more than 50mph), with 8m to 9m (26ft to 30ft) swells. The first Culdrose helicopter took about 45 minutes to airlift 13 of the crew before heading back to Cornwall. The second aircraft brought back the remainder. One pilot, Capt. Damian May, said his aircraft nearly had to surf the waves. He said: “Once we come alongside the lifeboat, the waves and the swell were up to 50ft, which effectively meant we were going up and down 50ft in the dips of the swell and the top of the waves while we were trying to maintain station on the lifeboat.”

### 'Dangerous' cargo

The mixed nationality crew includes two young British cadets, as well as crew members from Bulgaria, Ukraine, Turkey, India and the Philippines. The *Napoli* is carrying about 2,400 containers, although its capacity is more than 4,400. The European Maritime and Safety Agency said the vessel was listed as carrying “dangerous cargo”, but coastguards said a small proportion of the containers was believed to contain insecticides and pesticides. The ship is now in a stable position 45 miles (72km) south east off the Lizard and a salvage contract has been agreed.

Robin Middleton, leading the coastguard salvage response unit, said: “The emergency towing vessel *Anglian Princess* and a French tug are on scene. A French salvage team is being transferred onto the *Napoli* by helicopter and will assess the stability and integrity of the vessel to decide if the vessel can be towed. The current plan is to tow the vessel to a port and discharge the cargo ashore.”

Although the ship was holed in its starboard side, it is listing to port. Falmouth coastguards said that may mean she will not sink. Apart from the hole on the vessel’s side, the ship also suffered a flooded engine. All vessels in the area are being warned that they should avoid her.
The 16-year-old vessel was registered in London, and was last inspected by the Maritime and Coastguard Agency in May 2005, when officials said it met safety standards.

Story from BBC NEWS

2. Vocabulary

Work in pairs. Match the words or phrases on the left to their definitions on the right.

1) to suffer major injuries a) to make a judgement about the ship's condition of being steady
2) to airlift b) to unload
3) to abandon c) to experience very large damage
4) a distress call d) a contract to save a ship from being more damaged
5) severe gale force e) to pull a ship along behind another ship using a rope or a chain
6) a swell f) to take people to an area by plane
7) a salvage contract g) the way the sea moves up and down
8) to tow h) a message sent from a ship asking for help
9) to assess the stability i) to leave
10) to discharge j) extreme power of a very strong wind

3. Grammar

3.1. Passive voice

I. Find examples of sentences in the text in which the Passive Voice is used. Example: A salvage contract has just been agreed.
Revise the rules concerning verb forms in the Passive Voice.

II. Work in pairs. Find five sentences in the article which can be transformed from the Active into the Passive.

Example: the Active: Falmouth Coastguard received a distress call.
the Passive: A distress call was received by Falmouth Coastguard.

III. Put questions to five sentences in the text which are already in the Passive Voice.

3.2. Speaking

I. Role-play

Work in pairs, A and B.

A: You are a BBC reporter talking to Capt. Damian May. You want to know all the possible details of the accident and the rescue operation.

B: You are Capt. Damian May, a pilot of one of the helicopters. Answer the reporter’s questions.
II. True or false competition

Work in two groups. Each team has to prepare five statements based on the article. The task of the other team is to say whether the statements are true or false. The team with higher amount of right answers wins. Students can look into the article only when preparing the statements.

III. Vocabulary revision

Work in pairs. Choose a word or a phrase you have just learned from the article and provide your own definition of it. Let the others guess, which word or phrase you have in mind.

4. Additional task

Students are given sentences to translate from their native language into English as their homework. The sentences, which could be both in the Active and the Passive Voice, should contain words and phrases from the article.

Curriculum Vitae

Jolanta Kielbratowska

- 1983 – 1988 – University of Gdansk, Faculty of Languages;
- 1988 – MA in English Philology;
- 1997 – 2000 – Gdynia Maritime University, lecturer of English at Faculty of Marine Electrical Engineering;
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Abstract
Whether you are a large institution wanting to test and group hundreds of students at the same time or an individual student wanting to check your level of English, this new and robust testing and learning management system can deal with all those demands and provide you with a time saving and reliable device for online testing.

Curriculum Vitae

Ewa Rumistrzewicz

- has been a teacher trainer for over 10 years;
- she specializes in teaching practical phonetics and developing speaking skills in adult learners;
- as a Teacher Training Manager at Oxford University Press, she is responsible for developing teacher training programmes as well as preparing presentations for teachers;
- her main professional interests are current trends in ELT.
EXPRESS, AND DO IMPRESS! INTEGRATING ONLINE TECHNOLOGY IN TEACHING MARITIME ENGLISH

Abstract
In nowadays digital era, some Maritime English teachers may feel cast away by the idea that their younger students are regular users of different technology tools that invade the market on daily basis, whereas the teachers themselves are struggling to manage their way and keep up with this digital era. However, the old saying “express, do not impress!” is no longer valid.

The aim of this workshop is to familiarize Maritime English teachers with some of the free-of-charge on-line technological tools, which they can integrate in their classes – not only to express, but also to impress – in order to build rapport with their students and to keep them engaged inside and outside of the classroom. These tools include Blogs, Podcasts, Web quests, instant messaging software, e-mail, Twitter, different Tubes, Moodle, Sloodle and Second Life. The workshop will focus on hands-on learner-centered activities on how effectively teachers can use one or two of these in class – as time permits.

Keywords: technology tools, mind mapping, blogs, instant messaging, podcasts, virtual tours, online quizzes, learner-centered activities

Workshop Objectives
To familiarize Maritime English teachers with some of the free-of-charge online technological tools which they can integrate in their classes in order to build rapport with their students and to keep them engaged inside and outside of the classroom.

Workshop Content
The assignment for the participants is to develop and utilize Mind Maps, Online Quizzes, Blogs, Podcasts, Virtual Tours, and instant messaging, in learner-centered activities in and out of class – as time permits.

Workshop Requirements
All participants should have their personal laptops (or PCs provided by IMEC) with high speed Internet access and valid e-mail accounts for websites registration. The presenters need a data show and high speed Internet access.

Workshop Links and websites
The following links will be used during this workshop:
Mind Maps
http://www.mindmeister.com/
http://web.dropmind.com/ (for offline)
On-line quizzes
http://www.proprofs.com/
Blogs
   http://www.weebly.com/
On-line Reading and marking
   http://www.diigo.com
Podcasts
   http://epnweb.org/
   http://audacity.sourceforge.net/
   http://www.conversationsnetwork.org/levelator
Virtual Tours
   http://www.pbs.org/wgbh/nova/subsecrets/
Instant messaging
Yahoo messenger
Windows Live Messenger
Skype

Curriculum Vitae

Heba Saber El-Sayed, PhD

– currently associate lecturer;
– works at the Institute for Language Studies in the Arab Academy for Science, Technology & Maritime Transport, Egypt;
– she is the supervisor of the Maritime English Programme;
– has taught different ESP courses for almost ten years;
– holds a Masters Degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) from the American University in Cairo;
– has an interest in material development, testing, teaching writing, and instructional technology.

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Ghada Hozayen – see page no. 149.

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TEACHING MARITIME ENGLISH-EXPLOITING AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

Abstract

The aim of the workshop is to demonstrate different ways of using authentic materials to be encountered in the work of a seafarer. The materials in question comprise marine accidents reports available online, VHF communications, sailing directions, legal documents used in shipping, safety and/or security instructions. The authors present a wide range of language activities aiming at practising basic language skills. The authors expect the participants to get involved in the activities suggested and, hopefully, to provide some contributions on the basis of their previous language teaching experience.

Keywords: authentic materials, language activities, interaction

1. A Close Quarters Situation

Narrative

A large passenger ship was transiting the south west lane of a Traffic Separation Scheme (TSS), steaming at 21 knots at night in good visibility.

A cross-channel ferry was departing port to head for the continent. Once clear of the breakwater, the ferry’s master assessed the traffic in the TSS before deciding how to cross it. He observed both visually and on radar the passenger ship on his port side at the range of 6 miles, almost on a steady bearing, which would result in the two vessels passing very close to each other in 12 minutes.

The ferry’s master decided to set his course and speed to make it clear that his was the stand-on vessel, and that the passenger ship was the give-way vessel. Once steady on course the master handed over to the OOW, remaining on the bridge to monitor the developing situation.

The passenger ship’s bridge team for the transit of the strait consisted of a senior OOW, a junior OOW and a lookout. For the transit of the TSS, the team was supplemented by the deputy master, who was observing and chatting to the senior OOW. The senior OOW noted the ferry’s departure from port, but he did not discuss this with the other bridge team members as he was engaged in conversation with the deputy master. The senior OOW, himself an experienced ferry officer, expected the ferry to set a course to pass clear around the passenger vessel’s stern, and his subsequent monitoring of the ARPA failed to identify that the ferry’s bearing was almost steady.

Acting in accordance with the COLREGS, the ferry’s OOW maintained his course and speed (18 knots) as he and the master monitored the actions of the passenger ship. Noting that the passenger vessel was not giving way, they repeatedly signalled, using five or more short flashes by Aldis Lamp to indicate they were unsure of her intentions. As the distance between the two vessels closed to 2 miles, with the anticipated passing distance being 0.3 mile, the
ferry’s master considered that the passenger ship was taking insufficient action to avoid a collision, and instructed the OOW to reduce speed to around 12 knots.

As the passenger ship passed 0.6 mile ahead of the ferry, the ferry’s master called the passenger ship by VHF radio to advise them of his actions and to give his opinion on the apparent poor seamanship of the passenger vessel’s bridge team.

The Lessons

1. The passenger ship’s bridge team did not effectively assess the risk of collision with the approaching ferry, so they/it took no action as the give-way vessel. Specifically: The senior OOW’s mistake in not identifying the risk of collision went unnoticed by the other bridge team members as they were not communicating effectively. The ship’s deputy master was not integrated into the team and his presence probably hindered, rather than helped, the bridge team. Neither the junior OOW nor the lookout supported the team in alerting the senior officers to the approaching danger. Effective bridge teams require more than additional personnel; successful communication can be achieved only when each team member is fully aware of their role.

2. In choosing how to cross the TSS, the ferry’s master had the option to avoid a close quarters situation developing. However, he chose to act as the stand-on vessel and so created the risk of the two vessels colliding.

3. By the time it was apparent to the ferry’s master that the passenger vessel was taking no action to avoid a collision, the vessels were only 2 miles apart and closing at 25 knots. Had the passenger ship altered course to starboard as the ferry slowed down, the situation would have become confusing and the risk of collision significantly increased.

1.1. A Close Quarters Situation

Exercise 1. What do these abbreviations mean?
- TSS - ..........
- OOW - ..........
- ARPA - ..........
- COLREGS - ...........

Exercise 2. Work in pairs and explain the following (you can make drawings to illustrate your explanations):
- stand-on vessel
- give-way vessel
- crossing vessel
- be on a steady bearing
- a close quarters situation
- traffic lane

Exercise 3. Work in pairs and answer the question: Is effective communication among bridge team members important? Why/Why not?

Exercise 4. Read the narrative quickly and answer the questions:
- a. What happened? .................................................................
- b. Why did the incident happen? .............................................
Exercise 5. Read the narrative again. Mark the statements true (T) or false (F). Correct the false ones.

a. The ferry’s master assessed the traffic situation in the TSS when the ferry was still in port.
b. He used only the radar to locate the passenger ship.
c. The ferry’s master realized that the outcome of the developing situation could be dangerous for both ships.
d. The ferry maintained her speed and course.
e. When the ferry’s OOW took over the watch, the master left the bridge.
f. There were four people on the passenger ship’s bridge.
g. The senior OOW on the passenger ship communicated effectively with other members of the bridge team.
h. The ferry violated the COLREGS.
i. The ferry knew exactly what the intentions of the passenger vessel were.
j. It was the ferry’s master who took avoiding action.

Exercise 6. Work in pairs and answer the question: What could have been done to prevent the incident? Then read The Lessons and compare your ideas.

Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the words/expressions given below. Mind the correct verb forms.

to transit         to depart          to be clear          to remain            to assess            to steam

a. We were …………… at 20 knots during the day in good visibility when suddenly we heard a loud bump down in the engine room.
b. Is this the first time you have …………… this canal?
c. Watchkeepers have to …………… at stations until further orders are given.
d. All cruise ships arrive at the island at 0800 hrs and …………… at 1900 hrs.
e. The pilot disembarked when the ship …………… of the breakwater.
f. The OOW did not …………… the risk of collision correctly, so he took no avoiding action.

to be supplemented       to head       to set      to consist      to be engaged         to alert

g. The ferry left the terminal at 2000 hrs and …………… for Ystad.
h. On our vessel the deck crew …………… of 10 people.
i. A seafarer has to remember that his theoretical knowledge should …….. by practical experience.
j. Coastal stations …………… mariners to dangers.
k. When a fishing vessel …………… in fishing, she exhibits special lights.
l. The tanker …………… her course to give a wide berth to the derelict vessel.

Exercise 8. Read the last paragraph of the narrative again. Work in pairs. Write and then act out the VHF conversation between the ferry’s master and the master of the passenger ship.
2. CASE 7 When “One Hand for the Ship and One Hand for Yourself” Wasn’t Enough


Narrative

A 16m, twin screw pilot launch was tasked to disembark a pilot from an 81m general cargo ship. Both vessels were heading on an easterly course and the offshore, westerly, near gale force winds were producing 1-1.5 metre seas from astern. It was winter and it was dark.

The pilot launch settled starboard side alongside the cargo vessel’s pilot ladder, which was rigged on the ship’s port side just forward of the after accommodation. Because the pilot had told the pilot launch’s coxswain that he wished to disembark as quickly as possible, due to the poor weather conditions, the deckhand went out on deck before the pilot was sighted. The deckhand waited for the pilot at the forward part of the launch, with one arm wrapped around the pulpit rail, while holding the pilot ladder with his other hand. The pilot ladder had been rigged such (so) that it was nearly 2 metres too long. The deckhand had not secured his harness to the travelling rail and light spray was being shipped over the pilot launch’s bows.

Without warning, the pilot launch’ bow dipped into the trough of a wave and a large amount of water was shipped over forward. The coxswain’s immediate reaction was to reduce the speed on both engines, but the water travelled up even further along the launch. The coxswain stopped both engines and the cargo vessel moved ahead. During these events, the pilot, who was still on board the cargo vessel, and the coxswain, lost sight of the deckhand and realised that he had been washed overboard. The coxswain immediately made a “man overboard” broadcast on VHF radio, which the VTS duty officer responded to by alerting the RNLI and the local paramedics. The broadcast was also heard by a second pilot launch, which was close astern of the first pilot launch.

The coxswain very quickly saw the casualty in the water by the reflective tape and light on his lifejacket. He manoeuvred the launch as close as possible downwind of the casualty, but because the coxswain was alone, rescuing him proved very difficult. The second pilot launch arrived on scene, and a pilot and a deckhand were able to lasso the casualty, bring him alongside and lift him on board. The casualty had been in the water for about 6 minutes.

The casualty was landed ashore and taken to hospital. He was released later that day and was able to return to work.

The Lessons

1. The casualty was very fortunate that he sustained no injuries after he was washed off the deck, especially from the propellers. This illustrates the great value of the crew’s harness being attached to the travel rail on board pilot launches while embarking or disembarking pilots. The harness equipment is provided for the crew’s safety, and they should use it.

2. By applying knowledge gained from a sea survival course, the deckhand prolonged his survival time and delayed the onset of hypothermia by keeping his limbs close to his body and remaining still to conserve body heat.

3. Stern seas can help reduce excessive rolling when carrying out embarkation or disembarkation operations. However, there is always the possibility of the stern being picked up by a wave, causing the bow to become submerged in a trough and endangering any deckhand standing forward. Coxswains and pilots should always be aware of this danger.
4. Ships’ officers are reminded that a pilot ladder should be rigged so that it is not too long
and so that the bottom meets the deck of the pilot launch. This will prevent damage to the
ladder and will avert a trip hazard to the pilot from the excess length lying on the deck.
Additionally, if a pilot ladder is rigged to the correct length, the deckhand will not be re-
quired to hold it. Instead, he will be able to concentrate on his prime role – that of assisting
with the safe embarkation/dismbarkation of the pilot.

2.1. When “One Hand for the Ship and One Hand for Yourself” Wasn’t Enough
MAIB Safety Digest 1/2007 CASE 7

Exercise 1. Look at the title. What do you think one hand for the ship and one hand for your-
self means?

Exercise 2. Work in pairs. Answer the following questions: How can a pilot embark a vessel?
What must be remembered when rigging a pilot ladder?

Exercise 3. Read the narrative quickly and answer the questions:
a. What happened? ………………………………………………………………………....
b. Why did the accident happen? ……………………………………………………….....

Exercise 4. Read the narrative again. Put the statements below in the correct order to make
a summary of the events.
a. A ‘man overboard’ broadcast was made on VHF.
b. On board the pilot launch the deckhand went out on deck before the pilot was sighted
   and waited for him there. He had not secured his harness and the seas were high.
c. The pilot launch’s coxswain reduced the speed.
d. The deckhand was rescued after about 6 minutes by another pilot launch, which had re-
   ceived the ‘man overboard’ broadcast and proceeded for assistance.
e. A pilot wished to disembark a general cargo vessel as quickly as possible due to unfa-
   vourable weather conditions.
f. The coxswain spotted the deckhand in the water, but as he was alone, he couldn’t recover
   him.
g. The pilot, who was still on board the cargo vessel, and the coxswain, lost sight of the deck-
   hand.
h. The pilot launch’s bow dipped into the trough of a wave and the water started to ship
   over the launch.
i. The coxswain stopped the engines.

Exercise 5. Work in pairs and answer the question: What could have been done to prevent the
accident? Then read The Lessons and compare your ideas.

Exercise 6. Look at the Narrative and The Lessons again. Find synonyms (=) and antonyms
(≠) of the words/expressions given below.
Antonyms (≠) and synonyms (=) to be looked for in the Narrative:
a. to embark ≠ ……………
b. onshore winds ≠ ……………
c. the ridge of a wave ≠ ……………
d. a helmsman = ……………
e. to spot = ……………
f. a pilot boat = ……………
g. a response = ……………
h. bands used to hold sb or stop them from falling = ……………
i. to clasp one’s arm around = ……………
j. on land = ……………

Antonyms (≠) and synonyms (=) to be looked for in The Lessons:

k. hands and legs = ……………
l. disembarkation ≠ ……………
m. harm = ……………
n. to suffer = ……………
o. fastened, connected = ……………
p. to obtain, to acquire = ……………
q. to make longer, to extend = ……………
r. to emerge ≠ ……………
s. to prevent = ……………
t. the beginning (of illness) = ……………

Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the following verbs in their correct form:

to be tasked to ship water to dip into to be washed to lose to respond to lasso to release

a. He …………… the man in the water, brought him alongside and lifted him on board.
b. If you see someone overboard, maintain a visual contact with him/her. If you …………… sight of him/her, it will be difficult to locate them again.
c. We …………… with repairing the bilge pump by tomorrow.
d. You’d better secure your harness if you do not want …………… overboard.
e. The MRCC …………… by sending a helicopter to the vessel in distress.
f. The vessel was holed below waterline and was …………… quickly.
g. In order to let this line go you have to …………… the brake.
h. A large wave surged up towards them and the bow of the yacht …………… the sea.

Exercise 8. Match the words/expressions to their definitions.

boarding arrangements spreader accommodation ladder leeward
boarding speed

……………………………… – the speed of a vessel adjusted to that of a pilot boat at which the pilot can safely embark / disembark
……………………………… – all equipment, such as pilot ladder, accommodation ladder, hoist, etc., necessary for a safe transfer of the pilot
……………………………… – ladder attached to platform at vessel’s side with flat steps and handrails enabling persons to embark/disembark form water or shore
……………………………… – step of a pilot ladder which prevents the ladder form twisting
……………………………… – on or towards the sheltered side of a ship; opposite of windward
(All definitions taken from IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases, IMO London 2002)
Exercise 9. On the basis of your knowledge and hands-on experience prepare a short description of boarding arrangements regarding the rigging of a pilot ladder and embarking/disembarking a pilot. Use some of the vocabulary and expressions suggested below:

(Always) Remember to ...
Do not ...
Make sure you ...
You must ...
... must not be ...
The distance between ... and ... must be ...
It can be dangerous if ...
... must comply with ...
(You have to/must) Stand by ...
Rig the pilot ladder (on port side/starboard side/alongside hoist)
Move ...
At night put lights on ...
Have ... ready
Make a lee ...

heaving line; manropes; boarding speed; accommodation ladder; broken steps; loose steps; broken spreaders; pilot ladder too long/short; SOLAS regulations; boarding arrangements

3. CASE 8 Dangerous Cargo – it Did What it Said on the Tin

**MAIB Safety Digest 1/2009** (the Narrative and the Lessons taken from:
http://www.maib.gov.uk/publications/safety_digest.cfm

**Narrative**

A 20 foot container was stowed on top of a 30-tonne tank container. When the 20 foot container was lifted during discharge, the automatic midlocks securing the container to the tank container did not immediately disengage as designed. Consequently, the tank container was lifted between 30cm and 50cm before it dropped back to deck. The impact caused the tank frame to buckle and resulted in the release of a small quantity of the tank’s contents. The crew immediately plugged the deck scuppers and spread sawdust over the deck to absorb the spilled liquid. The chief officer quickly identified the contents of the tank as hydrogen peroxide, and consulted the appropriate substance information sheet on the ship’s dangerous cargo database. The master informed the shore authorities of the spillage while the crews were mustered on the poop deck; the ship’s ventilation was also isolated. As no inert absorbent material was carried on board, additional sawdust was spread around the container by the crew wearing positive pressure breathing apparatus, rubber gloves and boots. Approximately 15 minutes after the spillage, the local emergency services arrived and established an exclusion zone around the vessel. Several of the crew were medically examined by shore-based medical staff and, although an AB was sent to hospital for tests, there were no injuries.

Following inspection, the tank was transferred ashore and, shortly afterwards, the sawdust on the deck was swept up and put into open plastic containers. These were then placed with the SOPEP equipment in the foc’le store. Before leaving the vessel, the local emergency services advised the vessel that sawdust was not an appropriate absorbent material to deal with IMO class 5.1 oxidising agents such as hydrogen peroxide due to the risk of self-ignition.
About 1 hour after the sawdust had been cleared, smoke was seen coming from the foc’sle store. The alarm was raised and the crews were again mustered on the poop deck. Two firefighting teams, wearing breathing apparatus and fire suits, fought the fire using water hoses, and it was extinguished approximately 20 minutes after being discovered. The local emergency services cleared the compartment of smoke and inspected the damage. The fire was started by the self-ignition of the hydrogen peroxide-impregnated sawdust, which generated oxygen and heat as it decomposed. All of the contaminated sawdust which had not been burned was taken ashore and disposed of as hazardous waste.

The Lessons

1. The inadvertent release of a harmful substance usually requires immediate action to be taken. However, if such action is not in accordance with the guidance provided in the IMDG Code Emergency Schedules (EmS), the possibility of injury to personnel, harm to the environment, and damage to the vessel is increased considerably. In this case, the applicable schedule recommends that hydrogen peroxide be washed overboard using water hoses, or absorbed with an inert material – NOT sawdust. Had either of the recommended measures been taken, the subsequent fire would have been prevented.

2. The spillage of a dangerous substance cannot be safely dealt with if the equipment recommended in the IMDG Code is not carried, or if insufficient quantities are held. Has your company given any thought to what might be required to deal with the substances carried?

3. Materials impregnated with a harmful substance following a spillage are liable to be hazardous in a number of ways, and therefore must be treated with extreme caution. Disposal ashore – at the earliest opportunity – is the easiest way of minimising the exposure to any risk.

3.1. Dangerous Cargo – it Did What it Said on the Tin

Exercise 1. Read the quotation. Then complete the sentence.
‘The carriage of dangerous goods and marine pollutants in sea-going ships is respectively regulated in the I…………… C…………… for the S…………… of the L…………… at S…………… (SOLAS) and the I…………… C…………… for the P…………… of P…………… from S…………… (MARPOL).’

Source: www.searates.com/reference/imo

Exercise 2. Read the quotation.
‘For all modes of transport (sea, air, rail, road and inland waterways) the classification (grouping) of dangerous goods, by type of risk involved, has been drawn up by the UNITED NATIONS Committee of Experts on the Transport of Dangerous Goods (UN).’

Source: www.searates.com/reference/imo

Can you match the names of dangerous goods to their classes and complete the table?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class 1</th>
<th>Class 2</th>
<th>Class 3</th>
<th>Class 4.1</th>
<th>Class 4.2</th>
<th>Class 4.3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Class 5.1.
Class 5.2.
Class 6.1.
Class 6.2.
Class 7.
Class 8.
Class 9.
- Corrosives;
- Gases;
- Flammable Solids or Substances;
- Infectious Substances;
- Oxidizing substances (agents) by yielding oxygen increase the risk and intensity of fire;
- Toxic Substances;
- Explosives;
- Flammable Solids;
- Radioactive Substances;
- Miscellaneous Dangerous Substances and Articles;
- Flammable Liquids;
- Substances which, in contact with water, emit flammable gases;
- Organic peroxides-most will burn rapidly and are sensitive to impact or friction.

Exercise 3. Work in pairs and answer the questions:
- What does IMDG Code stand for and what is its role?
- What does SOPEP stand for and what is its role?

Exercise 4. Read the narrative quickly and answer the questions:
- What happened? ..............................................................
- Why did the incident happen? ...........................................

Exercise 5. Read the narrative again. Work in pairs and answer the questions.
- Where was the 30-tonne tank container stowed?
- Why was the tank container lifted before it dropped back?
- Why did the tank’s contents leak?
- How did the crew deal with the leakage?
- What did the chief officer do?
- What did the master do?
- Did any of the crewmembers suffer?
- Why was the sawdust not appropriate to deal with hydrogen peroxide?
- Where did the fire break out?
- How was the fire fought?
- What was the fire caused by?

Exercise 6. Work in pairs and answer the question: What could have been done to prevent the fire? Then read The Lessons and compare your ideas.
Exercise 7. Complete the sentences with the following verbs in their correct forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>to be stowed</th>
<th>to disengage</th>
<th>to drop</th>
<th>to buckle</th>
<th>to plug</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>to spread</td>
<td>to absorb</td>
<td>to establish</td>
<td>to sweep up</td>
<td>to be disposed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. You have to ................ the gears before you start the car.
b. All waste must be ................ of in an environmentally friendly way.
c. Have all scuppers been ................ yet?
d. ................ sawdust to ................ the spilled liquid.
e. Light cargo should ................ on top of the heavy cargo.
f. A new buoyage system has been ................ here recently.
g. I stumbled and ................ my torch. It was so dark that I couldn’t see anything.
h. ‘What is the cadet doing?’ ‘He’s ................ the deck.’
i. The railings ................ under the impact of a falling box.

Exercise 8. Work in groups of three or four. Prepare a short briefing on the following subject:

‘What should be done in case of spillage or leakage of a dangerous substance on board?’

Use the expressions given below:

- consult the safety data sheet of a dangerous substance;
- let the spillage evaporate;
- scoop away the reminders;
- rope off the area;
- inform the pollution control/harbour authorities;
- put on protective clothing and breathing apparatus;
- stop the spillage;
- remove the spillage with synthetic scoops;
- use absorbents for the spillage;
- do not touch the spillage;
- separate contaminated goods from others;
- cover contaminated goods with tarpaulins;
- cool down the container with water;
- ventilate the hold;
- close the hatch-operate the fire-extinguishing system;
- provide first aid to injured persons;
- call the ambulance;
- take off and dispose of contaminated clothing
- remember to ...
- do not ...
- never ...
- always ...
- first ..., then ....
- you have to / must ...
- you must not ...
- in case of inhalation / ingestion / eye contact ...
- remove the victim into fresh air ...
- rinse the mouth / eyes ...
– in case of inhalation, remove the victim to fresh air.
– in case of ingestion immediately rinse the mouth with water, and drink plenty of water. Do not induce vomiting.
– in case of eye contact immediately rinse the eyes for at least 15 minutes keeping the eye lids wide open.

4. CLAIMS

Exercise 1. Work in pairs and match informal and formal expressions:

1. I’m sorry to tell you
2. at 5 a.m.
3. to get into the port
4. to crash into
5. the left side
6. near
7. to make somebody guilty
8. which may come from it
9. to take part in
10. will take place

a. to attend  
b. in way of 
c. I regret to inform you  
d. to enter the port  
e. to hold somebody responsible  
f. at 0500 hours  
g. to collide with  
h. the port side  
i. which may arise therefrom  
j. will be performed

Exercise 2. Work in pairs and replace informal expressions with formal ones:
Dear Sir,
I’m sorry to tell you that today at 5 a.m. local time, while getting into the port, your vessel crashed into my m.v. “Arrow” and caused some damage to her left side near hold no 2.

In this connection, I have to make you guilty for all the damage caused and for all the consequences which may come from it.

I also invite you to take part in a survey which will take place on board my vessel today at 3 p.m. local time.

Yours faithfully,

Exercise 3. Work in pairs and explain the following expressions:
1. foreman
2. ex my vessel
3. discharging
4. on the copy enclosed
5. the receipt
6. in the presence of
7. liable
8. to acknowledge
9. inspected
10. the a/m damage

Exercise 4. Work in pairs and put in the expressions from Exercise 3:

Dear Sir,
I regret to inform you that today at 0700 hours local time, during operations, the hatch cover of my hold no. 3 was damaged by your crane operator.

…………………… was shown to your ……………………… and inspected by him ……………………… of our chief mate.

In this connection, I have to hold you ……………………… for the above mentioned damage and for all the consequences which may arise therefrom.

Please ……………………… ……………………… of the letter ………………………

Yours faithfully,

Exercise 5. Work in pairs and write a claim using the data given below:
1. scene of accident – the port of Szczecin
2. time of accident – 1700 hours UTC
3. party to blame – the m/v “Discoverer”
4. accident – collision
5. accident details – the stern of the m/v “Discoverer” struck against the starboard side of your vessel
6. accident result – damage to the plating
7. your intentions – arranging a surveyor’s inspections
8. the other vessel’s obligation – to attend the survey, to acknowledge the receipt of your letter

References
Curriculum Vitae

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- in 2000 graduated from University of Silesia, Poland, with a degree of MA in the English language and started working at the Maritime University of Szczecin,
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HOW TO USE AND EXPAND THE MEV-DEV PROGRAM

Abstract
The Maritime English Vocabulary Development (MEV-DEV) Program, which the authors presented at IMEC 20, allows its users to learn Maritime English vocabulary while listening to words and phrases as they appear in example sentences. The program uses JavaScript and runs on Internet Explorer, and one can easily add new vocabulary items and sound files using conventional text editors and free audio editing software. Since ocean-going mariners encounter Maritime English with various accents, it is essential that prospective seafarers familiarize themselves with such accents. In this workshop, participants will learn how to use the MEV-DEV program and how to expand its vocabulary items, while at the same time making recordings of their own accents. The end product will be made available through the IMLA-IMEC and TUMSAT sites, so that both Maritime English teachers and students can benefit from the proposed workshop.

Curriculum Vitae

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WRITTEN FEEDBACK THAT EMPOWERS NOT IMPEDES!
USING MICROSOFT WORD IN PROVIDING FEEDBACK ON STUDENT WRITING

Abstract
The need for maritime students to master academic writing skills for their study is well recognized. It is our responsibility as Maritime English teachers to ensure they do. In our quest to do so – in a process-oriented, multiple-draft writing class, we may fall in the trap of appropriating students’ writing. Do our expectations as Maritime English teachers and our students’ actual interpretation of our written feedback match in terms of authority and attitude? More precisely, shall teachers abandon their authoritative image and adopt a facilitating, consultative role or shall their knowledge and expertise qualify them to implement their authority positively, empowering student revision?

Based on the results of my MA thesis, this workshop is intended to provide maritime English teachers with practice on how to provide written feedback effectively using Microsoft Word while considering both attitude and authority issues, drawing their attention to the different variables that could affect student views of the written feedback and of the variables that would empower students to become autonomous writers.

Keywords: written teacher feedback, Microsoft Word, authority, attitude, autonomy, perceptions

Workshop Objectives
To provide Maritime English teachers with practice on how to provide written feedback effectively, what aspects to consider in their feedback and how to use Microsoft Word to provide feedback.

Workshop Content
The assignments for the participants are (1) to provide feedback on the different aspects of maritime student piece of writing: content (ideas), organization, grammar, vocabulary choice, spelling, punctuation; (2) to consider attitude and authority issues; and (3) to use Microsoft Word controls, i.e. word review comments, shapes (lines + callouts), colors (font color + highlight), footnotes, voice comments, superscript, and compare feature, in providing professional feedback.
CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION ISSUES ON BOARD

Abstract
This paper strives to establish the fact that environment remains the vivid sharpener of behavioral patterns amongst multi-lingual seafarers on board a ship. Linguistically, people’s cultural norms and values are easily showcased in their language. Also, embedded in any natural language is the unique cultural belief system of the particular speech community. Again, this unique cultural belief system portrayed in the language is vividly reflected in the level of commitment (conscientious attachment) to the speech they make. It is this uniqueness in the linguistic behavior of speakers of different languages, depicting different cultural backgrounds across the world that poses to the Maritime industry, a barrier that must be broken by the IMEC family through the propagation, and of course, cross-pollination of the Maritime English. It is this cross-cultural communication barrier, sequel to the use of multi-lingual crew on board, on one hand and some proffered useful ideas on how to propagate and ensure a successful cross-pollination of the Maritime English that this conference paper seeks to illuminate on the other hand. It is therefore envisaged, that this paper, in its own small measure, would add up with other papers to help facilitate the desired situation of mutual intelligibility by our multi-lingual crew on board.

Keywords: Maritime English, multi-lingual crew, cross-pollination, cross-cultural communication.

1. Introduction
Telling the story of the “Tower of Babel” as scribbled in the Bible, a young preacher narrated to church, how men desired to build a tower in order to enter into sky and perhaps heaven, and see their creator. The preacher said they started building the tower without relenting in any way. When they had built a sky-scraper after several months, God became angry over man’s quest to see Him and discover how and where He lived and so, in His anger, He took mutual intelligibility away from them, and rather than speak a common language as before, each man was given a different language and no builder could understand the language of the other. This, according to the preacher, was the introduction of many languages and language clusters of the world. The building of the tower stopped because they could not understand themselves and so, could not communicate effectively.

Whether this story is factual or fictitious is not subject to dispute, rather, the important thing to note here is that all human beings from whatever race or tribe need communication in order to relate with others, man needs a common language that he can share with people around him.

This paper highlights this human desire to communicate with other people effectively and shows how seamen sailed out of their domain and met with people from other cultural backgrounds other than theirs, which necessitated seafarers’ need for a common language – the Maritime English.

The paper illuminates the prevalent cross-cultural problem, which is still lingering on board. The belief system of some people, which is different from those of other seafarers
around them, impedes communication and brings about disasters at sea. It also presents some way of improvement on the communicative competence of multi-lingual crew on board. For instance, the cross-pollination approach of improving communication on board is show cased.

2.0. Environmental determination of the lexicon of a people’s language

Sequel to man’s need for mutual co-existence, man tried to communicate with other people, through this trial several thousands of languages were developed from the creation of the universe. In the primitive era, a tribe used to speak a unique language, in which the norms and values of their community, their religious practices and belief system were conveniently embedded in it and so, they had no communication problem, since every member of the speech community could speak and understand their unique language. When people from other tribes started meeting other people from places other than theirs, communication problems started.

Since culture consists of virtually everything about a people’s way of existence their environment determined to a large extent the lexical items used in the formation of the language they speak. The language made provision for the items or things found in the environment. Anything that is not indigenous to the people’s environment could not have been given a name in the language. But, everything that is found in the environment of the people would always have an indigenous name in the language of the people. This is why no Nigerian can give indigenous names to those things that were not naturally found in their environment from the beginning of time. Thus, things like computer, compact disk, television, electricity, radio, telephone, satellite dish, air plane etc can not be given any indigenous names in any of the 513 languages and language clusters in Nigeria because those things were not there in the Nigerian environment when their forefathers were developing their indigenous languages.

Language therefore, is a component of the culture of a society. Cultural differences are to be expected between two or more people from different nationalities or regions when sharing any activity. If they speak different languages and do not have a good command of a certain language, which enables them to interact, cultural differences might be difficult to overcome.

According to Cole (1999) in the not so distant past, and certainly for most of the last century, it was common for ships to be financed, built, managed, commercially traded, manned and registered by a single country. Communication between any parties in the operations was not a problem, at least not beyond the pretence of dialectal misunderstandings. Today, however, the shipping industry is truly global in nature and rarely does a ship have an owner, officers and ratings from the same country with the same native language.

In almost all activities, but mainly on board vessels, these cultural differences may result in isolation and depression on board.

2.1. The negative effect of multi-lingual crew on board

The negative effect of a multi-lingual crew on board is communication difficulty. Crew members in ships are not always of the same nationality, due to crew cost or flag of convenience, and this problem brings about accidents on board, which, history tells us have been very disastrous. The total number of accidents on sea caused by the lack of a common language is not known because some sea accidents are not recorded at all. According to Clements (1996):

*No precise statistics is available with regards to the number of situations or potential accidents, which happened on board, that, may have had communication problems or*
lack of a common language for a cause. However, there is the perception that the situations affecting Maritime Safety, in which language problems are involved, constitute a considerable number. The “Scandinavian Star” disaster has called the attention of many sectors of the Maritime activity and many concerns have been brought to the floor, language difficulty is one of these concerns.

The Ro-Ro passengers’ ship has shown difficulties in the use of a common language on board. We have heard also of the Tuo Hai and Tenyo Maru confusion. Zhang (1995) reports that sometimes in July 1991, the “Tuo Hai” a Chinese bulk carrier and the “Tenyo Maru” a Japanese fishing vessel collided in the vicinity of Cape Flattery in the state of Washington, USA. The transportation safety Board of Canada carried at an investigation, and the conclusions were that the collision took place because neither of the ships was using the appropriate procedure for a fog situation, and because of the inability of the seafarers of the Chinese bulk carrier to understand communication in English. Zhang (1995).

The “Sea Empress” accident of 15th February, 1996 is also a case of communication problem. The “Sea Empress” was managed by a British company, owned by a Norwegian company under the Liberian flag. The crew and master were Russians; Reporters said there was a serious communication problem on board between the British pilot and the crew because they could not communicate effectively.

The accident of “Federal St Clair” was also reported in 1992 as striking the canal bank when she approaching the port of Montreal, Canada due to poor command of English language by the crew and master.

2.3. Why multi-lingual crew?

It has been argued those multi-lingual crews are not expected to leave the arena of Maritime Industry in the foreseeable future. According to Clements (1996):

In the past, officers and crew were, in most cases, of the same nationality. Large shipping companies used to employ their ratings themselves and among nationals on a long contract basis. It was common practice that officers and seafarers used to work for the same company and in many cases on board the same vessel. Moreover, after serving on board, officers and experienced seafarers came ashore to work at the company office. So seamen were used to having a sort of link for life with a shipping company. Open registries and/or developing countries offering flags of convenience, both making their appearance in the arena of the shipping activity, altogether with a large number of officers and ratings from developing Maritime nations.

The strong competence of seamen from developing Maritime nations and their very low salaries got ship managers interested in engaging them instead of paying large cost as salaries to Americans, Western Europeans and Japanese seafarers.

2.4. Clash of culture and the need for a meltdown on board

Since a tribe is known by her culture, the meeting of different people resulted in the meeting of different cultures. The term culture consists of ideas, customs and art-produced by a particular society. Culture is particular for society or civilization. Testifying to the important relationship between language and culture, Hoijer (1974) observes that:
Language plays a large and significant role in the totality of culture. Far from being simply a technique of communication, it is itself a way of directing the perceptions of its speakers and it provides for them habitual modes of analyzing experiences into significant categories.

Hoijer does not deny that communication is a function of language, rather, he emphasizes the other function: that of directing speakers’ perceptions. So, non-material culture relies heavily on language in the projection of the people’s lifestyle.

Language is a communal property much as culture is; both are people-oriented and reflect the people’s worldview and civilization. It is therefore impossible to fully imbibe new ideas or realize cross-cultural fertilization without language. This phenomenal posture of the human communication system makes Stubs (1986) declare as follows:

For obvious reasons, languages have specialized vocabularies for local flora and fauna, and the like. Again, for obvious reasons, when words are borrowed from one language into another, it is often words that relate to new cultural artifacts, traditional products, religious, cultural and artistic customs.

This vindicates the intertwining interplay between language and culture, since it is obvious now that the culture of a people gives birth to the language they speak. Writing on the importance of language to man and his society crystal (1997) as cited in Ukut et al (2001) states:

There is the importance we attach to language as a means of understanding ourselves and our society, and of resolving some of the problems and tensions that arise from human interactions. No sector of society is unaffected, and all can benefit from the study of the linguistic factors that constitute a barrier as well as a means of communication.

Culture has been found to be an all-embracing term, which refers to the life-style of people. Nigerian culture has been identified as the life-style of Nigerians and American culture, as the life-style of Americans. For instance, the Americans are known for creativity and change. When an American makes a mistake in what other people would do correctly, the mistake is viewed by the Americans not only as a deviation from the known pattern, but as a new style in doing that same thing. That is the culture of encouragement even in the face of failure. This is not true of the Nigerian culture. A slide mistake made by a Nigerian is viewed by Nigerians as a sacrilege committed by a doomed and finished person. One still recalls a particularly obnoxious situation in Nigeria. A Nigerian footballer made a mistake and scored a suicidal goal which costs Nigeria an appearance in a World Cup in the eighties – the next morning that footballer was found dead, shot in the neck by Nigerians who forgot that the player’s intention was to kick the ball out of the Nigerian goal area.

We have heard that for an American and may be, many others in the Western Hemisphere, a pat on the head given to a child, a subordinate staff or even an elderly person means good girl/boy, but for a Malaysian, as well as for some other Islamic countries, the head is something sacred and the source of intellectual and spiritual power and should not be touched.

We have also heard that to invite for a drink after a day’s work, an Australian would fold three fingers of the hand against the palm and keep the thumb and little finger in a straight up position to suggest that it is time to drink. Clements (1996) claims that for a Chinese that sign means six and for a Malaysian it means something related to the evil of occult masters.
Clements has it that for Anglo-Saxons and some other Northern Europeans, a raised finger or a tilt of the head to one side is a call on the waiter to provide drinks. He claims that most Africans would knock on the table to call the waiter, while people from the Middle East will simply clap their hands to call the waiter.

Again, most people move their head up and down to mean “Yes”, but the same gesture means “No” in other countries especially Indonesia and Albania. Philipinos we hear, do not say “No” with ease the way others do. Rather than say “No”, they will jerk their heads downwards instead. Sometimes the downward jerk of the head is accompanied by the very word “Yes”.

3.0. The Nigerian communicative attitude

Sequel to their culture, some Nigerian tribes such as the Oron people in Akwa Ibom State, the Yoruba States and the people of Edo and Delta States are found repeating their speeches in their native languages. These repetitions of the syntactic structure of speech are sometimes noticed in their spoken English. The purpose of this syntactic repetition in the native language is for emphasis and enhancement of understanding. But having been transferred to the use of English language it becomes an interference of the L1 on the L2. On board a ship, this speech mannerism would enhance understanding but it would be viewed by people from other cultures as being unacceptable method of communication. It is therefore not strange to hear a Nigerian say: “Remove that gum in your mouth and throw it away – remove that gum in your mouth and throw it away”.

3.1. Combination of speech with body gesture

Most Nigerians would be seen combining speech especially the native languages with body gesture for the simple purpose of emphasis. Whether they are using their native languages or English language, it is a common thing to see a Nigerian speaking and demonstrating with his body, especially the use of hands while communicating.

3.2. Code-mixing and code-switching

The Igbo people of the defunct Biafran states in Nigeria are noted for their extreme code-switching and code-mixing speech mannerism. There is no tribe in Nigeria that is not involved in code-switching and code-mixing, but the Igbos are by far, the best examples.

Code-switching occurs when two or more people belonging to the same speech community interact. Here a speaker begins a sentence with one language and finds himself or herself finishing the same sentence in yet another language. In code-mixing, the speaker starts the sentence with - say English, then jumps to a native language – say Igbo, and finds himself finishing the sentence with the first language – English. If two or three of them are members of the crew on board a particular ship, other crew members from other cultural backgrounds may not understand the Igbos when they are communicating on board.

4.0. Cross-cultural communication barrier on board

4.1. Pockets of republic on board

A situation where one culture is considered to be much more superior to all others on board a ship could hamper the free flow of information. This cultural variance in attitude
promotes pseudo – predisposition of superior – inferior status of other ethnic groups in the crew and officers on board. We tend to have pockets of republics on board a particular ship, which act as stumbling blocks to the free flow of communication.

4.2. The negative effect of crew cost variation

It is worse when crew members of the inferior ethnic groups receive lower salaries while other crew members from the so called superior cultures or ethnic groups receive four or five times the amount paid to the inferior cultures or ethnic groups for doing the same jobs done by the inferior groups. This situation brings about bad blood, depression, isolation and of course, the unwillingness to communicate, especially with members of the superior ethnic group. This is demoralizing and frustrating, capable of endangering life and property at sea.

According to Clements (1996):

In order to properly assess crew cost in the 1990’s, let us glance at the international shipping Federation (ISF) 1993 – 1994 report on crew costs with relation to nationalities. A Japanese chief officer costs 149 units, an Indian chief officer costs 45 units, and a Chinese chief officer costs 28 units. In the same report, an American seaman costs 186 units while a Philippino and a Bulgarian seamen cost 38 and 33 units respectively. (Port and Shipping, 1995).

5.0. The need for a cross-pollination of MARENG

The natural question one would ask here is what is cross-pollination and what has it got to do with MARENG. The biological process of cross-pollination is of interest to us if MARENG must be successful. We have heard of series of unimplemented regulations by IMO. It is one thing is to enact a regulation but it is yet another to ensure the enforcement of the regulation. For instance, the IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) as approved by the 68th session of the IMO Maritime Safety committee in May, 1997 and disseminated in the IMO circular No. 794 of June 10, 1997 as required by the STCW 95 has not been fully implemented in some Maritime institutions in the world. – Trenkner (1999).

5.1. The cross pollination process

According to Nweze (2004):

Cross-pollination is the transfer of pollen grains from the anthers to the stigma of another flower of another plant but of the same species. Pollination is made possible through insects, birds, wind, water and animals including man.

For Ramalingam (1990):

Cross-pollination occurs when mature pollen grains of a flower are transferred to the stigma of a flower of another plant of the same or closely – related species …Cross-pollination brings the male gametes and egg cells of two different parent plants together. Therefore, there is greater genetic variability among the offspring which tend to be healthy and well adapted. They also produce more abundant and viable seeds.

Sequel to these definitions, we now have a vivid understanding of the term cross pollination, as a transfer of pollen grains from the anthers of one flower to the stigma of another flower in another plant but of the same species. Ramalingam goes ahead to tell us that
“there is greater genetic variability among the offspring which tend to be healthy and well adapted”. He adds that cross-pollination “also produce more abundant and viable seeds”.

5.2. Adaptation of the cross pollination process into Maritime English Training (MET)

The problem of the IMEC family in ensuring mutual intelligibility among seafarers is not entirely with the training of cadets and students of Maritime Training Institutions all over the world, but with the group of seafarers who do not pass through formal training as cadets or regular students. These seafarers are opportunists – who learn their respective jobs or schedule right there – on board, not in a school. Possessing mandatory courses certificates or whatever class of Certificate of Competency (COC) has very little or nothing to do with competency in the use of Maritime English. A seafarer with all the certificates in the world, who can not communicate with his fellow seafarers from other nationalities on board and at shores situated outside his own state, is an isolated person who can endanger life and property.

IMEC should now begin to look outside the classrooms of Maritime institutions, in order to reach out to those seafarers who can not speak English language at all. They are found in and around the sea ports all over the world. These are, and should begin to be seen as our second target, the cadets and regular students of course, being the first.

5.3. Formation of national MARENG associations for cross pollination training

We have heard before now of the activities of the German Association of Maritime English (GAME) which motivated this writer to commence the process of establishing and registering the Nigerian Association of Maritime English (NAME) in order to ensure a relationship amongst the Maritime English Teachers in Nigeria and keep them informed of MARENG activities at the international level, such as the IMEC.

Now, if every IMEC family member present in this conference can go home and start up the formation of their respective national MARENG bodies, we can use these MARENG Associations to reach out to those seafarers who din not have the opportunity to receive formal training like cadets and regular students, but who by chance, entered a ship and learnt their trade “on the job” and became regular seafarers. These people should now become our second target in ensuring mutual intelligibility on board.

The national MARENG bodies aided by Government agencies and departments such as the Nigerian Maritime Administration and Safety Agency (NIMASA) can organize some conferences or national MARENG seminars at different sea ports, teaching and giving reading materials to the seafarers available at the ports from time to time. It may sound funny, but a trial would convince anyone who cares to try.

To ensure continuity, the National Maritime Authorities may empower the National MARENG Associations to award certificates in Maritime English to participants after series of seminars and the International Maritime Organization (IMO) should recognize these certificates. IMEC therefore should inform IMO by officially writing to them in order to provoke an IMO regulation to that effect.

If every seafarer should be compelled by IMO regulation to possess a certificate in MARENG within a period of three years, IMEC would discover with delight that in less than ten years, mutual intelligibility on board would be 80% to 100% in all ships.

Thus, following the proposition above, the cross pollination process would have been complete: The Maritime institutions being the anther of a particular plant, the MARENG
lecturers being the birds or other agents of pollination, the Maritime English knowledge being the pollen grain, the seafarers at the ports being the stigma of another plant while the ports would be the other plant itself.

6. Conclusion

Maritime English now becomes the only solution to the communication problems on board ship even though some seafarers are incapable of communicating in it, with time and commitment, this obnoxious situation will be over. Sequel to their different cultural backgrounds, officers and crew on board find it difficult to communicate with one another, because they are so used to their L1, receiving L2 now becomes a problem. But since the English language is now by far, the most widely spoken language in the world, all hands should be on deck in ensuring wide range acceptability and conformity to the Maritime English implementation regulation.

The cross cultural communication barrier which is impeding mutual intelligibility on board, sequel to the nature of crew’s individual native language, can be broken if the cross-pollination proposition is taken seriously by the IMEC family. This writer envisages a situation where every seafarer can communicate basically with other seafarers using Maritime English, if members of the IMEC family can go home and start their respective national MARENG Associations with which to reach out to the ports and sensitize the seafarers accordingly in the use of Maritime English. Aiding them with reading materials should be of paramount interest during seminars at the ports.

If attention is paid only to the cadets and students in the Academies and Universities, how do we account for those at the port? How do we ensure that they are part of the communication development plan? The cross cultural communication problem would continue to linger, until such a time that IMEC has decided to reach out to the seafarers at the ports, who had no opportunity to be exposed properly to the Maritime English that is taught at the Academies and Universities.

Reference


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The Department of Foreign Languages is an interfaculty unit where foreign languages (English and German) are taught to students of all faculties. The specific nature of international shipping requires from its participants a good command of English, the language used in trade, in various professional contexts. For navigators, a good knowledge of English is an absolute necessity, in particular within the scope of distress, safety and other urgent communication. The experienced staff of the Department are committed to apply the highest standards in their work of preparing the students for their future professional tasks.

The Department personnel consists of nineteen teachers of English and one teacher of German. Ten senior lecturers, nine lecturers and one language instructor, a secretary and a technical engineer — all of them do their best to provide top quality training to our students.

The qualified staff have high teaching skills and some marine experience, which makes it easier for them to teach maritime English. Keeping in touch with colleagues from other maritime educational institutions, the teachers take every opportunity to exchange teaching ideas and methods at international conferences and workshops.

The Department has a wide variety of publications and materials for teaching maritime English, including handbooks, recordings and own teaching materials, such as textbooks and tests. The Department facilities include a reading room, where a wide selection of reference books, dictionaries and access to the Internet are available to the staff and students. First year students come from various educational backgrounds. To optimize the teaching, students are divided into groups on the basis of results of a placement test which they sit before the beginning of the academic year. The language instruction, divided into stages, follows the generally accepted standards with a focus on the four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. According to the syllabus, students first master their general English, only to pass on to maritime English in various professional contexts during later years of their studies. The Department has language labs and classrooms equipped with modern teaching aids, for example authentic recordings of marine ship-to-ship and other types of communication. Our teachers, although successfully using modern technology and new teaching techniques, still continue to practice the traditional communicative approach, such as teacher – student and student – student interactions.

Tiring as some classes may be, students love those in the computer lab. They find the wide selection of self-study and testing materials an interesting diversion. There, they can test themselves and prepare for the final exam to be taken at the end of each academic year. Our successful graduates are well prepared for work in the English-speaking environment of the shipping industry.
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Maritime English Center organizes complementary courses, raising practical seamen's skills in using English as a trade language.

Courses organized by MEC are compatible with requirements of amended convention STCW 78/95 (International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers), what means that programmes of courses are subject to periodical modifications conformed to changes of appropriate regulations.

For needs of the organized courses, MEC uses language laboratories (multimedial language laboratories and computer foreign language learning laboratories) belonging to Szczecin Maritime University.

All lecturers who conducted classes in MEC are employees of Foreign Language Department of Maritime University of Szczecin, specializing in maritime register of English.

Language courses are always conformed to the level of participants. They are prepared on basis of our own teaching materials, and such companies as : Marlins, Seagull, Seamanship, Oxford University and others. Maritime English Center is conducting specialized language courses such as:

1. Distress Communication
2. ISPS Code - basic glossary, orders, expressions
3. Maritime English for Navigators
   - Upper Intermediate Level
   - Advanced Level
4. Maritime English for Engineers
   - Intermediate Level
   - Upper Intermediate Level
5. Maritime English for Specific Purposes
6. Crash Course of Engineering English for Navigators
7. Crash Course of Nautical English for Engineers
8. Business English
9. Marlin's courses
   - Beginners
   - Pre-intermediate
   - Intermediate
   - Upper Intermediate
10. Marlins English Language Test
11. Individual courses (on request)
12. Owner's sponsored courses (on request)
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