KARADENİZ TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF NATURAL AND APPLIED SCIENCES

MARITIME TRANSPORTATION AND MANAGEMENT ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT

TESTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING AN INTERACTIVE LEARNING TOOL TO TEACH ENGLISH FOR MARITIME PURPOSES

MASTER'S THESIS

Seda ALTUNTAŞ

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THESIS STATEMENT

I hereby declare that all information in this thesis titled as “Testing the Effectiveness of Using an Interactive Learning Tool to Teach English for Maritime Purposes” has been completed under the responsibility of my supervisor Prof. Dr. Ercan KÖSE and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work. 01/06/2016.

Seda ALTUNTAŞ

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Yüksek Lisans Tezi

ÖZET

TESTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING AN INTERACTIVE LEARNING TOOL TO TEACH ENGLISH FOR MARITIME PURPOSES

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Dünya ticaretinin %90'ının denizyolu taşımacılığı ile gerçekleştirildiği göz önünde bulundurulursa, denizyolu taşımacılığının ve bu sektörde çalışan insanların kullandığı dil ve iletim becerilerinin ne kadar ciddi bir öneme sahip olduğu gözler önündedir. Gemi çalışanlarının dil becerilerinin öneminden yola çıkarak, bu çalışma, dünya çapında denizin dili olarak adlandırılan ‘‘Denizcilik İngilizcesi’’ ve bu alanda çalışacak olan insanlara Denizcilik İngilizcesi öğretimine odaklanmıştır. Bu çalışmanın amacı, farklı iki öğretim metodu kullanılarak yapılan ve bir eğitim dönemini kapsayan Denizcilik İngilizcesi öğretimi uygulaması sonucunda ortaya çıkan başarı oranları arasındaki farklılıkları ortaya koyabilmektir. Çalışmada, ‘‘English for Deck Officers’ dersini alan 61 öğrenci denek olarak kullanılmıştır. Öğrenciler rastgele olacak şekilde iki gruba bölünmüş ve aynı konular, aynı eğitmen tarafından farklı öğretim metotları uygulanarak iki gruba da öğretilmiştir. Kullanılan metotların ilki, bolca ezber ve çeviriye dayanan geleneksel dil öğretim yöntemi, diğeri ise çeviri ve ezber yerine interaktif ve görsel alıştırmalar içeren bilgisayar destekli öğretimdir. Uygulamanın sonuçları gösteriyor ki, uygulama boyunca yapılan iki sınav neticesinde bilgisayar temelli öğretim metodu kullanılan grup, diğer gruba göre daha başarılı olmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Maritime English, English for Specific Purposes, Maritime communication, Teaching Maritime English, web-based instruction, text-based instruction, interactive learning

Master Thesis

SUMMARY

TESTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF USING AN INTERACTIVE LEARNING TOOL TO TEACH ENGLISH FOR MARITIME PURPOSES

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Karadeniz Technical University
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Considering the fact that %90 of world's trade is carried out with ships in terms of conveyance mode, it is necessary to acknowledge that maritime transportation and both language and communication skills acquired by people in the shipping industry are of vital importance. Based on the significance of the language skills of seafarers, this study has centered on the language of the sea worldwide: ''Maritime English'' and teaching Maritime English to those who receive education to work in the maritime industry. This study attempts to summarize a one-year research project and the aim is to investigate the differences between the success rates of a Maritime English instruction period by using two different teaching methodologies. To conduct the research, 61 students who were supposed to take the course of ''English for Deck Officers'' were used as subjects. They were randomly divided into two groups and then they were taught the same content and units by using two different teaching methodologies by the same instructor. The first of the teaching methods was a traditional text-based language teaching method which involved lots of memorization and translation techniques, namely techniques used in the grammar-translation method consisting mostly of translating the passages and texts. In addition to translation, reading comprehension questions, fill-in-the-blanks exercises, activities measuring the dominance of grammar, memorization and some vocabulary exercises were also used. The second method was a modern web-based learning method which involved plenty of interactive exercises and visual activities instead of translation and memorization. Results of the application showed that the students who were taught English for deck officers using the interactive language teaching method were seen to show more success compared to the traditional text based method according to the results of the exams held twice during the application.

Key Words: Maritime English, English for Specific Purposes, Maritime communication, Teaching Maritime English, web-based instruction, text-based instruction, interactive learning

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EAP : English for Academic Purposes
EFL : English as a Foreign Language
ELT : English Language Teaching
EOP : English for Occupational Purposes
ESL : English as a Second Language
ESP : English for Specific Purposes
IMETS : International Maritime English Testing System
IMO : International Maritime Organization
LAD : Language Acquisition Device
MARENG : Maritime English
MarTEL : Maritime Tests of English Language
SLA : Second Language Acquisition
SMCP : Standard Marine Communication Phrases
STCW : Standards of Training Certification and Watch-keeping for Seafarers

1. GENERAL INFORMATION

1.1. Introduction

It is generally accepted that more than 90 % of global trade is carried by sea. This congestion of the seas brings maritime accidents in its wake (Portela, 2005). Whenever maritime accidents and their causes are analyzed, it is explicitly seen that the primary cause of maritime accidents is the human factor (Portela, 2005; Trucco et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2005; O'Neil, 2013; Erol and Basar, 2015). The human factor, which is accepted as the core of the causes of maritime accidents covers all the actions that present the relations of people with other people and machines (Uğurlu et al., 2015). When the factors that cause people to have accidents are analyzed, it is seen that these factors range from a lack of knowledge and experience, incompetency and inadequacy from the technical aspect, non-execution of the instructions and rules, non-confidence or over-confidence, fatigue / exhaustion, insufficient relaxation allowance to insufficient communicative competence (Reason, 1990; Akten, 2006).

The research regarding this concern shows that it is necessary to focus on the human factor and the reasons that cause humans to have accidents in order to be able to reduce maritime accidents. (Reason, 1997; Chen et al., 2013, O'Neil, 2013; Hinrichs et al., 2013; Erol and Basar, 2015). As for this research, the focus of the study is matter of communication at sea, -that is to say Maritime English and how to teach Maritime English to cadets in a more effective way- which is the main reasons that cause people to have maritime accidents. Namely, lack of communication which is one of the sub-factors of human errors can even be seen between the pilot and the bridge team on the ship (IMO, 2012). Accordingly, rather than trying to reveal the causes of marine accidents, this study concentrates on how to reduce maritime accidents by choosing a more effective Maritime English teaching method in order to facilitate both written and spoken communication among seafarers. In this way, it is aimed to reduce the effect of the human factor on incidents, which is regarded as the most common and the prominent reason for the occurrence of maritime accidents. Moreover, the significance of Maritime English teaching is tried to address from a different perspective.

In recent years, the special emphasis on the need for Maritime English knowledge of the multicultural crews on board ships within the shipping industry has led Maritime English teachers, lecturers and researchers to look for and develop better and more effective ways on how to teach Maritime English to cadets. Astratinei (2014) also indicates that most of the maritime accidents are the result of problems about communication, therefore, great attention should be paid by Maritime English Training institutions to Maritime English teaching and learning.

The need for developing a special language for maritime purposes started after it was recognized that communication problems causes really serious marine incidents. It was agreed by 1973 that a common language which is English should be used for maritime purposes and safety. In accordance with this, the Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary (SMNV) was developed and adopted in 1977 and amended in 1985. After many years of extensive research, the Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) was developed and the use of SMCP became mandatory for all seafarers onboard ships. It is an international document which is regulatory as part of ‘’Standards of Training, Certification and Watchkeeping for Seafarers’’ (STCW 78/95/10) entailed by the IMO. The SMCP international document is of crucial importance for those Maritime Institutions, colleges and universities in that the courses to include in the curriculum and the course contents are determined in compliance with the requirements of SMCP.

As the vital importance of the communication factor, namely, Maritime English came to light progressively due to the consciousness of the fact that having command of Maritime English should reduce maritime accidents substantially, researchers, Maritime English instructors and academic institutions have sought ways to solve the problem of lack of communication by working up on various teaching methods and techniques for a more effective Maritime English instruction to cadets.

This study attempts to find a modest solution to the problem of Maritime English teaching by trying language teaching methods to decide on an effective one. Within this scope, the general information section of this study is arranged from the general titles to the specific ones. The journey begins with the description of language and ends with details about Maritime English teaching ranging from Maritime English teachers to Maritime English teaching methods. In that case, it is time to make a start with describing the nature of language, learning and teaching, and then move up to the history of language teaching and teaching English as a foreign language with emphasis on language teaching

methods. Following this, in an attempt to go deeper, the area English for Specific Purposes (ESP) will be addressed in many aspects, and then, one of the branches of ESP, Maritime English which is also the research subject of this study will be featured. Let's get underway with the most general notion related with the subject of this research; language.

1.2. Describing Language

In the most general sense, language is the method of human communication, either spoken or written, consisting of the use of words in a structured and conventional way (URL-1, 2015). It is defined as 'the method of communication' instead of 'a method of communication' because a non-verbal method of communication is also a language which is called body language. Besides, language can also be a special system of communication used by a particular group or community, etc. By using the system of words or signs in a language, people express their thoughts, feelings and intentions to each other. Using a language for communication is as natural to men as eating, breathing and sleeping.

There are three important elements that make up a language: grammar, vocabulary (lexis) and pronunciation (sounds) (Harmer, 2007). The elements of the grammar of a language are words that make up a sentence such as, verbs, subjects, objects and a number of different clauses. The vocabulary of a language consists of the meanings of words and their relationship to other words such as antonymy, synonymy, etc. The pronunciation element of a language consists of the way the sentence is spoken which also determines exactly what it means. The sounds of language and pitch, intonation, stress factors used when speaking affects what we say and what we intend to say.

Like the need to breathe to live, people need to use a language to communicate and convey meaning. But how do we learn a language? Linguists have sought the answer to this question over the course of many years and revealed the two important notions, 'language acquisition' and 'language learning'.

It is a known fact that all children acquire a language unconsciously or without any effort, unless they have some kind of physical or mental disorders. They are not exposed to any special language education, they are not taught the language they speak or they do not make a conscious effort to learn the language. The instinct and the mental capacity they have enable them to hear and learn the language spoken around them and to speak it without effort as they develop (Harmer, 2007). This is identified as the acquisition of

language. So, it can be said that language acquisition is the development of language in children and it is bound up with a child's age. Pinker (1994) stated that language acquisition is '….guaranteed for children up to the age of six, is steadily compromised from then until shortly after puberty, and is rare thereafter.' So, children have usually learned and absorbed most of the vocabulary and grammar of their first language by the age of six and the unconscious process of language acquisition does not last forever. Beginning from birth to puberty, the language spoken around a child is absorbed by him/her in an unconscious way and linguists define it as the language acquisition process.

For many years, theorists, linguists and methodologists have tried to see and reveal if learning a second or foreign language can be done like the unconscious acquisition of a language. In order to be able to replicate the success of language acquisition, researchers have made a great number of observations, carried out lots of experiments and proposed opinions, methods and techniques.

To see if this can be possible, it is necessary to identify the difference between language acquisition and language learning.

1.3. Language Acquisition and Language Learning

As it was mentioned above, children learn their native language without conscious effort which we can call 'the acquisition of a language.' The question here is, does the acquisition of a language tell us something about how students learn a second/foreign language? Researchers have investigated the answer to the question of replicating the child's language acquisition in a language learning classroom.

One of the earliest studies into language acquisition and language learning came from Palmer (1921) who defined acquisition as 'spontaneous capabilities' and learning as 'studial capabilities.' Spontaneous capabilities referred to natural and subconscious acquisition of a language whereas studial capabilities referred to organized learning environments for students and their conscious knowledge to learn something (Harmer, 2007).

More recent studies carried out by linguists and theorists have also revealed that there is a distinction between acquisition and learning. For example, the American linguist Stephen Krashen introduced us to what he called the 'Input Hypothesis' in the early 1980s which will be explained in detail in 'Second Language Learning' section.

Obviously, the unconscious acquisition of a language is related to an unplanned and spontaneous process whereas the conscious learning of a language is a planned and monitored process. When considered from this point of view, it seems impossible that the acquisition of a language by a child and the learning of a foreign language by a student/learner undergo the same process. What matters for us here is to assimilate the two activities as far as possible since language acquisition is an easy and painless process for language learning. In this regard, the elaboration of some theories presented by prominent figures regarding first language acquisition and second language learning are considered to be useful in this study.

1.3.1. First Language Acquisition & Second Language Learning

In this section, some basic concepts in first language acquisition and second language learning are discussed.

1.3.1.1. First Language Acquisition

Theories on how infants acquire their first languages have gone through different processes for years. In 1940s and 1950s, language acquisition was suggested to be a habit formation process depending on imitation and reinforcement. The most common theory on how children acquired languages was the behaviorist approach. According to the behaviorist theory, infants hear utterances, imitate them and receive either positive reinforcement or corrections. This is exactly what B.F. Skinner defined in his ‘Operant Conditioning’ in behaviorism.

Operant conditioning refers to conditioning in which the organism produces a response, or operant, without necessarily observable stimuli. According to Skinner, verbal behavior is also controlled by its consequences. That is, when consequences are rewarding, behavior is maintained and is increased in frequency whereas when consequences are punishing, the behavior is weakened and eventually extinguished.

However, in the mid-1950s, the behavioristic theory to first language acquisition was challenged by Noam Chomsky. He argued that children are able to produce sentences that they have never heard before and that behaviorism was unable to answer many questions.

He also proposed that child correction, reinforcement and imitation are not enough to explain how a language is acquired. Today, it is acknowledged that the behavioristic theory to first language acquisition falls short of explaining many patterns in child language acquisition.

The downfall of the behavioristic theory to first language acquisition was inevitable when Chomsky stressed its deficiencies and proposed his 'Language Acquisition Device (LAD)'. This is called the 'nativist approach' to first language acquisition and Chomsky claims that children are biologically programmed for language and are born with LAD which is an imaginary box existing somewhere in the brain. LAD is believed to contain all the principles which are universal to all human languages which Chomsky named as 'Universal Grammar'.

One of the other theories to first language acquisition is the 'information processing' model in which the relationship between input and output is recognized. Other than that, connectionism model to first language acquisition suggests that humans do not have a language acquisition device, nor do they have a universal grammar in their brains, but they learn through activation of neurons in the human brain. Another theory is the 'social interactionist theory' in which Vygotsky suggested that language is learned through social interaction. Social interactionist theory suggests that language is learned through children's interaction with the world and with the people around them.

1.3.1.2. Stages in First Language Acquisition

Studies up to now have shown that there are universal properties of steps in first language acquisition. All infants start the acquisition process with the 'cooing' stage and continue with 'babbling', 'one-word stage' and 'telegraphic stage'.

1.3.1.2.1. Cooing

Babies start the process of language acquisition at around the age of four months by cooing as they produce [g] and [k] sounds which ''do suggest that infants are aware of sounds and their potential significance from approximately four to seven months. They use

these sounds to play with such language-related phenomena as loudness and pitch'' (Gass and Selinker, 2008).

1.3.1.2.2. Babbling

Babies start to produce consonant and vowel combinations and form syllables such as ba-ba, ma-ma at around the age of six months which is called the babbling stage. This period continues till the age of approximately 12 months.

1.3.1.2.3. One-word Stage

The baby starts to produce single words that correspond to objects and people around them. The period starts at about the age of 12 months and continues until the baby is about 18 months old.

1.3.1.2.4. Multiple-word Stage

This stage starts at around 18 months and is referred to as the multiple-word stage because babies can produce multiple words in this stage.

1.3.1.2.5. Telegraphic Stage

At around the age of two, babies start producing multiple words and form sentences which lack function words or grammatical morphemes. This stage is called the telegraphic stage because the speech looks like the codification in telegraphic writing.

The universal stages of first language acquisition are noted above. It is now time to start going deep into the mechanisms of second language learning.

1.3.1.3. Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

In studies regarding second language learning, linguists and theorists have tried to find the answer to the basic question of the similarities and differences between first and second language acquisition. The differences between first and second language acquisition have shaped language teaching methodologies which are going to be elaborated in the methodologies section.

Based on the principles of the behavioristic theory, in order to learn a second/foreign language, errors should be avoided and this can be achieved by the 'contrastive analysis hypothesis'. The contrastive analysis hypothesis is comparing L1 and L2 to find similarities and differences between the native and the target language. The differences between L1 and L2 makes learning L2 more difficult because learners are more likely to make errors and form bad habits through negative transfer which occurs when an old learning interferes with the performance of the new learning. On the other hand, the similarities between L1 and L2 facilitate the acquisition process through positive transfer which occurs when an old learning facilitates the performance of the new learning.

The contrastive analysis in L2 learning enables the detection of errors done by second/foreign language learners which is called 'error analysis.' Error analysis is effective in detecting how L2 learners learn a second/foreign language. It is a method to detect the systematic errors made by language learners. When the errors are examined, it is seen that second/foreign language learners have a dynamic language system which keeps changing until the learners achieve mastery of a structure which is called 'interlanguage'.

A significant development in the explanation of second language learning is suggested by Krashen (1982). In his theory of second language acquisition, Krashen stressed the differences between first language acquisition and second language learning. His theory consists of five main hypotheses:

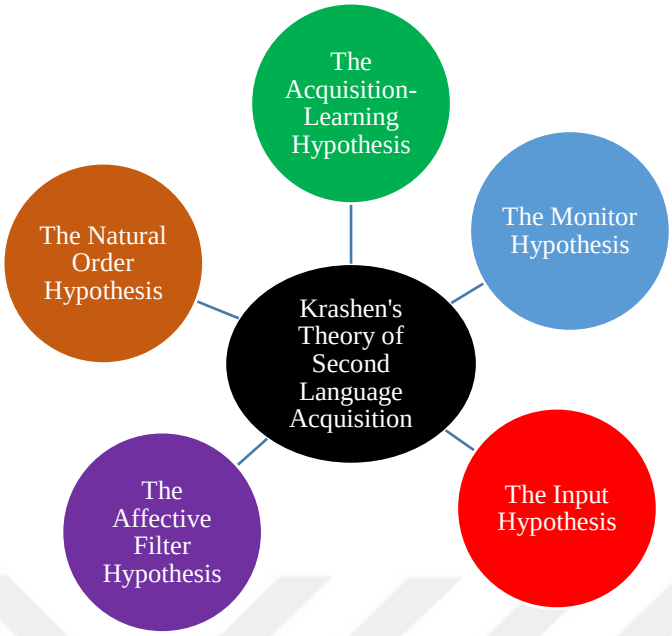


Figure 1. Stephen Krashen's theory of second language acquisition

1.3.1.3.1. The Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis

According to Krashen's acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis, adults have two distinct ways of learning a second/foreign language. The first way is language acquisition which is ''a process similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language'' (Krashen, 1982). Acquisition is a subconscious process. The second way to achieve competence in a second language is by learning. Learning is a conscious process and the learner is aware of the grammar or the rules of the language.

According to some second language theorists, children acquire a language while adults can only learn. However, Krashen (1982) assumed that adults can also access the same natural acquisition that the children use.

1.3.1.3.2. The Natural Order Hypothesis

The natural order hypothesis by Krashen suggests that the acquisition of grammatical structures follows a 'natural order.' This natural order period may change according to learners, their age and L1 background.

1.3.1.3.3. The Monitor Hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis by Krashen suggests that language acquisition does not require monitoring but language learning brings with it the monitoring function. It is the practical result of the learned language. Krashen advices that the use of the monitoring function by performers should be minor and performers should only use the monitoring function during when it does not interfere with communication.

1.3.1.3.4. The Input Hypothesis

Krashen attempts to explain with his 'Input Hypothesis' how the learner acquires a second language. The hypothesis argues that the learners can only improve themselves when they receive second language 'input' - that is one step beyond his/her current stage of linguistic competence. For example, if the learner's stage is 'i', the acquisition can only take place when the next input is (i+1).

1.3.1.3.5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

Finally, the last hypothesis by Krashen, 'the affective filter hypothesis' suggests that there are a number of 'affective variables' which facilitate second language acquisition. The affective variables which are related to success in second language acquisition can be placed into three categories which are 'motivation, self-confidence and anxiety (Krashen, 1982). High motivation, self-confidence and a good self-image lead to success in second language acquisition. However, anxiety should be low in order for second language acquisition to be successful. In other words, when the affective filter of the learners is high, it forms a mental block and impedes language acquisition. In order for the language acquisition not to be negatively influenced, the learner should have positive attitudes, high motivation and low anxiety.

So far, we have discussed language learning without paying any attention to individual factors and differences that affect learning a language. However, the processes of first and second language acquisition are not sufficient to explain the successful learning process by learners. Some learners succeed more than the others in the learning process. To

be able to give an answer to the question of why some learners are better than others, individual differences of language learners should be discussed.

1.3.2. Individual Factors That Affect Language Learning

Learning a second language effectively depends on a number of factors such as the age of the learner, their motivation levels, aptitude and intelligence and their learning styles and strategies. These elements all have a contributing or hindering effect on second/foreign language learning.

The first of the individual differences we will consider is the 'age' factor. It is believed that there is a certain period for second/foreign language acquisition according to the 'Critical Period Hypothesis'. According to the hypothesis supported by the majority of language experts, learning a new language after a certain period is difficult, and sometimes impossible. This period is from early childhood to adolescence. Although not universally accepted, theories suggest that adults do not acquire languages as well as children because of the age factor.

Another factor regarding the individual factors affecting second language acquisition is 'motivation'. Motivation is defined as the effort, willingness and orientation of the learner in learning a second/foreign language. There are two kinds of motivation: integrative and instrumental motivation. According to Gardner (1982), integratively motivated learners are motivated by either a positive attitude to the target language and target culture whereas instrumentally motivated learners are motivated by practical rewards such as being promoted at work place. He asserts that those who have integrative motivation are usually more successful than those who have instrumental motivation. There are also intrinsic and extrinsic motivation types. Intrinsic motivation suggests that learning takes place without any external force and learning itself is considered as enjoyable and satisfactory. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation suggests that learning is not considered as enjoyable or satisfactory itself, instead it is learned because it will bring with it rewards such as praise, grade, approval, job, money, etc.

'Intelligence' and 'aptitude' are also two important individual factors that affect second language acquisition. Regarding second language learning, it is found that language learners with higher IQ test results tended to be better at grammar, reading, vocabulary but not necessarily at oral skills (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). On the other hand, aptitude is

the specific ability to perform a task. Those with language learning aptitude learn with more ease and greater speed than others.

'Learning styles' or ways of the students also affect second/foreign language acquisition. Some learners learn better by verbal stimuli and some learn better by visual stimuli. Likewise, some learners do better when they are physically active, and some learn better when they are socially active.

Howard Gardner's (1983) studies led to the development of eight different intelligent types and learning styles of humans. The figure below exhibits the intelligence types and learning styles identified by the 'Multiple Intelligences' theory. According to Gardner (1983):

"An intelligence is a psycho-biological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture."

He has identified eight intelligence types that are shown in the following figure.

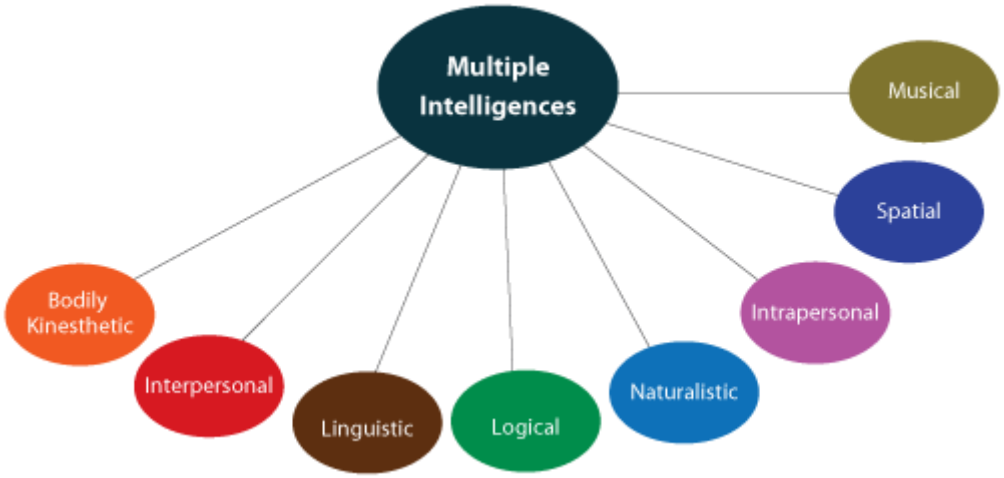


Figure 2. Gardner's multiple intelligences (MI) chart (URL-2)

In addition to the individual factors that affect second/foreign language acquisition listed above, there are also sociocultural factors that affect second language learning. These are culture, acculturation and intercultural competence.

'Culture' can be defined as the ideas, customs and arts of a given group of people. When teaching a second/foreign language to learners, they should also be introduced with the culture of the nation speaking that language because learners need to recognize and

understand differing world views so that they can develop positive attitudes towards different cultures.

Another sociocultural factor is ‘acculturation’ which refers to adopting a new identity in the target language. Adopting the new and unknown culture of the language may be difficult at first for language learners and may cause what is called ‘culture shock’ referring to the unfamiliarity they experience when they are in a more different way of life than the one they are used to . The learners may, at the first step, experience culture shock, but then, gradually adopt and accept the new culture of the language they are learning.

‘Intercultural competence’ is also another sociocultural factor affecting second/foreign language acquisition. It is the ability to communicate with the speakers of other cultures. Intercultural competence requires empathy, understanding and the ability to express himself/herself.

1.4. English as a Global Language

The English language was well on its way to becoming a ‘lingua franca’, a language used for communication between people who do not share the same first language, by the end of the twentieth century (Harmer, 2007).

Today English is used as the first language by many people in the world and a second or foreign language by lots of people from many parts of the world for international communication.

The first question coming to mind is: How did the English language become global? There are some factors which have ensured the widespread use of English. One of them is the fact that the British Empire had many colonies which led to the domination of the English language in British colonies. Besides, the economic power of the United States led to the growth of the English language and its use especially in international businesses. In addition, English is the lingua franca of the academic environment; e.g. conferences, many journal articles in diverse fields, etc. This is also an important factor in its widespread use throughout the world. Besides, tourism and travel are mainly carried on in English which has also led to the globalization of English. English is also the language of the popular culture in the western world. Lots of songs, films, documentaries, ceremonies worldwide are in the English language. (Harmer, 2007) has noted that today, a quarter of the world’s population speaks the English language. However, Graddol (2006) assumes that, in about

20 years, more than %40 of the global population would ever become functional users of English.

1.5. Methodology in Language Teaching

In this part, various language teaching methods and techniques are elaborated in order to emphasize the importance of language teaching. In spite of the fact that it would not be true to say that there is a best method that can be universally accepted for language teaching, language teachers and experts have decided that the best thing to do in choosing and carrying out an effective method is to adopt an eclectic approach which incorporates elements from range of methods and approaches and which is designed according to the needs of the learner group.

The effectiveness of the adoption of an eclectic approach to language teaching came to light as a result of the emergence of many different approaches and methods to foreign language teaching throughout history.

Before getting into language teaching, methods developed for teaching languages throughout history, it is considered useful to define three important terms used in this field. The first attempt to make a distinction between the terms ‘approach’, ‘method’ and ‘technique’ came from Edward Antony. According to Antony (1963), an approach presents the nature of the language and language teaching/learning and gives information about the conditions for language learning to take place.

An approach to language teaching/learning may embrace the structural view, the functional view or the interactional view. The structural view describes language as structural units such as grammar, phonology and lexis. The functional view views language as a vehicle to establish relations with others.

A method is the practical application of the language material. And finally, a technique is the smallest circle of these three terms. It is the activities and tasks carried out in the classroom.

The three terms mentioned above were further explained by Richards & Rodgers (1982) as ‘approach’, ‘design’ and ‘procedure’. Different from Antony’s description, Richards & Rodgers (1982) used the term design instead of method and they used the term procedure instead of technique. The definition of these terms can be seen in the following table:

The next part gives detailed information about methods and techniques used for teaching/learning foreign languages throughout history. The language teaching history can be divided into three periods: before the methods era, methods era and post methods era. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

1.5.1. Before the Methods Era

The period which is named as 'Before the methods Era' which covers the 19th century includes the 'Grammar-Translation Method' and the 'Direct Method'.

1.5.1.1. The Grammar-Translation Method

Also called the 'classical method', the grammar-translation method was the first and the oldest method used to teach languages to those who were not speakers of that language. The classical languages, Latin and Greek were taught using the grammar-translation method during that time. The method required extensive and continuous translation of literary passages since the languages taught were dead languages and the only aim at teaching those dead languages was to understand and translate literary passages to develop intellectually. In this language teaching method, the grammatical structure and rules of the foreign language are taught to learners explicitly in their native tongue. The only language skills emphasized in the classroom are reading, translation and vocabulary, to some extent. Techniques used in the method consist mostly of translation of passages. In addition to translation, reading comprehension questions, fill-in-the-blanks exercises, activities measuring the dominance of grammar, memorization and some vocabulary exercises are also used.

Obviously, the grammar-translation method, the most traditional method used to teach the literature of ancient empires is still widely used to teach foreign languages, especially English as the lingua franca of the world. In spite of the fact that the method has some advantages such as the proficiency in grammar knowledge and accuracy of the rules of the language, it can be criticized from many aspects such as the neglecting the communication skills which ends up with the failure of speaking and listening skills of the learners and the failure in pronouncing and spelling the words.

Seeing that the grammar-translation method did not exactly teach a language for communication, some language teaching specialists made a strong criticism on the method and advocated the study of the spoken language, phonetic training and meaningful contexts. This reaction to the traditional method is known as the 'Reform Movement' which paved the way to the direct method.

1.5.1.2. The Direct Method

Since the direct method appeared as a result of the reaction of some reformer language teaching specialists to the grammar-translation method, the method is also known as the reform method and the natural method. The direct method is based on the belief that foreign language teaching should be carried out with the use of conversations, extensive speaking and pronunciation exercises. Direct method proponents believe that foreign language learning must be an imitation of first language learning, in a natural way like the one babies do. For this reason, in language classes where this method is used, there is no place for the first language or native tongue of the learners. In other words, mother tongue is never used during language teaching activity in the direct method. The theory of the language, according to this method is that language is primarily for oral communication and languages are learnt to be able to communicate in the target language. The techniques used in this method are reading loudly, question and answer exercises, conversation and extensive speaking exercises, the use of real objects, pictures and flashcards for vocabulary teaching and drawing exercises. The direct method is advantageous in language teaching because it contributes greatly to the development of speaking and listening skills. However, it is criticized because first language use is strictly banned which usually causes anxiety for the students. Besides, the grammatical rules are not given attention and this may cause incorrect language use.

1.5.2. The Methods Era

With the rise of the terms 'approach', 'method' and 'technique' in importance, methods used for foreign language teaching started to gain a systematic and conscious development.

1.5.2.1. Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-lingual method became popular with the outbreak of the World War II. The fact that armies needed to communicate with their allies and enemies and understand one another in a proficient way made way for this teaching method which is why the method is also called ‘the Army Method’. In this mwthod, the lesson takes place in the target language, like the Direct Method. The emphasis is not on the understanding of the words, but rather on the acquisition of structures and patterns in common everyday dialogue. Drills are widely used to teach structural patterns, dialogues are memorized, vocabulary is taught in context, audio-visual materials are used and reinforcement is believed to support learning according to the principles of the method. The method is successful in that it used extensive memorization, repetition and over-learning techniques. However it is critisied in that it ignores the role of context and knowledge in language learning. The method is also criticized in that it does not deliver any improvements in communicative ability in the long term.

1.5.2.2. Silent Way

In the Silent Way language teaching method, silence is used as a tool by the teacher in order to make the students responsible for their own learning process. According to the method, teachers should be as silent as possible and encourage the students to speak as much as possible. The teacher starts teaching the target language first by focusing on the sounds because it is important to initiate the lesson with something familiar with the students. As the sounds are basic to any language, the lesson starts with pronounciation through color-coded charts which are believed to enable learning the sounds of the language. Although all four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) are worked on from the beginning, students are expected to read and write after they learn to listen and speak. The method is known for the unique nature of its teaching materials which consist of a set of coloured rods and color-coded wall charts. The method is criticized in that it lacks meaningful communication and that the silence of the teacher is likely to cause anxiety among the students.

1.5.2.3. Suggestopedia

The Suggestopedia method suggests that the human brain could process great quantities of material if people are given the right condition for learning. These conditions are the decoration, the arrangement of the environment, music, relaxation and getting rid of negative thoughts and feelings by replacing them with positive attitudes. The method has been developed to help students eliminate te feeling that thet cannot be successful and to overcome their barriers to learning. The aim is to use the language communicatively and it is believed that students can only do this when they do not consciously focus on learning the language. The materials used in the method consist of dialogues with their translations provided by the teacher, posters and wall charts for unconscious learning. Games, dramatization and role-plays are extensively used techniques in the method. The method is criticized in that it is not a feasible method for crowded classrooms and that it neglects the comprehension and creative problem solving. Furthermore, adult learners may be irritated and discourages to be engaged in the games and child-like attitudes adopted by the method.

1.5.2.4. Community Language Learning

Community Language Learning method which applies psychological counseling techniques to lamguage learning.It represents the use of Counseling-Learning Theory to teach foreign languages. It is also based on humanism so it puts the feeling of the learners at the centre of language learning. The method occurs in an interactional condition where teachers and learners are engaged in communication. Language is seen as a vehicle for communication. Learners in a classroom are seen as a group rather than as a class, a group in direct need of certain therapy and counseling . The social dynamics occurring in the group are very important and a number of conditions are needed for learning to take place. The method aims at creating a non-defensive, safe and secure classroom environment, where students can trust each other and the teacher and where they form a community. The mother tongue is widely used when the teacher translates the chunks and texts created by the students. No textbooks are used since the materials are created according to students' needs. There are both advantages and disadvantages of the method. The advantages are that the presence of the teacher is not a threat to students and the anxiety and stress are

reduced. The disadvantages are that translation is a complex process and too much translation may interrupt the students.

1.5.2.5. Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response is a method which has the underlying assumption that the coordination of speech and action will enhance language learning. The method aims to construct a stress-free environment to foreign language teaching. According to the method, language is considered to be oral, and is likened to the acquisition of first language, during which the students listen and experience a silent period and then oral production follows. Students have the role of actors and actresses in a play, they perform the commands that he teacher gives to them by listening and understanding the commands without the necessity to speak. The techniques used in the method are commands, role reversal and action sequence activities. The method is advantageous in that it provides rapid and permanent language gains for the students with lower proficiency level. But it is criticized in that it is difficult to teach the abstract terms and lexical items using this method and pronounciation is paid little stress.

1.5.2.6. Lexical Approach

The Lexical Approach method focuses on the exclusive need for building vocabulary knowledge in the foreign language. It concentrates on developing the students' proficiency with lexis, words and words combinations. The methods believes that a significant part of language acquisition takes place when students understand and produce lexical phrases as chunks. According to the method, language consists of multi-word chunks that are fixed and memorized patterns. The lexical items are believed to have a crucial role in learning and in interaction. The method supports the idea that language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar. This method helps build vocabulary knowledge immensely. However, it only focuses on developing on one component of communicative competence.

1.5.3. Current Approaches

The previous approaches and methods have failed to improve the learners' ability to speak the target language communicatively. This led to the pursuit of different approaches that would pave the way to see the language as a means of communication. The methods developed to foster speaking and communications are classified as current language teaching methods.

1.5.3.1. Communicative Language Teaching

The Communicative Language teaching method attempts to foster the communicative use of the language and the notional-functional syllabus was developed. The major goal of the method is to develop communicative competence by establishing real-life situations that require genuine communication. According to the method, communication is carried out through functions such as refusing, apologizing, congratulating, arguing, persuading, promising and requesting. All these functions take place withing a social context. The method pays attention to truly communicative teaching activities for students. The frequently used techniques are authentic materials, scrambled sentences, language games, picture strip stories and role plays. The method has several benefits and strong aspects for language teaching and learning. It establishes real-life situations where the students have the chance to interact in the target language. However, it is also criticized in that it is difficult for a non-native teacher to teach effectively.

1.5.3.2. Cooperative-Language Learning

Cooperative Language teaching focuses on the idea that teaching should be carried out through the maximum use of cooperative activities and interactions. Cooperative group works are supported where the students are likely to scaffold each other. This method is organized through team-work activities so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups. This method adopts an interactive view of language. To foster the students' motivation and reduce stress and to create a positive classroom atmosphere, the primary role of the students is to be a member

of the group whp should work collaboratively. The techniques used in the method are peer-tutoring, conversation cards, think-pair-share and write-pair-share activities, free conversations that foster group interaction and cooperative projects. The method enables to think critically because in cooperative environments, different topics emerge and learners think from many different aspects. The method is criticized in that the learners with different proficiency levels may benefit from the method differently.

1.5.3.3. Task-based Language Learning

The main focus of this method is on bringing real-life contexts into the classroom. There is an emphasis on using language as a tool for completing tasks rather than as a subject in its own right. Therefore, at the centre of the planning and instruction of the language learning and teaching processes are the tasks. Activities consist of real interaction and meaningful tasks are carried out in the method. Language learning is meaningful to students and this aspect facilitates the language learning process. The techniques used in the method are information-gap activities, opinion-gap activities and reasoning-gap activities.

1.5.3.4. Content-based Instruction

Content-based instruction is a teaching method that uses the language as an agent to teach the content, which is a subject area. The language used in this method is discourse based and there is not a pre-planned syllabi in the method because the language items arise from the communicative needs of the students. The language is taught through the content areas such as Social studies, history, geography, and so on..

1.5.4. Post-Methods Era

The post-methods era consist of the current eclectic approach and the Computer Assisted Language Learning method. The methods in this part are widely used for language teaching and learning purposes throughout the world today

1.5.4.1. Ecclectic Approach

Ecclectic approach supports the idea that a good teacher should create a mixture of all the methods that are useful for his/her students and their needs. Since every educational setting is unique, teachers should make preferences regarding which approaches and methods to select, and adapt them in relation to the features of the students, cultures, course objectives and language content to be taught. The eclectic approach has certain strong aspects such as being safe in the sense that it increases the possibility of learning for each student in the classroom environment. It also provides the teacher with the flexibility to choose among many options of approaches and methods.

1.5.4.2. Computer Assisted Language Learning

Computer-assisted language learning is an approach to language teaching and learning in which computer-based resources are employed as a vehicle to the present, enhance and evaluate materials to be learned.

Technology began to be used in foreign language teaching especially in the second half of the twentieth century. Today, computers provide us with the opportunity to use a more powerful, cheaper and faster access to information and insruction. Especially since recently, there is a boom of interest in using computers and the internet for foreign language teaching and learning due to the facilities it provides us with such as the unlimited materials in the four skills writing, reading, speaking and listening, as well as grammar and problem solving.

Computer-assisted language learning is a popular method in language teaching and learning in which computer and the internet is used as an aid to presentation, reinforcement and assessment of a material to be learnt, usually including a substantial interactive element (Davies, 2000). Levy (1997) defines CALL more succinctly and more broadly as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". There are many versions of CALL and the technologies used in CALL instruction generally fall into two categories, software and Internet-based activities. Software used in a CALL environment can be designed specifically for foreign/second language learning or adapted for this purpose. hese generally are drill programs that consist of a brief introduction plus a series of questions to which the learner responds and then the

computer gives some kind of feedback. On the other hand, internet-based (web-based) activities vary considerably, from online versions of software (where the learner interacts with a networked computer), to computer-mediated communication (where the learner interacts with other people via the computer), to applications that combine these two elements.

The history of CALL development are divided into three phases which are behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL and integrative CALL. Behavioristic CALL is defined by the then-dominant behavioristic theories of learning of Skinner as well as the technological limitations of computers from the 1960's to the early 1980's. Communicative CALL is based on the communicative approach that became prominent in the late 1970's and 1980's. In the communicative approach, the focus is on using the language rather than analysis of the language, teaching grammar implicitly. It also allowed for originality and flexibility in student output of language. Integrative/exploratative CALL, starting from the 1990's, tries to address these criticisms by integrating the teaching of language skills into tasks or projects to provide direction and coherence. It also coincides with the development of multimedia technology (providing text, graphics, sound and animation) as well as computer-mediated communication. The explorative approach which is used in this study is widely used today, including the use of Web concordancers and other Web-based CALL activities.

In the methodology section, all the foreign language teaching and learning methods are tried to be summarized. In the next part, English for Specific Purposes is defined and elaborated.

1.6. English for Specific Purposes

1.6.1. What is 'English for Specific Purposes' (ESP)?

The term 'English for Specific Purposes' (ESP) is generally regarded as a more different activity than the term 'General English.' Johns and Price-Machado (2001) define ESP as ''a movement based on the proportions that all language teaching should be tailored to the specific learning and language use needs of identified groups of students – and also sensitive to the sociocultural context in which these students will be using English.'' Munby (1978) defined ESP expressing by focusing on ESP courses that "ESP

courses are those where the syllabus and materials are determined in all essentials by the prior analysis of the communication needs of the learner".

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP as an approach rather than a product, by which they mean that ESP does not involve a particular kind of language, teaching material or methodology.

Another definition of ESP made by Stevens (1988) divides ESP into four absolute characteristics and two variable characteristics. The absolute characteristics are that ESP is designed to meet specified needs of the learner, it is related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities, it is centered on language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics and so on, and analysis of the discourse, and it is in contrast with 'General English'. On the other hand, the variable characteristics of ESP are that it may be restricted as to the learning skills to be learned (for example reading only), and it may not be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Robinson (1993) defines ESP as goal-directed and indicates that its courses develop from a needs analysis which 'aims to specify as closely as possible what exactly it is that students have to do through the medium of English.'

A more detailed and comprehensive definition of ESP is made by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) in which they stressed two aspects of ESP methodology and also used absolute and variable characteristics of ESP. Their definition of the absolute characteristics of ESP are that ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of the learner; ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves and that ESP is centered on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities. Its variable characteristics are that ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English, ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level; and that ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students.

From all the definitions of ESP above, it can be inferred that ESP is a specific area teaching the English language, e.g. business English, Technical English, Scientific English, English for Art, English for various occupational areas and professions like the Maritime English, Aviation English who are going to use the language in radio communications, etc.

It refers to studying English for a particular or a field-specific career or business. Besides, the goal of ESP is not primarily the teaching of a subject in English as a foreign language, the aim is rather to teach English with a specific content which is normally mixed with general topics (Maleki, 2008). It differs from General English, especially designed and developed in specific disciplines or subject matters to fulfill the needs of some identified groups of students. Another difference of ESP from General English is that learners of ESP mostly consist of teenagers or adults aiming to learn the specific (field-related) terminology in the English language for academic or business purposes in order to pursue their academic or occupational careers or study in English-medium educational institutions.

1.6.2. Background of ESP

It is surely beyond doubt that there is a lot to say about the origins of ESP. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) ESP was not a planned and coherent movement but it grew out of a number of trends, like most of the developments in human activity. They outlined the three main reasons of the emergence of ESP by emphasizing the demands of a brave new world, the revolution in linguistics and the increase of the focus on the learner. The appearance of ESP was affected by these factors mentioned above since demand for English expanded as a result of those factors.

Although the appearance of ESP is perceived in recent years as the demands of the new world increased, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) remarked that the history of the study of languages as communication ways for specific purposes is believed to date back to the times of Roman and Greek Empires. But especially since the 1960s ESP has become an important activity as part of Teaching English as a Foreign or Second Language Movement (TEFL/TESL) (Howatt, 1984). It has been divided into categories since then, which will be highlighted in the following section.

1.6.3. Categories of ESP

ESP is mainly divided into two subtitles of areas: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). EAP was the most prevalent at the

beginning of the appearance of ESP although EOP had a more important role because there was an urgent need to learn English for occupational (business) purposes. In either case, the main areas of ESP; EAP and EOP are now regarded as independent elements and are both fundamental in themselves. EAP and EOP are divided into subtitles according to disciplines. Their division according to disciplines is shown in Figure 3.

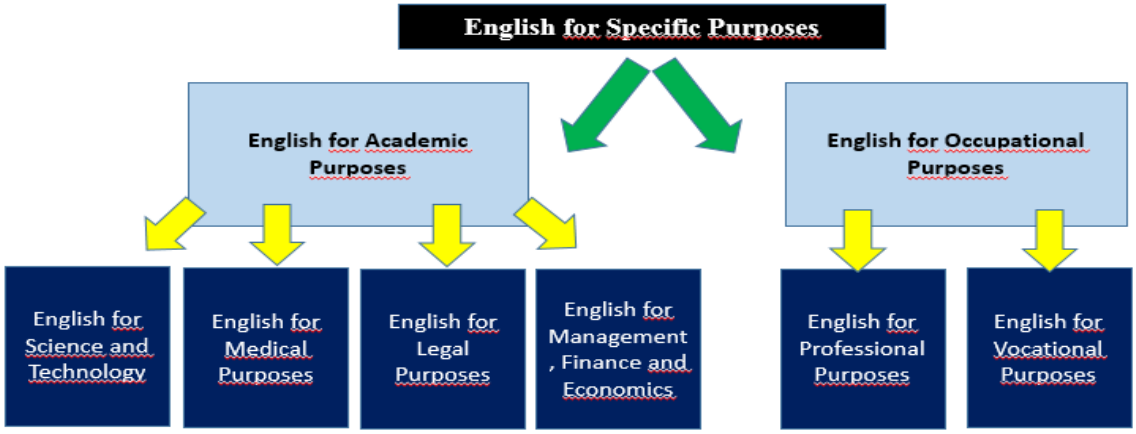


Figure 3. Categories of ESP classification

The subclasses of EAP are lined up pursuant to the extensiveness of the disciplines, respectively. According to the sorting, English for Science and Technology has been the main area which is followed by English for Medical Purposes and English for Legal Purposes. In recent years, with the increasing interest in the academic study of economics and administrative sciences, English for Management, Finance and Economics has also gained popularity.

On the other hand, the second area of ESP, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) is divided into two sub-branches as seen in Figure 3 above: English for Professional Purposes and English for Vocational Purposes for learners or non-professionals. The difference between EAP and EOP can be explained with the following example: We can make a distinction between studying the language of medicine as medical students for academic purposes and studying the language of medicine for occupational purposes which is designed for doctors.

David Carver (1983) identifies one more type of ESP under the title of ‘English as a restricted language. The language used by air traffic controllers or by waiters are examples of English as a restricted language (Gatehouse, 2001). A restricted language is different

from a language in some respects. The distinction between a restricted language and language are explained by Mackay and Mountford (1978) in their following statement:

“the language of international air-traffic control could be regarded as 'special', in the sense that the repertoire required by the controller is strictly limited and can be accurately determined situationally, as might be the linguistic needs of a dining-room waiter or air-hostess. However, such restricted repertoires are not languages, just as a tourist phrase book is not grammar. Knowing a restricted 'language' would not allow the speaker to communicate effectively in novel situation, or in contexts outside the vocational environment.”

It is clearly understood from the statement above that a restricted language cannot be regarded as a language in that someone who has learnt a restricted language for a specific purpose would not be able to understand and communicate effectively in that language whose restricted form he/she has learnt.

So, based upon the classification of ESP, where does the English learned and performed by maritime professionals and seafarers, namely Maritime English stand as a sub-branch of ESP? Is it a part of EOP or EAP? Or should it be regarded as a restricted language? It is surely beyond doubt that the specific area of Maritime English should have its own subtitle as ‘English for Maritime Purposes’ but if we need to place it into one of the sub-categories determined for ESP, we should consider the situation in many respects.

Before replacing Maritime English to a certain position among ESP branches, it should be stated that Maritime English, as a specialized area designed for seafarers or mariners to be able to communicate effectively in English for the sake of being safe at sea is obviously a branch of ESP. It goes without saying that a person who knows Maritime English and can speak English for maritime purposes knows industry specific vocabulary which helps him/her avoid any misunderstandings at sea, can communicate in specific areas such as distress, urgency and safety communications, port operations, on-board communications and social interactions, can speak more confidently and clearly in English, knows how to use and pronounce English Maritime communication phrases and communicate more effectively with other personnel on board.

Franceschi (2014) illustrates the features of Maritime English in different contexts of use and characterizes it as a distinctive subset of English. In his study, he examined Maritime English both in the written form and the spoken form and proposed that Maritime English cannot be viewed as a uniform entity, but should rather be considered as a multi-

faceted type of specialized discourse proving that it is a type of specialized discourse which reflects the specialist use of language in contexts which are typical of a specialized community stretching across the academic, the professional, the technical and the occupational areas of knowledge and practice (Gotti, 2008).

Kovacevic (2014) also emphasizes the restricted aspect of Maritime English as part of nautical education in the maritime profession and proposes that Maritime English is a restricted language which is characterized by many specific features on phonological, morphological, lexical and syntactic levels.

As it is seen from the statements above, when it comes to Maritime English, there is a great tendency to adopt the idea that Maritime English is a restricted set of verbal routines developed by a specific purpose. It can be said that Maritime English contains a restricted language within itself because the phrases developed for the only use of ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore and on board communications like 'Seaspeak' and 'Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP)' are examples of a restricted language. However, this does not strictly mean that Maritime English is a restricted language or a specific register for the fact that Maritime English covers a wide variety of topics and lexical fields ranging from seamanship, cargo handling, shipbuilding, meteorology, oceanography, electricity and electronics, maritime engineering, port operations, marine pollutions, safety of life at sea, rules and regulations, transportation, marine insurance, immediate aid, business transaction to catering and recreation and entertainment as part of tourism. Besides, it embodies the umbrella terms SMCP and Seaspeak which can be regarded as restricted languages. As a matter of fact, it would be unfair to classify Maritime English as a restricted language considering this wide variety and scope it covers and the fact that English is the 'lingua franca' on board and ashore by all those working in the maritime sector throughout the world.

Taking into account all of these, we can also say that Maritime English is a sub-branch of ESP which is both related to EAP and EOP. It can be regarded as a sub-branch of EOP because the learner needs Maritime English not only for academic study but also for practicing their own profession. However, it can also be regarded as a sub-branch of EAP because the learner needs Maritime English for academic study. So, it would not be to make a clear-cut distinction about whether Maritime English is totally a sub-branch of EAP or EOP, because people can work and study simultaneously. In this case, Maritime

English, as a specific profession area/discipline, is a subsection of ESP which covers a restricted language in itself.

For all the above-stated reasons, Maritime English is indeed a multi-faceted type as a specific area. It ranges from the type of field-specific terminology and technical language for the use of restricted contexts to a means of social communication among multilingual speakers of languages worldwide. In other words, it covers a wide spectrum including both complex language patterns and some of the typical uses of a lingua franca (Franceschi, 2014).

In consequence, although Maritime English seems to be restricted to the language used among seafarers and marine personnel working ashore in order to ensure safety, it is actually much broader in scope and English is the medium of communication, both orally and in the written form in the maritime field.

A significant point for any specific area which takes place in the scope of ESP is that its syllabus/curriculum is designed in compliance with a 'needs analysis' developed by experts in the specific field. Likewise, the Maritime English syllabus to be taught to learners in the form of lessons or courses are designed and determined and imposed by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) Standards of Training, Certification and Watch keeping for Seafarers (STCW) Convention through a 'needs analysis'. Besides, the International Maritime Lecturers' Association (IMLA) Working Group, Maritime English teachers and Maritime experts/professionals are also doing researches using multiple methods and sources to increase reliability and validity aimed at fulfilling the learning needs of the specialism, in this case, Maritime English.

1.6.4. Needs Analysis in ESP

A 'Needs Analysis' is the process of identifying and evaluating needs in a community or other defined population of people (Titcomb, 2000). The term 'defined population of people' makes it clear that needs analysis is especially required by learners of English for a specific purpose. Iwai et al (1999) define the term needs analysis as the activities that are involved in collecting information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the needs of a particular group of students.

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) proposed a comprehensive explanation of the needs analysis process of English for a specific purpose:

- Professional information about learners - the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for - Target Situation Analysis and objective needs
- Personal information about learners - factors which may affect the way they learn - wants, means, subjective needs
- English language information about learners: what their current skills and language use are - present situation analysis
- the learners' lacks: the gap between the present situation and professional information about learners
- language learning information: effective ways of learning the skills and language determined by lacks – learning needs
- professional communication information about the target situation: knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation – linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis
- what is wanted from the course • information about the environmental in which the course will be run - means analysis

A need analysis is necessary for all specific areas to be learnt because this is the only way to create an awareness of the target needs of the learners of that specific area. Target needs distinguish ESP learners because it has definable needs to communicate in English. Arini (2010) indicates that target needs distinguish ESP learners because target needs demarks the definable needs to communicate in English.

Needs analysis is an indispensable and crucial part of the teaching of any branch of ESP. It is a necessary process in Maritime English teaching, as well. Lots of studies showed that the English communicative competences of seafarers for working communications were considered to be far more important than their daily social communicative competences according to IMO. However, this does not mean that daily social communicative competences of seafarers is not important as part of Maritime English knowledge. This is testified in the second result of the study which stated that English competences for daily social communications were also essential to life at sea. Another result was that few learning and using English opportunities were offered in learners' maritime content knowledge and Marine English (ME) courses, although both domain experts and learners highly regarded the importance of adopting the English language while learning in school. Finally, four main difficulties were pronounced by the students learning and using English onboard and in school which included the learners'

oral expressions in daily conversations, the proper use of the Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) and maritime terminologies, the different accents from multinational crewmembers onboard, and reading difficulties encountered by learners with lower English proficiency.

In sum, regarding Maritime English, learners' needs include the ability to understand and use a wide range of vocabulary belonging to the specific area, the ability to understand and use all terms and phrases, all things, actions, procedures and routines definitively and the ability to read documents, manuals, technical specifications, articles and other professional materials in order to be able to deal with paper work and communicate effectively, clearly and fluently. So, learners of Maritime English need an effective communicative knowledge of Maritime English as well as the knowledge of field-specific lexis.

1.6.5. How to Teach ESP

As it is well known, English for Specific Purposes is different from English as a Second or Foreign Language, namely General English. One of the factors that makes the difference between these two areas is their learner profiles. ESP students are usually teenagers or adults who have some kind of familiarity with or background knowledge of General English. Besides, ESP learners generally learn English for an academic or a job-related occupational purpose. Therefore, ESP curriculums are developed based on the specific communication needs and purposes of the specific discipline. So, it can be said that the main distinction between ESP and General English is the learners' purpose for learning English. Apart from this, the focus of ESP being more on language in context rather than on teaching grammar or structure of the language is also another distinction between ESP and General English. Moreover, the scope of instruction is also different in two areas. According to Fiorito (2005), although General English instruction focuses equally on four language skills, listening, reading, speaking and writing, ESP requires a needs analysis that determines which language skills are mostly needed by the students.

The answer to the question of the differences between ESP and General English is also explained by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) quite clearly, 'in theory nothing, in practice a great deal.' Likewise, the teaching of General English and the teaching of ESP

are also different from each other. Then, let's consider the situation in terms of the pedagogical perspective and focus on the teaching of ESP.

As Bojović (2006) suggests, the teaching of ESP is accepted as a more separate activity than Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (ESL /EFL). For example, while ESL/EFL teaching concentrates on teaching the four language skills in separate components or in an integrated way, ESP teaching takes place after the determination of the needs of the learner groups through a needs analysis and focuses on the particular skills of the language required by specific learner groups.

Basically, teaching ESP involves not only teaching the subject–matter of the related discipline but it also involves teaching English as a second or foreign language. Students or learner groups of ESP learn or study English through what they are already familiar with. So, their foreknowledge or dominance in their subject-matter fields is an essential part of the process in facilitating the learning/teaching period. The learners in ESP classes are taught how the subject-matter content is expressed in English as well as many other things like effective communication, knowledge of discipline-specific terminology, vice versa. ESP teaching also makes use of traditional, modern and innovative foreign language teaching methodologies and techniques as well as classroom activities after the needs analysis process is completed. ESP teachers decide which methods and techniques and what kind of classroom activities are most suitable for the learners with respect to their needs, their ages, their expectations and their career development.

The most effective and motivating way of the teaching/learning process in ESP is the strategies or techniques in which visual aids such as maps, tables, formulae, various types of charts, pictures, realias, photographs of objects, apparatus, etc. are used because such materials invoke associations with the real world and are less artificial in terms of communication (Choroleeva, 2012).

What about the characteristics of an ESP course? There is not the shadow of a doubt that organizing the ESP courses is a very important factor in achieving success in the teaching/learning process. In this case, it would be useful to handle the subject of 'the characteristics of ESP courses', too.

1.6.6. Characteristics of ESP Courses

Another important factor that should be taken into consideration is the organization of ESP courses consisting of the specific curriculum with the pre-determined methods, techniques, types of exercises and materials. After setting the learning goals of the learners, an instructional program must be prepared by selecting, designing and organizing course materials. This is a very important step in achieving success in the course.

Carver (1983) states that there are three features of ESP courses that are common to all fields: The first one is authentic materials which should necessarily be offered to all ESP learners as well as General English learners. The second one is purpose-related orientation which refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required by the target situation. The last one is self-direction which encourages students to have a certain degree of autonomy and freedom to decide the ways to the study since ESP learners are generally teenagers and adults.

As a result, an effectively organized ESP course can apparently be seen in classes where the materials to be taught/learnt are selected precisely, types of activities are determined in advance and a motivating learning environment is created by the instructors/teachers.

So, it becomes clear that teachers have a crucial role in the teaching process of ESP. Then it would be useful to examine the role and characteristics of ESP teachers.

1.6.7. The Role of ESP Teachers

The role of ESP teachers has been commonly studied recently and it is considered to be a more complex and responsible activity than teaching General English. Researchers and linguists believe that ESP teachers play more parts than just teaching. For that reason, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) prefer the term ‘practitioner’ instead of teacher for those who are engaged in teaching ESP. They entitle ESP practitioners with five key roles which are: The ESP Practitioner as a ‘Teacher’, The ESP Practitioner as a ‘Course Designer and Material Provider’, The ESP Practitioner as a ‘Researcher’, The ESP Practitioner as a ‘Collaborator’ and The ESP Practitioner as an ‘Evaluator’.

The first role of ESP practitioners is that they are teachers which means that they are the like consultants of the learners and creators of real and authentic communication

environments in the classroom. Teachers are generally the knowers of the classroom who teach something unknown by the learners. However, in the case of ESP, the teacher is not the primary knower of the content. On the contrary, the students or learners are the primary knowers of the content and this makes it easier for them to cooperate with the teacher. The second role of ESP practitioners is that they are also course designers and material providers because ESP practitioners may often have to provide the related specific materials for the course since it can be possible for a specific field to get access to no suitable published materials. So, the ESP practitioner also plans the course and provides the related materials for the course. The third role of ESP practitioners is that they are also collaborators with subject specialists. They are or should be in some kind of co-operation with specialists of the field. ESP practitioners are also researchers because they have to keep up with all kinds of developments in the related field or profession. They also have to do researches to be able to design courses or write teaching materials. The final role of ESP practitioners is that they are evaluators like all teachers. They test the students, evaluate the process, the courses and the teaching materials. Since they have to evaluate the courses and the teaching materials, they have a lot more to do in the evaluation process than General English teachers.

The characteristics of ESP teachers or practitioners are stated above but what about who should work as ESP teachers? Teachers of the English Language Teaching (ELT) Department, namely General English teachers or subject specialists? This is also another important discussion that researchers and linguists are studying on. The answer to the question partly comes from Maleki (2008) who claimed and proved in his study that EFL teachers can fulfill the ESP course goals much better than specialists in the field. Besides, Mohammed (2012) suggests that ELT teachers are qualified enough and they possess the necessary skills and knowledge to deal with ESP courses after some training and orientation. He also stresses the importance of subject specialists and states that the importance of their existence should not be neglected in ESP classes and thus he concludes that there must be a co-operation between English Language teachers who implement the course and subject specialists who act as monitors and advisors in the teaching/learning process.

To sum up, and ELT teacher who already has experience in teaching English as a second or foreign language can be an effective ESP teacher or practitioner after receiving some specific field-oriented training and orientation and as he/she gains experience by

working in co-operation with content specialists in the subject-matter that he/she is teaching.

In consequence, some specific field-oriented training can be said to be enough for a teacher of English as a second or foreign language to work as an ESP teacher. Then, how should this training be done? The next subtitle gives the answer to this question.

1.6.8. Training of ESP Teachers

The training of ESP teachers is also one of the other important factors in ESP courses because in order for the success of the courses, the teachers need to be well-specialized and trained for the specific subject-matter. Therefore, ESP teachers should follow four basic steps included in most teacher training courses. These are the selection period, continuing personal education, general professional training as an educator and teacher and special training as a teacher of a foreign or second language.

The selection phase means that the teacher should, initially, believe and feel that he/she is ready to contribute to the field. The second phase, 'continuing personal education' means that the teacher should continue his/her professional training in order to be well-educated and receive post-graduate education for teacher training. The third phase, general professional training as an educator and teacher involves what all teachers need to know regardless of the subject they teach, such as the educational and social psychology. The last phase, special training as a teacher of foreign/second language involves understanding learners' needs better which is in fact important for ESP courses (Bracaj, 2014).

In the next part, it is aimed to broach the subject of Maritime English and examine it in great detail followed by Maritime English Teaching, applying language teaching methods for improving Maritime English teaching and the methods and techniques used in this study for efficient instruction.

1.7. Maritime English as a Subset of ESP

As is known to all, English is the international language that is used as a 'lingua franca', namely a bridge language or a common language all over the world. Just as the

English language is accepted as the lingua franca of today's world, the shipping industry has also accepted the English language as the main language both on board ships and from ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore, shore-to-ship, vice versa.

In specific terms, the language accepted as the common language of the sea is called 'Maritime English' which is a sub-branch of ESP, in linguistic terms. It differs from the other types of ESP mentioned above in the frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic forms and their uses and the specific choice of some (i.e., lexical, grammatical or pragmatic) features of General English (Cole, et al., 2007). Rather than being a separate language, it is a variety of the English language adopted by the maritime community for use by seafarers in order to achieve effective communication in everyday life on board, from ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore and vice versa (Pritchard & Kalogjera, 2000).

Maritime English is defined by Trenkner (2000) as 'an an 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.' Pritchard (2003), on the other hand, defined Maritime English as

'linguistically not any separate language but just a conventional label for a subset or realization of English language appropriate, in our case, to a specific maritime setting (e.g. in the act of navigation, in a close-quarters situation, a cargo handling operation, an act of reading operational or maintenance manual for the auxiliary engine, etc.), used in a determined context of situation (i.e. in a specific speech community, in speech events influenced by a number of factors creating and receiving the message or spoken interaction in communication), arising and being shaped under specific sociolinguistic circumstances (speaker-hearer relationships, developing under various degrees of stress).'

So, it can be said that it should be well known by all those who are engaged in the maritime industry that the English language is the common and only language that must be used in all kinds of maritime communication. It -must- be the common and only language because investigations into the disasters and catastrophic maritime accidents at sea caused by the human factor revealed that a considerable amount of accidents happen as a result of communication problems, primarily because of the lack of knowledge and effective use of the so called 'Maritime English' (URL-4).

In other words, it is clear that a lack of mastery or knowledge of 'English as the common language of the sea may cause various problems ranging from minor problems to

major problems in the seafaring life. These problems are more frequently encountered in situations in which the crew and learners of Maritime English are from countries where English is spoken as a foreign language. This is because their knowledge of the Basic English language may be limited for any reason or less than those who speak English as a first or second language. As a result, the lack of mastery in General English affects the mastery of Maritime English in a negative way. Therefore, since the Maritime shipping industry is a multi-national, multi-cultural and multi-lingual field, all the members of the crew and seafarers, whether they are native English speakers or not, should have a good command of the English language and be fluent, clear and comprehensible speakers of English who are able to communicate effectively with all the other members of the crew and both onboard and ashore.

Principally, a certain level of Basic English knowledge of the learners is considered to be necessary in acquiring/learning the Standard Maritime English phrases more effectively and permanently which, in turn, will reduce communication barriers among crew members on board ships. The clear, comprehensible and effective communication skills of crew members will -to a large extent- minimalize the problems caused by the abovementioned lack of communication, most importantly, accidents caused by humans due to lack of understandable communication ability and lack of Maritime English knowledge.

Within this context, English teachers, Maritime English teachers, researchers and academicians in Maritime colleges and universities are -in the first step- responsible for creating awareness of the significance of acquiring Maritime English on cadets and all those who wish to work on board ships regardless of their departments. They are then responsible for building a foundation of basic knowledge on the learners and carry this knowledge forward on this ground. It is a crucial factor for teachers of Maritime English to find ways, methods and techniques to teach the curriculum of Maritime English (determined after a detailed needs analysis) to their students effectively and in an applicative way. Since the learners of Maritime English, cadets and all the personnel working at sea and ashore have to use Maritime English actively in their business life, the learning process they undergo should not be a burden to them and the teachers must do their best to make the process easy, understandable, applicable and effective for the learners. In short, after the educational period, learners of Maritime English should be able to use Maritime English effectively and easily for communication and understanding

others, be familiar with important and necessary maritime terminology and concepts used daily onboard ships and adapt those terms they learned in theory at school to the language they have to use in practice on board.

Before elaborating Maritime English teaching and how the pedagogical aspect of Maritime English teaching should be carried out, it would be useful to focus more on what Maritime English is, what triggered the emergence of this specific language, how it emerged in the first place, the sub-branches of Maritime English and what subjects are taught to cadets and seafarers as the syllabus as part of Maritime English.

1.7.1. The Rise of Maritime English

The International Maritime Organization (IMO) which is the global authority for the safety and security of international shipping introduced the regulation that English is accepted as the language of the sea years ago, after recognizing the urgent need for a common language to communicate among seafarers on board since the maritime industry has always been a multilingual field and there are people working at sea and ashore from all over the world whose native tongues are totally different. Somehow, all these people have had to communicate in a common ground in order to ensure safety at sea for many years. After it was recognized that there was an urgent need to standardize the language used on board ships, from ship to shore, ship to ship and vice versa in order to avoid misunderstandings, confusion and errors, actions were taken after detailed researches. This was of crucial importance because there was an increasing number of international trading vessels with multilingual crews speaking many different languages which could cause problems of communication resulting in misunderstandings leading to dangers to the vessel, the people on board and the environment. (IMO SMCP)

In parallel with these requirements, in 1973, the IMO Safety Committee agreed that a common language should be used for navigational purposes where language difficulties arise, and that this language should be English which was also the lingua franca of the world. In consequence, the Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary (SMNV) was developed which was adopted in 1977 and amended in 1985.

The need for such a regulation was not recognized until the 1970s because America and Britain were the world's greatest sea-going nations in the nineteen sixties so eighty percent of the crew consisted of native English speakers (Elena and Corina, 2009).

Traditionally, the SMNV was developed for the use of seafarers but the change of conditions in modern seafaring in time entailed a more comprehensive standardized safety language than the SMNV because the SMNV could not cover all major safety-related verbal communications since it consisted of just the field-specific vocabulary. Following this, at the International Maritime Lecturers Association (IMLA) Workshop in 1985, language experts and experts in the field of maritime industry collaborated and produced a controlled language called 'Seaspeak' which was based on the English language. Seaspeak was declared to be the official language of the sea by the IMO in 1988 which was also updated in the following years. According to Seaspeak, the way of communication on board and among ships whose captains' native tongue differed should be short, clear and easy for a non-native speaker to understand. Therefore, it was made as concise and unambiguous as possible, was restricted to no more than two propositions in any message, allowed for constant check-back and confirmation, and made as few changes as possible to existing practice (URL-3). Regarding its content, Seaspeak consisted of a vocabulary of five thousand words some of which were general vocabulary of English while the rest were specific terminology of the Maritime shipping industry (Elena and Corina, 2009). Besides, apart from special-format messages (as in stereotyped weather forecasts), all messages in Seaspeak began with a message marker that indicated the nature of what follows, such as advice, information, instruction, intention, question, request, warning, or a response to one of these (URL-4).

However, at the time when Seaspeak was accepted as the official language at sea, in April 1990, the passenger ferry 'Scandinavian Star' had a catastrophic accident as a result of a tragic fire, in which communication errors also played a part. The horrible disaster and investigations into such disasters at sea involving the human element alarmed the IMO to rearrange and update Seaspeak because it was again understood that the need for effective communication at sea could not be totally met by Seaspeak. This resulted in the development of the Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP).

Following the above mentioned developments, the IMO Maritime Safety Committee adopted the Draft SMCP after nine years' work and in November 2001,as a replacement of SMNV, the IMO Assembly adopted the SMCP which became a mandatory training requirement for all seafaring personnel at all maritime centers through the Standard of Training, Certification and Watch-keeping for Seafarers(STCW) Convention which sets

qualification standards for masters, officers and watch personnel on seagoing merchant ships (URL-4).

Before explicating the SMCP, let's take a little look at the STCW through which the SMCP became mandatory.

1.8. The Standards of Training, Certification and Watch-keeping for Seafarers (STCW) Convention

Since the shipping industry depends on competent and well-trained seafarers in order to ensure safety of life at sea, the International Convention on Standards of Training, Certification and Watch-keeping for Seafarers (STCW) was adopted by the International Maritime Organization (IMO) in 1978 and came into force in 1984.The convention was amended in 1995in response to a recognized need to bring the Convention up to date and again in 2010, as a result of the need to bring the Convention and Code up to date with developments, outdated provisions and new technology.

Whereas the STCW-78 Convention focuses almost entirely on knowledge, the emphasis of STCW-95 has been shifted to practical skills and competence underpinned by theoretical knowledge. The 2010 amendments continued to emphasize competence rather than sea service or period of training (URL-4).

The STCW Convention is a book which consists of three sections: The articles, the annex and the STCW Code. The articles outline the legal responsibilities of the parties, the annex gives technical details about the legal responsibilities and the STCW Code, which consists of two parts called Part A and Part B characterizes the technical details in more depth. Part A of the STCW Code includes the mandatory standards of training, certification and watch-keeping whereas Part B includes the recommended guidelines on training, certification and watch-keeping.

1.8.1. The 1978 STCW Convention

The STCW 1978 was the first to establish basic requirements on training, certification and watch-keeping for seafarers on an international level (URL-4). Before the 1978 STCW Convention, individual governments determined these standards for officers and ratings which caused serious discrepancies among the standards determined by

governments. The STCW'78 Convention ended the discrepancies and prescribed the minimum standards on training, certification and watch-keeping for seafarers. The articles in the convention include requirements relating to issues surrounding certification and port State control. The Convention received wide acceptance by the states. By December 2000, the STCW Convention had 135 Parties, representing 97.53 percent of world shipping tonnage (URL-4). The technical provisions of the Convention are included in an Annex which is divided into six chapters.

Chapter I: General provisions includes a list of definitions of terms used in the annex. Chapter II: Master-deck department includes the basic principles in keeping a navigational watch such as watch arrangements, fitness for duty, navigation, navigational equipment, navigational duties and responsibilities, the duties of the look-out, navigation with a pilot on board and protection of the marine environment. Chapter III: Engine Department includes the basic principles in keeping an engineering watch. Chapter IV: Radio department includes mandatory minimum requirements for certification of radio officers; provisions designed to ensure the continued proficiency and updating of knowledge of radio officers; and minimum requirements for certification of radiotelephone operators. Chapter V: Special requirements for tankers include the necessities that officers and ratings who have special duties related to cargo of tankers must have. The Chapter also contains three regulations dealing with oil tankers, chemical tankers and liquefied gas tankers, respectively. Chapter VI: Proficiency in survival craft includes the requirements governing the issuing of certificates of proficiency in survival craft.

1.8.2. The 1995 Amendments

The 1995 amendments included a major revision of the STCW'78 because there was an urgent need to update the STCW'78 and there were many vague phrases in it. The 1995 revision was adopted by a Conference by the IMO in 1995 and entered into force on 1 February 1997. The main revision was that the technical annex, which was divided into chapters in the STCW'78 was, in this amended form, divided into regulations. In addition to this, a new STCW Code, which contains the technical details associated with provisions of the Convention was developed. The most significant amendments concerned: a) enhancement of port state control; b) communication of information to IMO to allow for mutual oversight and consistency in application of standards, c) quality standards systems

(QSS), oversight of training, assessment, and certification procedures, d) placement of responsibility on parties, including those issuing licenses, and flag states employing foreign nationals, to ensure seafarers meet objective standards of competence, and e) rest period requirements for watch-keeping personnel (URL-4).

1.8.3. The 2010 Manila Amendments

The IMO adopted a new set of amendments in Manila in 2010 called "The Manila Amendments" which came into force in 2012. The Manila Amendments came into force as a result of the recognition that the Convention and the Code needed to be updated. Some of the most significant amendments are:

a) improved measures to prevent fraudulent practices associated with certificates of competency and strengthen the evaluation process,

b) revised requirements on hours of work and rest and new requirements for the prevention of drug and alcohol abuse, as well as updated standards relating to medical fitness standards for seafarers,

c) new certification requirements for able seafarers,

d) new requirements relating to training in modern technology such as electronic charts and information systems (ECDIS),

e) new requirements for marine environment awareness training and training in leadership and teamwork,

f) new training and certification requirements for electro-technical officers,

g) updating of competence requirements for personnel serving on board all types of tankers, including new requirements for personnel serving on liquefied gas tankers,

h) new requirements for security training, as well as provisions to ensure that seafarers are properly trained to cope if their ship comes under attack by pirates,

i) introduction of modern training methodology including distance learning and web-based learning,

j) new training guidance for personnel serving on board ships operating in polar waters and

k) new training guidance for personnel operating Dynamic Positioning Systems (URL-5).

In addition to the retainment of the previous principles and addition of new areas, this new edition also reflects the standards to be met in Maritime English training and communication competency. Trenkner and Cole (2012) included in their study the extracts from the revised STCW in which the term communication appears:

Table A-II/1

- Column 1: Maintain a safe navigational watch. Bridge resource management
- Column 2: .2 effective communication
- Column 1: Use the IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases and use English in written and oral form
- Column 2: …to communicate with other ships, coast stations and VTS centers
- Column 4: Communications are clear and understood
- Column 1: Monitor the loading, stowage, care during voyage and the unloading of cargo
- Column 2: Ability to establish and maintain effective communication during loading and unloading
- Column 1: Inspect and report defects and damage to cargo spaces, hatch covers and ballast tanks
- Column 2: Ability to explain how to ensure reliable detection of defects and damage
- Column 1: Watchkeeping
- Column 2: The use of reporting in accordance with the General Principles for Ship Reporting Systems and with VTS procedures
- Column 1: Application of leadership and team working skills. Knowledge and ability to apply effective resource management
- Column 2: .2 effective communication on board and ashore
- Column 4: Communication is clearly and unambiguously given and received
- Column 1: Coordinate search and rescue operations
- Column 4: Radio communications are established and correct communication procedures are followed at all stages of the search and rescue operation

Table A-II/2

- Column 1: Respond to navigational emergencies

- Column 4: Communications are effective and comply with established procedures

Table A-II/5

- Column 1: Contribute to a safe navigational watch
- Column 2: Ability to understand orders and to communicate with the officer of the watch in matters relevant to watch-keeping duties
- Column 4: Communications are clear and concise

Table A-III/1

- Column 1: Maintain a safe engineering watch. Engine-room resource management
- Column 2: .2 effective communication
- Column 4: Communication is clearly and unambiguously given and received
- Column 1: Application of leadership and team-working skills
- Column 4: Communication is clearly and unambiguously given and received

Table A-III/2

- Column 1: Use leadership and managerial skills
- Column 2: .2 effective communication on board and ashore
- Column 4: Communication is clearly and unambiguously given and received

Table A-III/5

- Column 1: Contribute to a safe engineering watch
- Column 2: Ability to understand orders and to communicate with the officer of the watch in matters relevant to watchkeeping duties
- Column 4: Communications are clear and concise

Table A-III/6

- Column 1: Use English in written and oral form
- Column 2: Adequate knowledge of the English language to enable the officer to use engineering publications and to perform the officer’s duties
- Column 4: English language publications relevant to the officer’s duties are correctly interpreted. Communications are clear and understood
- Column 1: Use internal communication systems. Operation of all internal communication systems on board

- Column 4: Transmission and reception of messages are consistently successful. Communication records are complete, accurate and comply with statutory requirements
- Column 1: Application of leadership and team working Skills
- Column 2: .2 effective communication on board and ashore
- Column 4: Communication is clearly and unambiguously given and received

It can be seen clearly that the 2010 Manila Amendments of the STCW have imposed stringent demands on Maritime English and the use of Maritime English. The requirements for English proficiency are also seen to be both spoken and written, not only on the bridge and in the deckhouse, but also in the engine room.

The curriculum of Maritime English courses, teaching materials and assessment tools should be adapted, updated and developed in accordance with the amended requirements set out in the STCW Convention and appropriate teaching/learning methods need to be applied as discussed and promoted by the relevant professional bodies and in IMO's Model Course 3.17 as, for example, content-based teaching/learning based on the communicative approach (Trenkner & Cole, 2012).

Following the brief description of the STCW Convention, let's take a deeper look into the SMCP (Standard Marine Communication Phrases) which meets the requirements of the STCW Convention and became mandatory by the STCW Code, 1995, Table A-II/I.

1.9. The Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP)

The SMCP is a set of key phrases in English and the internationally recognized language of the sea developed by the IMO. It includes phrases which have been developed to cover the most important safety-related fields of verbal ship-to-ship, shore-to-ship (and vice versa) on board communications. The aim is to reduce the problem of language barriers at sea and avoid misunderstandings which can cause accidents (URL-6).

It has been proven by many researchers that the SMCP has prevented many deficiencies and inadequacies faced within the shipping industry. Besides, it has helped the standardization of the language used in communication for navigation at sea onboard vessels with multi-lingual crews as well as it ensured the safety of navigation.

The phrases in the SMCP provide a sort of "survival kit" as they include all essential safety-related events where spoken English is required, both in conversations by radio and face-to-face ones on-board. Therefore, if properly trained in the proper use of Maritime English and S.M.C.P. in particular, deck and engine personnel (officers, ratings and auxiliary personnel on board), pilots and shore-based maritime personnel such as VTS (Vessel Traffic Service) staff, will definitely encounter fewer communication difficulties both when facing safety situations, and during the watch keeping service on board (URL-4).

1.9.1. The Rise of the SMCP

The maritime industry, being a multi-lingual environment calls forth the need that effective communication and active knowledge and use of English is a must for all seafarers who are responsible for the safety of the ship. However, the results of the studies into maritime accidents show that most of the seafarers lack communication skills in the English for many reasons such as an insufficient background knowledge of General English due to the fact that English is a foreign language to most of them which means that they are unfamiliar to it, or lack of mastery in Maritime English due to insufficient or inefficient teaching or learning.

Most investigators into accidents at sea state that 80% of the accidents are caused by human errors (Davy & Noh, 2010). According to Trenkner (2007), one third of accidents happen primarily due to insufficient command of Maritime English skills. For this reason, the IMO, in 2001, introduced the SMCP to improve the standards of Maritime English, to overcome the problem of language barriers at sea and to avoid misunderstandings which cause accidents as the studies have also revealed through the STCW which required it to be a mandatory training for all seafarers.

The communication barriers are also pointed out by Winbow (2002). He stated that in most countries, maritime professionals generally lacked English communication skills. That's why all maritime professionals also should undergo extensive Maritime English training courses and instruction to learn the technical terms and phrases and use them effectively in practice.

The SMCP is, as stated above, a mandatory training for all seafarers. Under the Manila 2010 Amendments to the STCW, all crews on board cruise vessels, mainly those

assisting passengers during emergency situations and not only ‘should be able to communicate safety-related issues in English or in the language spoken by the passengers or other personnel on board’ (URL-7).

So, it is crucial and mandatory for all personnel working on board vessels to be able to communicate in English in reference to the Manila Amendments to the STCW which came into force in 2012. The ‘communication’ mentioned in the previous sentence must include the communication between crew members, passengers and all the personnel working on board and ashore.

After developing the SMCP, the IMO, introduced the model course of the implementation of Maritime English and in its Model Course 3.17 Maritime English, clearly stated the fact that the purpose of the IMO Model Courses was ‘to assist maritime training institutes and their teaching staff in organizing and introducing new training courses or in enhancing, updating or supplementing existing training material where the quality and effectiveness of the training courses may be improved’ (IMO, 2009).

Furthermore, the growing number of the crew and the auxiliary personnel working on board vessels necessitated the development the course curriculum in ‘Maritime English for Auxiliary Personnel.’ This course is aimed at the personnel working in departments like cruise staff, entertainment, food & beverage, casino, galley/culinary gift shop, housekeeping and hotel operations. The aims of this course are to teach English to all those training to work on board passenger vessels in order for the personnel to be able to communicate effectively and in a manner appropriate to the context they are working in (Martes, 2015).

In sum, the SMCP is developed by the IMO to meet the requirements of the STCW Convention and to reduce the language or communication barriers encountered at sea. The next part gives information about the content and organization of the SMCP.

1.9.2. The Content of the SMCP

As for the organization and content of the SMCP, it has been divided into two sections: Part A and Part B, respectively.

Part A consists of phrases about external communication and on-board communication. The content of external communication phrases in Part A of the SMCP is as follows: Distress communications, distress traffic (fire, explosion, flooding, collision,

grounding, list, danger of capsizing, sinking, disabled and adrift, armed attack / piracy, undesignated distress, abandoning vessel, person overboard), search and rescue communications (SAR communications, acknowledgement and / or relay of SAR-messages, performing / coordinating SAR-operations, finishing with SAR-operations), requesting medical assistance, urgency traffic (safety of a vessel), technical failure, cargo, ice damage, safety communications, meteorological and hydrological conditions (winds, storms, tropical storms, sea state, restricted visibility, ice, abnormal tides), navigational warnings involving land or seamarks, drifting objects, electronic navigational aids, sea bottom characteristics, wrecks, miscellaneous (Cable, pipe and seismic / hydrographic operations, diving operations, tows, dredging operations, tanker transshipment, off-shore installations, rig moves, defective locks or bridges, military operations, fishery), environmental protection communications, pilotage, pilot request, embarking / disembarking pilot, tug request, specials, helicopter operations, ice-breaker operations (ice-breaker request, ice-breaker assistance for convoy, ice-breaker assistance in close-coupled towing), Vessel Traffic Service (VTS) Standard Phrases, Phrases for acquiring and providing data for a traffic image (Acquiring and providing routine traffic data, acquiring and providing distress traffic data), phrases for providing VTS services (Information service: navigational warnings, navigational information, traffic information, route information, hydrographic information, electronic navigational aids information, meteorological warnings, meteorological information, meteorological questions and answers, navigational assistance service: request and identification, position, course, traffic organization service: clearance, forward planning, anchoring, arrival, berthing and departure, enforcement, avoiding dangerous situations, providing safe movements, canal and lock operations), handing over to another VTS and Phrases for communication with emergency services and allied services(emergency services including SAR, firefighting, pollution fighting, tug services, pilot request, embarking / disembarking pilot). The content of on-board communication phrases in Part A of the SMCP is as follows: Standard Wheel Orders, Standard Engine Orders, Pilot on the Bridge, Propulsion system, Maneuvering, Radar, Draft and air draft, Anchoring, Going to anchor, Leaving the anchorage, Tug assistance, Berthing and unberthing.

Part B of the SMCP is a supplementary section consisting of on-board communication phrases. The content of on-board communication phrases in Part B of the SMCP is as follows: Operative Ship handling, Handing over the watch, Briefing on

position, movement and draft (position, movements, draft), Briefing on traffic situation in the area, Briefing on navigational aids and equipment status, Briefing on radio communications, Briefing on meteorological conditions, Briefing on standing orders and bridge organization, Briefing on special navigational events, Briefing on temperatures, pressures and soundings, Briefing on operation of main engine and auxiliary equipment, Briefing on pumping of fuel, ballast water, etc., Briefing on special machinery events and repairs, Briefing on record keeping, Handing and taking over the watch, Trim, list and stability, Safety on Board, General Activities including raising alarm, briefing crew and passengers, checking status of escape routes, checking status of lifeboats / life rafts, ordering evacuation, roll call, ordering abandon vessel and in-boat procedures, occupational safety, occupational accidents, fire protection (checking status of equipment) and firefighting (reporting fire, reporting readiness for action, orders for firefighting, cancellation of alarm), damage control, checking equipment status and drills, damage control activities (reporting flooding, reporting readiness for action, orders for damage control, cancellation of alarm), grounding (reporting grounding and ordering actions, reporting damage, orders for refloating, checking seaworthiness), Search and Rescue on-board activities (checking equipment status, person over-board activities, rescue operation-reporting readiness for assistance, conducting search, rescue activities, finishing with search and rescue operations), cargo and cargo handling, loading and unloading (loading capacities and quantities, dockside / shipboard cargo handling gear and equipment, preparing for loading / unloading, operating cargo handling equipment and hatches, maintaining / repairing cargo handling equipment, briefing on stowing and securing), handling dangerous goods (briefing on nature of dangerous goods, instructions on compatibility and stowage, reporting incidents, action in case of incidents) handling liquid goods, bunkers and ballast - pollution prevention (preparing safety measures, operating pumping equipment, reporting and cleaning up spillage, ballast handling, tank cleaning), preparing for sea, cargo care (operating shipboard equipment for cargo care, taking measures for cargo care including carrying out inspections, describing damage to the cargo and taking actions), passenger care, briefing and instruction, conduct of passengers on-board (general information on conduct of passengers, briefing on prohibited areas, decks and spaces), Briefing on safety regulations, preventive measures and communications (the general emergency alarm, preventing / reporting fire, PA announcements on emergency, person overboard, protective measures for children), evacuation and boar drill (allocating /

directing to assembly stations, describing how to escape, briefing on how to dress and what to take to assembly stations, performing roll call, briefing on how to put on life-jackets, instructions on how to embark and behave in lifeboats / life rafts, on-scene measures and actions in lifeboats / life rafts) and attending to Passengers in an emergency (informing on present situation, escorting helpless passengers).

As seen in the contents part, the contents of the SMCP phrases cover everything regarding the maritime activities and the SMCP is a simplified version of Maritime English which is designed to meet the corresponding requirements of the STCW Convention (URL-8).

1.9.3. Basic Communicative Features of the SMCP

The SMCP is formed and predicated on General English and is a simplified version of Maritime English. The grammatical, lexical and idiomatic components of General English are reduced to minimum, in order for the phrases to be comprehensible, clear and easy. So, it can be said that the standardized phrases are the contracted forms of grammatical, lexical and idiomatic structures to reduce misunderstandings and facilitate communication. The contractions and omissions are frequently in the function words ‘the, a, an, is, are’. Besides, the use of synonyms and contracted forms are avoided and fully worded answers to questions as well as basic alternative answers to sentence questions are provided.

1.9.4. The Role of the SMCP in Maritime English

Ziarati et.al (2011) state that communication failures at sea occurred mostly during ‘ship to ship’ and ‘ship to shore’ transmission among seafarers which is the result of the failure of the use of the SMCP as well as poor pronunciation and speaking skills.

This being the case, the SMCP, especially Part A should be an indispensable part of any curriculum designed to meet the requirements of the STCW Convention. On the other hand, Part B is an additional section which can be included in the curriculum optionally, not necessarily. It is also beyond doubt that the use of Part II will also be useful for seafarers and all those who need to or are required to learn Maritime English.

It can be said that the most important thing to be taken into consideration about the SMCP is that the instruction of the SMCP should be based on the specific needs of cadets or seafarers rather than complete or full instruction of all the SMCP sections.

Being an important component of Maritime English, the SMCP is an indispensable part of Maritime English curriculum. But how about the role of the SMCP at sea? Whether the phrases are used at sea has been discussed by researchers and experts in the field recently. Ziarati, et al. (2009) have argued that the SMCP neglects two areas the first of which is that seafarers need to be able to speak English as a foreign language before learning and implementing the SMCP. The second one is that memorizing the SMCP literally without a General English competence are proven not to be useful at the time of panic during an accident or when emergencies occur.

1.10. Maritime English Teaching

Keeping in mind that how something is taught is more important than what is taught, the instruction of Maritime English should be implemented through effective and appropriate language teaching methods. What is intended to say in the previous sentence is that the precise, unambiguous and effective Maritime English instruction to cadets would not be possible without the implementation of effective teaching methodologies. In short, in order to break the language barriers which seem to be a big problem in the industry of international shipping, the importance of Maritime English teaching for effective communication should be recognized.

The good news about what is discussed in the previous paragraph is that a multitude of new teaching methodologies and techniques have been explored, discussed and started to be implemented in Maritime English teaching in recent years. Besides, researchers have been testing the effectiveness of Maritime English instruction which aims at meeting the international standards laid out in the STCW by trying various language teaching methodologies which is also the research topic of this very study. The researchers, language experts, linguists and field specialists have also been working on developing new methods for teaching Maritime English using the benefits of technology.

In their study, Cole, et al. (2007) listed some of the most important issues concerning Maritime English teaching as follows:

- The communicative approach to learning and teaching ME;
- The role of content-based learning;
- Competence-based learning as the basic IMO requirement;
- The typology of ME and ESP;
- The ME instructor as user, adaptor and developer of Maritime English teaching resources (textbooks/course books and related materials);
- Modern ME teaching resources and computer-assisted language learning tools
- The ME instructor as curriculum developer and course designer – conducting needs analyses;
- Issues of Assessment and Evaluation (STCW95 requirements on assessment, EU CEF standards, program credits, etc).

The studies up to now have shown that Maritime English teaching is particularly well-suited with content-based instruction (CBI) which is designed to provide learners instruction in content, in the general framework of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Besides, it should also be noted that all the traditional, modern and innovative foreign language teaching methods which are worked through in 'Language Teaching Methods' section can be adopted by and applied to Maritime English teaching and teaching the SMCP.

1.10.1. Problems in Maritime English Teaching

Students in the maritime field are exposed to at least three years of Maritime English instruction as well as at least eight years of General English instruction with a full year of English preparatory education. However, after studying English so many years, most of the students still cannot use English effectively for communicative or maritime purposes. Most of the graduates are not able to understand ordinary voyage orders, charter contracts, ship owners' instructions (Shen and Wang, 2011) or communicate effectively with the multilingual crew on board or ashore.

A critical problem regarding the failure in Maritime English instruction is stated by (Kluijven, 2009) in his following sentence:

'The Maritime lecturer who refuses to accept developments and novelties, who persist in his or her own outdated views, who has lost the resilience to understand the

young, or who has to use obsolete books and materials because his institute can't or is unwilling to provide the necessary means, is a big threat to the application of good seamanship onboard vessels.'

Another problem stressed by the experienced Maritime English lecturer is that there are discrepancies between classroom theory and shipboard practice due to the misuse of the SMCP and negligence of experienced seafarers who set a bad example to new seafarers who are willing to act according to the competences they have been taught at school. (Kluijven, 2009). According to the author, the difference between practice and theory can only be solved if all the parties from experienced seafarers to instructors are engaged in the process.

Obviously, authors, researchers, Maritime professionals and Maritime English instructors as well as linguists have been working extensively on how to teach Maritime English in a more effective way to satisfy the needs of the marine industry and solve the problems that cause failure in the learning/teaching process. Loginovski (2002) suggests that Maritime English should not mean the maritime knowledge of a seafarer in English but English should be taught in the context of Maritime English. One of the significant contributions to this area is made by Logie (2007) in which she investigated the problems with language competence of the seafarers and listed the following items as shortcomings of Maritime English education at academies and institutions:

- Time allocated to Maritime English
- Up-to-date resources integrating Maritime English content with the Communicative Approach to language learning
- Time to develop practical skills of listening and speaking (with priority given to learning terminology)
- Exam systems evaluating spoken competence
- A standardized qualification for Maritime English trainers
- Opportunities for Maritime English trainers to update their knowledge of both subject content and methodology.

This is useful information for those concerned with Maritime English teaching, and the current problems are trying to be solved through investigations and are being directly tackled by the IMO. The aim of seeking better ways for Maritime English instruction is to let he seafarers graduate from schools or colleges with a practical and active ability to use

Maritime English for communication rather than let them have a passive knowledge of Maritime English.

In order to achieve this goal, colleges or institutions where Maritime English is taught to seafarers should spare more time to Maritime English education and the teaching procedure should be mixed with General English training. Besides, Maritime English content should be updated and with new resources correspondent with the principles of the Communicative approach to language teaching. The four skills in language teaching (speaking, listening, reading, writing) should be adapted to teaching English for maritime purposes and the training should consist of a mixture of specific terminology, Maritime English knowledge (including the related parts of the SMCP) and General English speaking ability and skills. In addition to these, some other problems that cause the failure of effective Maritime English education seem to be that the learning materials and popular English textbooks do not satisfy the needs of maritime English students and neglect the standards of international conventions such as STCW, SOLAS, MARPOL, etc. Another factor causing the failure is that all the language skills (listening, reading, writing and reading) are not paid the necessary attention during the process. Rather than that, students are directed to read and write in order to pass the exam and succeed in the courses. Reading and writing are undoubtedly necessary skills for learning a language but in practice, speaking and listening comes first considering the maritime English area. The remaining two important factors for effective Maritime English teaching are the testing system of Maritime English and the training and qualification of Maritime English teachers and their opportunity and willingness to update their knowledge of both subject content and methodology. These two issues are discussed in detail under the following subtitles: Testing in Maritime English Instruction and Training of Maritime English Teachers.

1.10.2. Testing in Maritime English Instruction

The assessment of both English and Maritime English proficiency of the seafarers is another significant factor in achieving success in the process of Maritime English teaching. It strongly argued by linguists and researchers that the system should not only test the maritime knowledge of a seafarer but also test the English skills of the seafarer. Ziarati (2009) suggests that the assessment system should be vocational in nature and it should be

skill-based without attaching too much importance to grammar unlike the conventional testing system.

1.10.2.1. MarTEL (Maritime Test of English Language)

The lack of international standards for the testing system of Maritime English instruction a Leonardo Project called Maritime Test of English Language (MarTEL) was presented. The project was founded and developed by the European Union and eight major players in the maritime education and training (MET) community across Europe.It is a project consisting of standardized tests of Maritime English for seafareres. The main aim of the MarTEL project is to avoid the communication problems stemming from language inadequacies among seafarers and to ensure full security on board vessels at sea. The MarTEL project also aims to address major problems relating to competency in maritime English forthe well-being of seafarers and those working in the shipping and maritime industriesincluding ports (Albayrak & Ziarati, 2009).

The MarTEL Project offers tests at three phases:

Phase 1 is designed for entry on to merchant navy cadet officer programmes for both deck and engineering cadet officers. This phase is designed for candidates at Cadet Level.

Phase 1 tests at three levels of proficiency: Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced. All levels will include active skills, such as Speaking, Comprehension and Writing. The content will be based on active learning and on maritime terminology and usage with little emphasis on grammar.

Phase 2 is split into two parts. One test is for Deck Officers and the other is for Marine Engineers. This phase is designed for candidates at Officer Level.

Phase 2 is based on TOEFL 550 standards but with content based primarily on Navigation English and Marine Engineering English. These tests will focus on all skills, with less prominence given to grammar.

Phase 3 is also divided into two parts. One test is for Senior Deck Officers and the other for Chief Engineers. This phase is designed for candidates at Senior Officer Level.

Phase 3 is equivalent to TOEFL 600 and aimed at the senior officers in charge of vessels over 3000 GRT. The standard will include a section on language requirements for these vessels (URL-9).

Each test is based on key skills of English language; Grammar, Reading, Listening, Speaking and Writing.So, one of the advantages of MarTEL is that it tests all five main language skills in English – Listening, Reading, Writing and Speaking as well as Grammar/SMCP.

The MarTEL Project remedies the deficiencies of the SMCP. It is a more well-rounded testing system for seafarers than General English language tests such as IELTS , TOEFL, etc. in that MarTEL covers the SMCP while the other language tests do not.

The testing format of MarTEL can be seen in the following diagram.

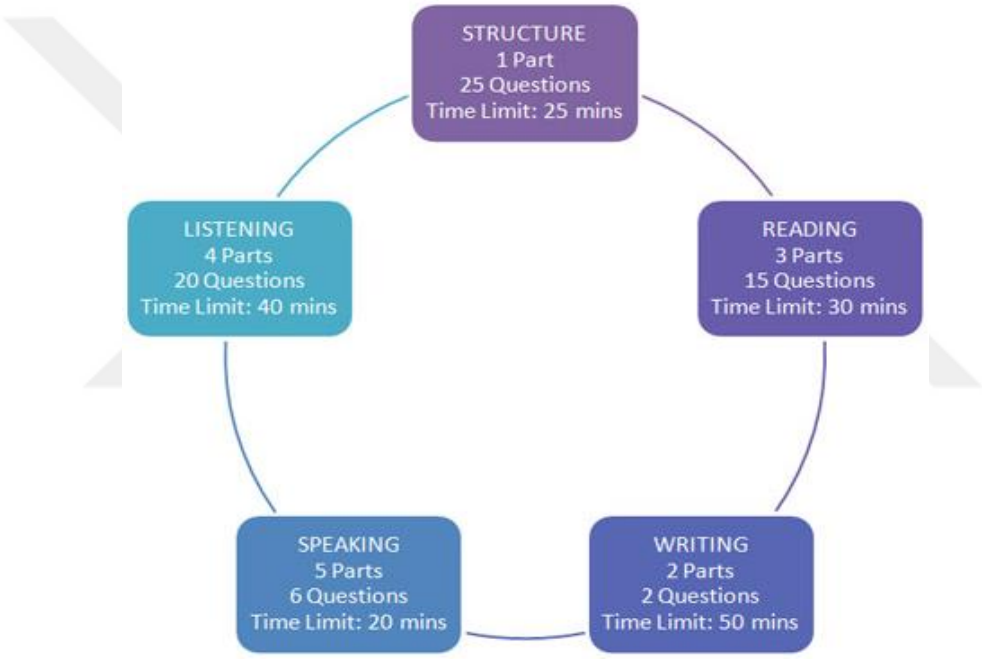


Figure 4. The testing format of martel (URL-10)

There is one test in Phase 1 for those wishing to enter formal Maritime education at tertiary level; two tests in Phase 2 (one for Deck Officers and one for Marine Engineering Offices), and two tests at Phase 3, (one for senior Deck Officer and one for senior Marine Engineers). All test takers have a similarly structured test with all skills tested in the same format. The skills to be tested are Grammar, Reading, Listening, Speaking and Writing. Each test will take approximately 145 minutes (URL-10).

A sample of the start screen of a MARTEL Online Test is provided in Figure 5 below.

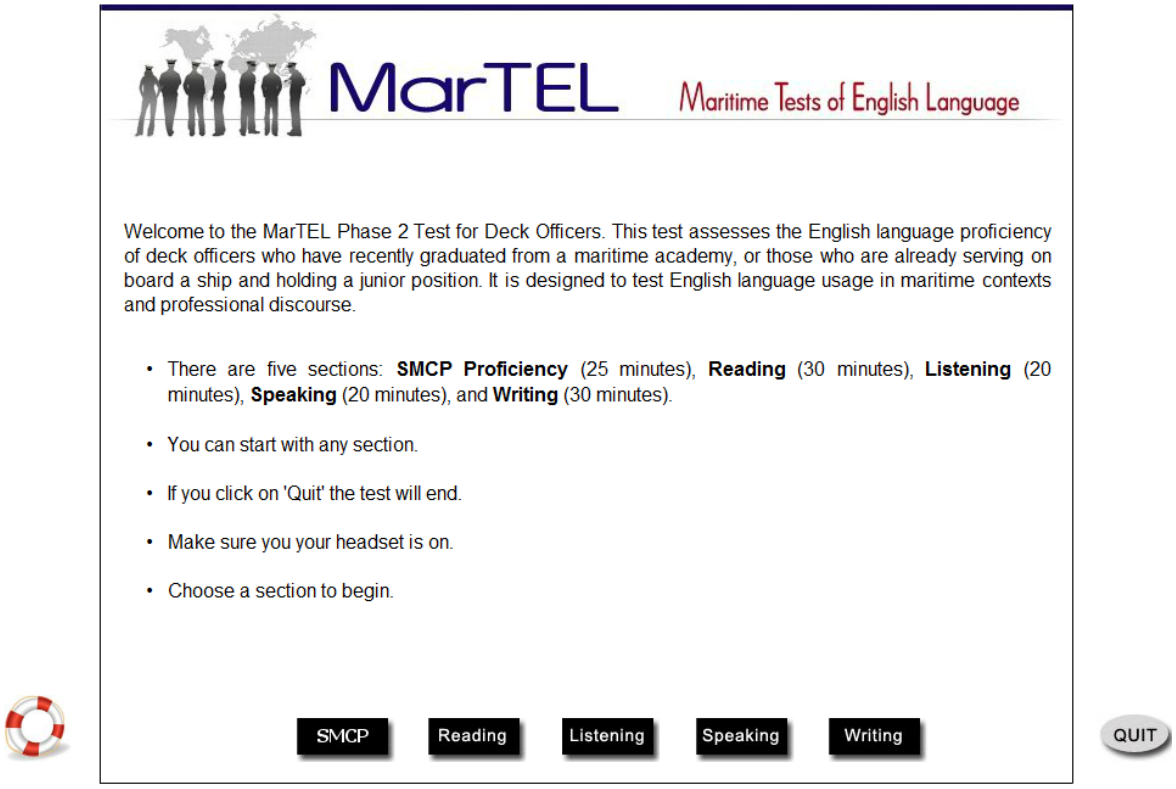


Figure 5. Start Screen for the Phase 2 Deck Officer Test (taken from 'Validation of the MarTEL Test: the Importance of Validity of the Test and the Procedure for Validation in MarTEL' IMEC24)

The MarTEL Project provides standardized and reliable assessment tests for evaluating the English and Maritime English skills of seafarers and all its materials are compatible with the requirements of the latest STCW Convention.

1.10.2.2. IMETS (International Maritime English Testing System)

IMETS is a Maritime English proficiency testing and certification solution developed as a result of the Manila amendments to the STCW which came into force in January 2012. These amendments require reliable and transparent evidence of the Maritime English communicative competency level of all seafarers. The following amendment clearly demonstrates that ship owners are currently under great pressure to ensure that "...at all times on board ships there shall be effective oral communication" and also that their crews hold appropriate certificates demonstrating their competencies (URL-11).

The International Maritime English Testing System (IMETS) is designed to assess a candidate's overall oral communicative efficiency. It is conducted in the form of a one to one interview between the candidate and the examiner under secure test conditions. The test comprises 4 sections lasting about 25 minutes. An Overall Proficiency Score of 1 - 9 is awarded based on Pronunciation, Coherence, Resource, Task Response and Flow.

It is a test of ability to communicate in the English language rather than a test of operational knowledge. It tests plain English in a maritime context rather than test the SMCP knowledge. In addition, it is a test of oral communication consisting of speaking and listening but it does not test reading or writing skills. The face-to-face interview with an examiner lasts twenty minutes and consists of four sections which are: The 'Interview' section in which the test taker is asked some simple questions related to his/her maritime training or working background. The 'Presentation' section in which the test taker is given a topic to talk about 1-2 minutes. The 'Maritime Communications' section in which the test takers hears recordings about a maritime situation and has to decide and say in 20 seconds what the message was and if the communication was on-board, ship-to-ship, ship-to-shore or shore-to-ship. The 'Picture Description and Discussion' section in which the test taker is shown some pictures which tell a story about a maritime incident and expected to report the incident to the examiner by describing all the pictures with as much information as possible.

A sample test from the fourth section 'Picture Description and Discussion' in which the test taker is shown some pictures which tell a story about a maritime incident and expected to report the incident to the examiner by describing all the pictures with as much information as possible can be seen in Figure 6 below.

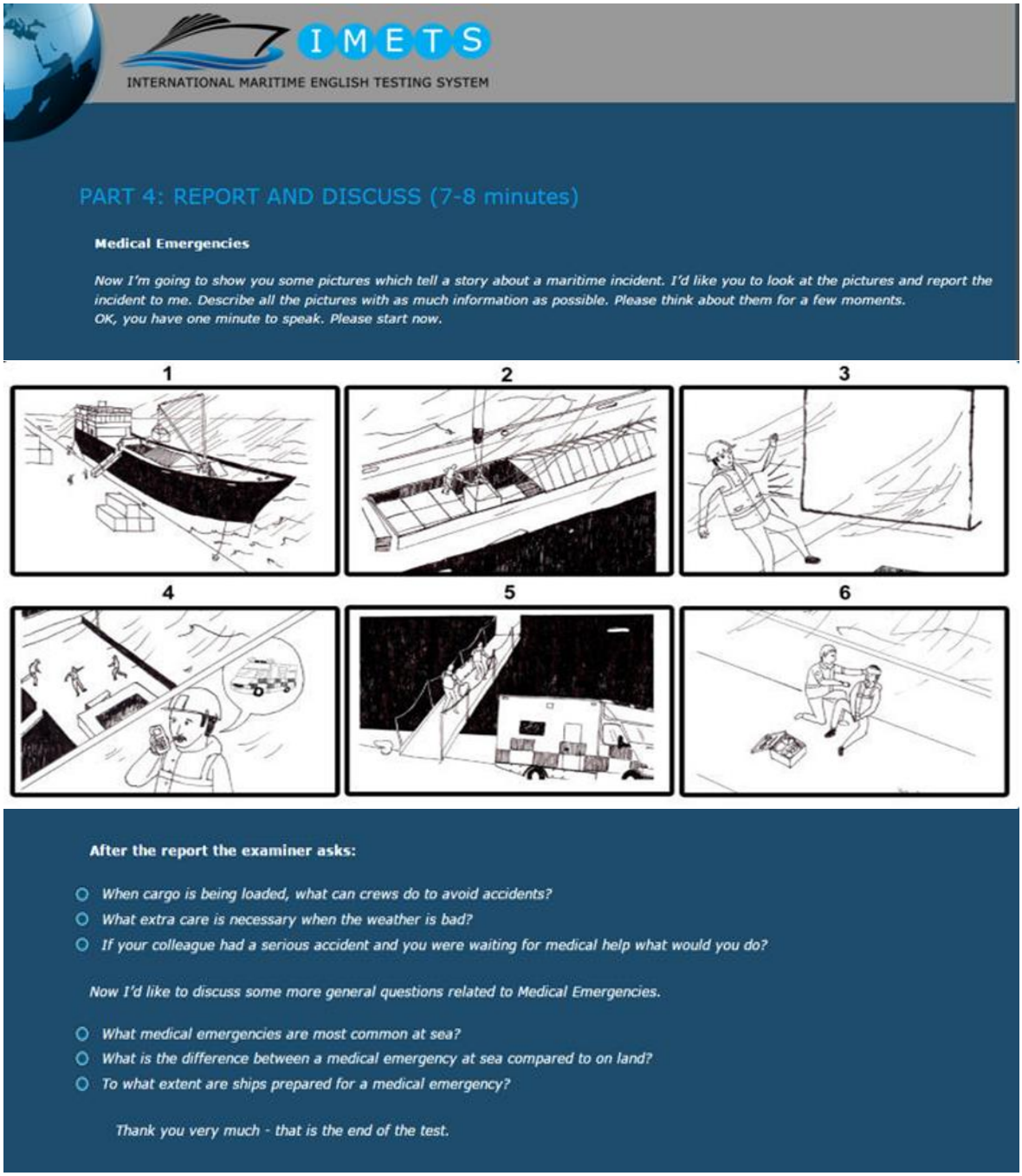


Figure 6. A sample test of IMETS Section 4: Picture Description and Discussion (URL-12)

Both tests are designed as communicative and computer-based (CBT) language tests in Maritime English which aim to test the communicative competence of the test takers. Both assesment systems have proven to be suitable and useful for the Maritime English community as a result of many researches done by experts.

1.10.3. Training and Qualification of Maritime English Teachers

Since the studies show that teachers of Maritime English also lack the necessary skills for maritime communication and that they need to undergo special training courses for teaching Maritime English to their students, it is clearly seen that how the teaching is done and to what extent the needs of the personnel is fulfilled are more important than what is taught as Benton (2003) emphasized that maritime teachers should use materials that suit the specific needs of their maritime students.

To improve the quality of Maritime English education, the first phase to go through is to improve the instructors' or teachers' pedagogical teaching skills. Unless the necessary skills are possessed by teachers, it would be impossible to entirely improve the students' English level.

The Maritime English teachers should also know which resources and materials to use and choose the right resources for Maritime English teaching in the classroom and necessarily make preparations for classroom activities in advance. They should also apply various teaching methodologies and techniques to the teaching activity. It is a necessity for effective teaching environment to make the most of technological developments so they should have the skills to use technology and technological teaching materials including interactive learning/teaching tools, videos, navigation simulators, multimedia teaching, internet and computer-assisted learning/teaching activities ideally.

In addition, the significance of assessment, as mentioned in the previous title should be acknowledged by the teachers and they should be able to test their students' Maritime English skills through reliable and valid examinations which test all the skills in the English language.

Another thing that should be paid attention by the teachers is that speaking and listening skills of seafarers are one jump ahead of the remaining skills since oral communication is vital necessity for seafarers in terms of safety at sea. Keeping this in mind, Maritime English instructors should pay great attention to oral practice, speaking and listening activities, spelling and pronunciation without totally neglecting the other skills.

Apart from all these, Maritime English instructors have a full command of both the English language and Maritime English knowledge as a field of ESP. General English teachers as Maritime English teachers are advantageous because they have a full command

of the English language and its skills such as listening, speaking, reading writing and grammar. Their handicap is that they lack professional Maritime English knowledge or terminology of the subject-matter. Therefore, instructors / teachers of English as a second/foreign language need to be given special training in the subject matter. Davy and Noh (2010) suggest the development of a series of specially designed 'marinating' programs to assist ME instructors in acquiring the appropriate language competencies and minimum background knowledge as required by STCW 95. Another study about the qualifications of a Maritime English instructor done by Cole, et al. (2007) requires a Maritime English instructor:

- To acquire knowledge of and competence in the main linguistic features of Maritime English as well as the methodology of teaching Maritime English for general and specific purposes (taking note of the specific cognitive processes in the maritime field), and
- To gain knowledge of the subject matter (maritime studies) acquired through "twinning" (i.e., in cooperation with the technical subject teachers and during occasional on-board training).

On the other hand, maritime professionals and subject specialists as Maritime English teachers are advantageous in that they have a brilliant command of specific terminology and the subject-matter. However they- may lack the knowledge and ability to teach a language and to apply the language teaching methods which would restrict the effective Maritime English education. Who should teach Maritime English for effective Maritime English education?

1.10.3.1. Who should Teach Maritime English?

Whereas the standards on the English skills of seafarers are determined by the STCW Convention, there are no definite standards for teachers who teach Maritime English. According to Winbow (2002), those who teach English to seafarers shoulder great responsibility. Researchers, linguists and academician have put forward several ideas about the qualifications of Maritime English instructors/teachers. Some argue that Maritime English teachers should be General English teachers who have had experience with teaching English as a second/foreign language while others argue that Maritime English teachers should be subject specialists and Maritime professionals who have had experience

at sea, no matter how proficient they are in the English language. Shen and Wang (2011) suggest that priority should be given to experienced Maritime professionals although their English levels may be lower than General English teachers.

In their study, Cole et al. (2007) listed the types of Maritime English instructors found in Maritime English teaching institutions and identified the types as follows: Career specialists, English language and literature graduates, former seafarers and native English speakers.

They listed the characteristics of career specialists, English language and literature graduates, former seafarers and native English speakers as follows:

Career specialists

- Are graduates/qualified Teachers,
- Have become “marinated” – have seafaring credibility,
- Have a reasonable institutional standing,
- May (or may not) be “qualified” to teach ME.

English language and literature graduates

- Are lovers of English,
- Are not necessarily interested in applied linguistics,
- Prefer to teach general English,
- Are often asked to teach ME but fail to meet the STCW standards.

Former seafarers

- Are technical experts
- Are not necessarily skilled at English,
- Are not necessarily skilled at teaching,
- Often over-challenge their students,
- Could deliver technical subjects in English.

Native English speaking persons

- Are often employed to motivate students to listen/speak in English
- Are not necessarily skilled at English,
- Are not necessarily skilled at teaching,
- Are rarely knowledgeable in maritime matters,
- Are usually employed on short-term contracts.

According to the authors' evaluation of Maritime English instructor types, career specialists who are trained for specialized language teaching are willing to 'marinate' themselves in the field of Maritime English as a subfield of ESP but the negative side of career specialists is that that can be found in very limited numbers in some Maritime English Teaching institutions.

As for English language teaching and literature graduates as Maritime English instructors, they argue that they are qualified teachers of the English language, yet they have little or no knowledge or interest in ESP and its variety, Maritime English. The negative side of English language teachers is that they are generally neither trained in the subject matter nor motivated for the training. The authors suggest that they may be motivated if they are send aboard active merchant vessels or training vessels for some periods (Cole, et al., 2007). However, it should also be kept in mind that teachers of English as a second/foreign language with pedagogical content knowledge and professional teaching knowledge have the potential to be great teachers of Maritime English as a subset of ESP if they are motivated to teach Maritime English and upgrade their teaching skills with special training in the subject matter.

The third category of Maritime English instructors consists of former seafarers who, according to Cole, et al. (2007), are not widely available or willing to work at reduced rates of pay and not suitable for replacing trained (Maritime) English instructors. The authors do not find former seafarers acceptable for Maritime English teaching position because they observed different Maritime English classes given by former seafarers and listed the following, as the results of their observation:

1. In most cases the teacher's command of English, i.e., pronunciation, grammar, fluency, intelligibility, etc., ranked from just tolerable to very poor.

2. In most cases the students were over-challenged, i.e., they either hardly understood the language used or the language applied was so sophisticated that they failed to grasp the subject matter.

3. In most cases if Maritime English teaching or language teaching in general was taking place it was in a haphazard manner, basic pedagogical skills being noticeable in their absence.

4. In most cases there was no adherence to a curriculum where students could follow their progress, there being no revision, briefing or preparation at the beginning of the class and no follow-up or debriefing. (Cole, et al., 2007)

The fourth category of Maritime English teachers is Native English speaking persons who are usually temporarily employed to motivate the students to listen and speak in English. However, in the case of Maritime English teaching, there is a lot more to do than motivate students to listen and speak, that is to say, the native speakers are expected to satisfy greater demands. Therefore, native English speakers may not have the necessary qualifications for teaching or maritime knowledge. Being just a native speaker of English would not be sufficient for being able to teach Maritime English.

The categories of Maritime English instructors mentioned above all contribute in some way to the improvement of Maritime English education, and it can be concluded from the classifications that a Maritime English instructor is required to acquire knowledge of the linguistic features of the English language as well as the knowledge of Maritime discourse and terminology with a good mastery of pedagogical teaching skills. The combination of these qualifications will lead a subject specialist or a General English teacher or a career specialist to be a suitable and qualified Maritime English instructor along with the development of a teacher training program with incentives in reaching international requirements.

1.11. Literature Review

Researchers, academicians, maritime professionals, Maritime English instructors and linguistics have been making in-depth researches in issues related to Maritime English, Maritime English teaching, better methods and ways for effective Maritime English teaching/learning and solving the communication problems onboard in the Maritime community in order to be able to improve safety at sea and reduce the accidents caused by communication problems among multilingual personnel working in the Maritime industry.

The studies that have made contributions to the development of English for Maritime Purposes as a result of their considerable findings related to the field are cited in this section.

In order to avoid accidents caused by the human factor, namely communication, Trenkner (2007) emphasized the urgent need to adopt the SMCP in his article titled ‘The IMO Standard Marine Communication Phrases - a communicative Survival Kit’.

Cole and Trenkner (2004), in ‘Whither Maritime English? – 2012’, attempted to anticipate the future by appreciating the present and understanding the past and answered the question they asked ‘Whither Maritime English’ by saying that it is on the right course.

Trenkner & Cole (2004) explored the current situation of Maritime English Instructors calling upon their own experience, their previous research, personal interviews and a questionnaire in ‘Profiling the Maritime English Instructor.’

Cole et al., (2007) summarized the project “Maritime English instruction, ensuring instructors, competence’’ and they categorize the various types of Maritime English instructors, define the requirements regarding their professional qualifications and provide a guideline for prospective instructors in their study titled ‘Maritime English instruction – ensuring instructors’ competence.’

Trenkner and Cole (2012) observed IMO’s decision-making process, identified and commented on the new provisions in the Convention and the existing provisions that have been invested with a stricter and higher degree of commitment, and gave selected examples demonstrating the impact of the revised STCW Convention upon Maritime English course design, material development and instruction in ‘The STCW Manila Amendments and Their Impact on Maritime English.’

Davy & Noh (2010), in their study titled ‘A Basic Study on Maritime English Education and the Need for Raising the Instructor Profile’, discussed the type of English instructor best suited to help cadets have at least a basic grasp of Maritime English communication, with a view to possessing the level required by STCW 95 within the shortest time and concluded that career specialists would be the best in reaching international requirements.

Pritchard (2004), in his study titled ‘A Databank Of Maritime English Resources – An Invitation for Contributions’, presented a databank of Maritime English resources which contains a digitalized list of textbooks, short course materials, videos, CD ROM and multimedia materials, software and internet resources for the various aspects of Maritime English in order to fulfill the specific needs of both Maritime English teachers and learners and he rested the case by stating that there is no ‘best’ and therefore no single course-book or any material on Maritime English for mandatory universal use and a combination of different materials from any provenance, using different media, and especially if well measured and proportioned to the needs analysis and learning objectives, is the best solution for a successful course of Maritime English for whatever purpose.

In his study ‘English for Maritime Purposes: Communication apprehension and communicative Competence among maritime students in the Philippines’, Rojo-Laurilla (2007) focuses on communication apprehension and speech anxiety of Maritime English learners in a Maritime English classroom in the Philippines. The researcher attempts to determine the levels of communication anxiety of the students and the correlation of the anxiety with articular speech tasks. The results show that students’ communication apprehension was at the average level, which, according to the author, could be because the students’ growing positive attitudes towards learning English throughout the duration of the course. So, it can be concluded from the study that a positive attitude towards a speech activity and a sufficient level of motivation correlates positively with one’s own performance and these are two of the necessary factors to be able to use Maritime English effectively.

In ‘A Psycholinguistic Approach to Maritime Verbal Communication and Maritime Verbal Vocabulary’, Lavinia and Alina (2012) questioned the effectiveness of oral English communication skills of seafarers and explained the main types of verbal Maritime communication that must be improved.

Yang (2011) examined the abbreviations in Maritime English and stated that seafarers need to learn Maritime abbreviations in order to understand the messages and others' real meanings clearly and that Maritime abbreviations do not exist in English dictionaries. Therefore, the author suggested that the employees in the shipping industry should have a background knowledge about the basic-word-building methods and the complete meanings of the abbreviations in order to avoid recoverable errors and listed the common word-formation methods in the English language.

In her article titled ‘Whose culture? The impact of language and culture on safety and compliance at sea’, Logie (2007) stressed the importance of good communication and listed the possible reasons of poor communication skills of the seafarers at sea. She also offered some solutions to understand and resolve miscommunications at sea such as the development of cultural training for seafarers.

Short (2007) centered upon the concept ‘effective communication’ in her ‘Effective communication at sea’ and indicated that effective communication does not mean ‘to know and speak English’. Therefore, the regulations of the STCW Convention on the Standards for Maritime English should be reviewed and replaced with new ones aiming at providing effective communication at sea.

In their study ‘Conducting an English Needs Analysis on Taiwanese Maritime Students’, Chang & Wang (2012) investigated the needs of their maritime students in learning and using English in maritime contexts and pronounced the main difficulties which included the learners’ oral expressions in daily conversations, the proper use of the SMCP and maritime terminologies, the different accents from multinational crew members onboard, and reading difficulties.

In ‘Developing a model on improving maritime English training for maritime transportation safety’ Yercan et al (2005) concentrated on the difficulties of teaching and assessing the outcomes of the teaching of Maritime English at the member schools of the International Association of Maritime Universities (IAMU) from all over the world and proposed some strategies based upon the results of their analysis to reduce the problems and difficulties in this context.

Astranei (2014) presented a traditional Maritime English course and then converted the traditional course into an e-learning format with the intention to point out the advantages of the e-learning format as compared to the traditional one.

Win (2012) in ‘Sharing Experiences and Ideas in Teaching Maritime English to Myanmar Maritime University Students’ focused on maritime English lecturers’ experiences and ideas in teaching Maritime English to their students and the author also stressed the significance English teachers who are dealing with Maritime English.

In ‘To Encourage Accent Neutralization in Maritime English’, Yangon and Win (2012) discussed the nature of accent and effective communication in the maritime industry, pointed out the advantages of neutral accent and proposed some methods to neutralize the accent factor among seafarers.

Yangon et al. (2012), in their study titled ‘Engineering Maritime English: a symbiosis between language, communication and an alligator spanner wrench?’ highlighted the need of the teachers to develop integrated courses, align aims and objectives of Maritime Education and Training (MET) institutions and allow the language to enter its natural environment: the engine room, in order to teach Maritime English successfully.

In their study ‘Ensuring Safety of Navigation at Sea through Maritime Communications: A Linguistic Discourse Analysis’, Ralph et al. (2012) tried to provide a discourse analysis of how the linguistic structures of maritime communication are constructed to represent the choices seafarers shall use in communicative settings to ensure

safety of navigation and the results of their study showed that a simplicity of structure of the discourse system on board was necessary in order to ensure safety.

Zhenyan (2012) proposed a contest of international maritime English among Maritime University (MU) students so as to motivate their learning of ME and give basics a prominent place in Maritime English teaching and training as well in the article titled 'Contest and Proficiency- a Pilot Study of the Feasibility of the International Maritime English Contest among Maritime University Students (IMECMU).'

Salter (2012), in 'Issues on board, with cross-cultural communication' concentrates in the issues on work-place communication where language barriers; cultural barriers; social barriers exist which can cause accidents, incidents or just plain misunderstandings.

In 'The MET teacher versus the use of metaphors' Horck (2012) aimed to find the conceptual metaphors that the maritime faculties used in the English language both in the east and in the west and as a result of his research, he found out that there was a slight difference between the instructors in the east and the west in terms of the use of metaphors in teaching the maritime content.

Ziarati and Fang (2012) presented the CAPTAINS Project, a developing rich media interactive educational software in which learners are able to record and self-assess their performance in communicative English in their paper titled 'The Novelty of CAPTAINS: the Communicative Learning Approach of Maritime English and its Facilitation by Technology'. Their study provides the rationale of the formulation of the new project which is an intercultural, real-life inspired, communicative, technological learning tool.

Demydenko (2012) presented samples of 'terminographic essays' and suggested their use as an independent work for Maritime English students for the improvement of their language proficiency in the paper titled 'A Terminographic Essay as a means of Developing Teaching/Learning Materials for Individual Work of Students'.

In the article titled 'Validation of the MarTEL Test: the Importance of Validity of the Test and the Procedure for Validation in MarTEL', Ziarati et al. (2012) reported on the development of the EU funded Leonardo project called MarTEL which is designed to test mariners' Maritime English skills through a series of online tests designed to cater for all types and ranks of seafarers. Their paper discussed the measures taken to make MarTEL tests reliable and valid in terms of content, requirement, structure, range, depth, assessment and professional judgment. The pilot tests in the study were highly effective and the results of the study proved that MarTEL tests were valid.

Toncheva et al. (2012) explained the factors taken into consideration in the development of the enhanced Oral Test which is one of the outcomes of the EU Funded Leonardo MarTEL PLUS project in their study 'The importance of developing test specification in the process of the Enhanced Oral Test design'. They concluded that developing speaking tests for maritime purposes should be done with greatest care possible and by a team of test developers including a subject matter specialist, somebody with a testing background and a statistician for the greatest validity and reliability.

You (2012), in his study 'A survey report on Maritime English teaching in China', reported a survey on Maritime English teaching in several maritime colleges and higher vocational schools aiming to examine the status of Maritime English Teaching at schools in China and to shed light on the possible factors underlying the teaching patterns, in an attempt to improve Maritime English teaching to meet the IMO requirements on maritime English for deck and engineer officers, as stated in Manila Amendments to STCW Convention. He concluded that most students viewed passing the international competency exam for deck officers and engineers the ultimate goal of learning English and thus that teachers were pushed to teach 'exam English'. The author suggested the development of a new evaluation system for both students' proficiency level and teachers' teaching effectiveness to solve the problem of the unsatisfactory classroom interaction arising from the concentration on an exam-based learning environment.

In the study titled 'What did you say? – Why communication failures occur on the radio', Uchida and Takagi (2012) conducted a questionnaire in order to investigate which elements are possible contributors to communication failures in the Maritime English field. They found out that heavy accent of some people and speed of native speakers often hindered successful communication. They strongly urged that all native speakers of English working in the maritime field should adjust their speech for everyone. They also recalled that the SMCP are expected to be spoken by each user in the Maritime field slowly and clearly.

Arini (2010), in 'Improving Nautical Students' English Mastery Through Need Analysis-based Materials Development', aimed at developing English instructional materials for Nautical Department of Akademi Maritime Yogyakarta based on a need analysis. The survey showed the lack of cadets' English competency that was caused by their reluctance of learning English. They assumed that maritime English was boring and too difficult to learn as the materials were taken from old books and publication that

discusses only on reading and tenses. The result of this study showed that a set of English instructional materials designed based on a need analysis could increase the cadets' interest and motivation to study maritime English.

Culic-Viskota and Kalebota (2013) discussed the rise of Maritime English as a type of ESP and presented the characteristics of ESP to measure and see how well Maritime English fits into the frame of ESP in their study titled 'Maritime English – What Does It Communicate?. Furthermore, they presented the reciprocating influences of General English and Maritime English to illustrate the vivid interaction between the two.

Rashed and Kamal (2010) in 'Maritime English holds a great stake in the both safety and security of merchant vessels', reveal the importance of Maritime English and the need for sufficient English language skills on board ships for the safety and security of the merchant vessels.

Kovacevic (2014), in 'Maritime English Language Restrictedness', proposed that Maritime English is a restricted language which is characterized by a great many specific features on the phonological, morphological, lexical level and syntax level. Therefore, she advises to Maritime English learners to learn the maritime terms first in his/her mother tongue and then move into the Maritime English world.

In 'Maritime English Teaching Approach', Halid & Genova (2009) stressed the problems and difficulties related to language skills in the process of teaching/learning Maritime English and made some suggestions regarding proper teaching techniques.

Lavinia and Alina (2012) revealed in their study titled 'Methods for Improving Maritime English and Learning: An Experimental Case Study' that the teaching/learning process of the maritime code in English can be improved by using psycholinguistic contrastive, communicational and contextual methods.

In 'On Importance of the Hypertext Use in Maritime English Teaching' Bezhanovi et al. (2015) presented a set of advantages and benefits expected by the application of the hypertext technologies in Maritime English teaching. They suggested that the use of hypertext in Maritime English teaching can raise access to learning opportunities and help to improve the quality of education with advanced teaching methods, progress learning outcomes and enable better planning of unlimitedly flexible educational programs.

Cui (2010) supported in 'On the Applications of Modern Educational Technology in Maritime English Teaching from the Perspective of Constructivism' that rapid advances in computer and Internet technologies now plays a vital role in teaching and learning.

Therefore, the author suggests affirms that an Internet-based education environment facilitates students learning without the constraints of time and distance, giving students more opportunities to control their own learning and promotes students' abilities of autonomic learning and increase their comprehensive competence relevantly, such as strengthening and combining their sense of maritime major with real situations, rising their cognitive levels and practical standards in reading, listening, speaking and writing in some ESP fields as maritime and shipping.

The experienced Maritime English instructor Kluijven (2009) argued in his special article 'Speaking up for Seafarers' that there has been a distinct discrepancy between land and sea, between theory and practice within the shipping industry in terms of communication. The author lists many factors causing this discrepancy such as culture, miscommunication, Maritime English lecturers, etc…He reported that the solution to the problem of discrepancies between classroom-theory and shipboard-practice must come from all parties concerned — in this case from the experienced seafarers and instructors.

Ziarati (2009) emphasized the shortcomings of the SMCP in his article Standards for Maritime English for Safer Seas and Ports' and introduced the project MarTEL, a project developed to improve the testing system and overcome the limitations of the SMCP in Maritime English.

Strelkov (2013) stressed the importance of 'communicative approach' in Maritime English teaching and strongly suggested the use of 'communicative approach' as a teaching methodology in teaching English to cadets.

In 'Teaching Maritime English: A Linguistic Approach', Demydenko (2012) outlined the parameters of a linguistically centered concept of developing maritime English teaching materials for non-native learners of Maritime English. The author also introduced initial notions on applying linguistic criteria in the process of developing Maritime English textbooks and argues that a language teacher develops methods and techniques different from a specialist instructor but constantly needs to work in contact with the specialist in order to raise productivity.

Franceschi (2014) illustrated in 'The Features of Maritime English Discourse' the linguistic features of Maritime English both as a type of specialized discourse in academic and professional sectors and as a vehicular language used to facilitate communication at sea. The author concluded that Maritime English is a multi-faceted language with a number of distinct features serving different purposes.

Dževerdanović-Pejović (2013) explored to which extent the rules for radio conversation are applied in a segment of real VHF communication among ships at sea, especially with regard to the application of the SMCP. The author concluded that it takes time to internalize 'limited languages' such as the SMCP for seafarers to use in real situations at sea.

Demydenko (2013), in 'Etymological Studies in Maritime English' presented the general outline of the role of etymology in the field of maritime terminology with the emphasis on its practical application while developing teaching/learning materials for Maritime students. The author included the words origins, history of words, a term's meaning and a term's definition in maritime terminology and stated that all these aspects are interconnected when etymological issues are involved.

In 'The Importance of General English for Mastering of Maritime English / Maritime English as Part of ESP', Tenieshvili (2013) proposed that the good combination of General English and Maritime English can give successful linguistic feedback to seafarers and that a good teacher will combine General English and Maritime English courses in the most effective way to ensure integration of maritime lexis and terminology so that students do not find it difficult to acquire offered knowledge on the proper level.

Pritchard (2013) addressed the urgent need to systematically educate and train Maritime English lecturers/instructors in order to develop their competence and skills in computer-based testing in the role of evaluators, assessors, testers and designers of CBT tests in 'Nice-to-have: Professional Qualification of the Maritime English Lecturer in Computer-based Assessment and Testing.' They informed that this would be possible if pilot projects were conducted within the Maritime English lecturers' community.

In 'Developing Teaching/Learning Resources for ESP Maritime English' Astratinei (2013) emphasized the need for a common language at sea for effective communication on board among multicultural crews and proposed some published Maritime English resources.

Orbe (2013) explored the common beliefs held by maritime instructors from Vietnam, Japan, Thailand, Myanmar, and Indonesia on learning the English language in 'Survey about Language Learning Beliefs among Maritime Instructors'. She also compared the common beliefs between genders and among nationalities. The results revealed that maritime instructors held positive beliefs about language learning on four major aspects, namely, foreign language aptitude and difficulty of language learning.

Bandeira (2013) presented a Maritime English teaching material and developed a teaching approach relying on simulation of realistic situations on board in 'Simulation and Role-Playing – An Interface between Maritime English Classroom and Seafarer's Real Life.'

In 'Language Problems – English for the Turkish Merchant Marine Cadets A Lecturer's Observations' Demirel (2013) proposed that the attitude and willingness of the students to learn and the attitude and willingness of the lecturers to teach is of critical importance for Maritime English teaching.

Kang et al. (2013) made a survey on language difficulties that the Chinese seafarers encountered about the English language and analyzed the problems in China's Maritime English teaching from aspects such as teaching objectives, content of courses and teaching methods in 'A Study on the Teaching Model of Improving Seafarers' Practical Competence in Maritime English.'. They also discussed a teaching model of Maritime English.

In 'Implementing A Blended Learning Approach to Maritime English', Wet (2013) used blended learning in Maritime English instruction and suggested that blended learning is able to bring a great deal more flexibility into the mix, and this is a crucial consideration for an industry where students, cadets and trainees are often unable to visit brick and mortar classrooms on a regular basis.

Albayrak and Yanar (2013) investigated the effects of mass media authentic materials on EFL students' success in listening and speaking accurately and fluently in 'Effects of Mass Media Tools on Speaking Skills in Teaching Maritime English.' They concluded that authentic mass media materials such as television, radio, internet, social networking platforms were helpful in the teaching/ learning environment and that the maritime English instructors should adopt mass media tools in the teaching process.

John et al. (2013) suggested that classroom "low-fi" simulation of bridge team interaction may be used as an innovative means of encouraging and developing competent use of English, including SMCP, during onboard communication in 'Making SMCP Count!. They concluded that the method is excellent for the purposes of producing empirical data for Maritime English research, for teaching maritime communication, for analyzing language use, and for studying communication in general.

It is an inescapable fact that many remarkable and important studies and researches that have made great contributions to the area of Maritime English and Maritime English

teaching are not mentioned in this study due to restricted access or as a result of the misfortune that they may have remained unnoticed. Yet, it can be clearly understood and inferred from all the studies and researches done mentioned above in the field of Maritime English as a sub-field of ESP and Maritime English teaching that the area has caught great attention especially in the recent years and important steps are taken to improve the quality of effective communication at sea. Authors, linguists, experts, experienced seafarers and instructors engaged in Maritime English teaching have been working on issues regarding Maritime English and examining the factors that hinder effective Maritime English5 instruction and effective communication among seafarers. They have been searching for new methods to improve the quality of both Maritime English teaching and learning in order to ensure safety at sea by reducing the accidents caused by the lack of communication skills of the seafarers at sea.

It is acknowledged by the maritime communities worldwide that the minimum standards of English competence for the officers on board ships of 500 gross tonnage or more requires “adequate knowledge of English to enable the officer to use charts and other nautical publications, to understand meteorological information and messages concerning ship’s safety and operation, to communicate with other ships, coast stations and Vessel Traffic Service centers and to perform the officer’s duties with a multilingual crew, including the ability to use and understand the Standard Marine Communication Phrases” (IMO, 2011).

Like the wide range of studies and researches on Maritime Education and Training to achieve this goal, this study also attempts, in a modest way to make a contribution to the field of Maritime English teaching and improve the quality of Maritime English teaching and learning by applying two different foreign language teaching methodologies in Maritime English instruction and comparing the effectiveness of the methods to provide some insights for the Maritime English community by proposing the use of an effective Maritime English teaching methodology.

2. RESEARCH UNDERTAKEN

2.1. Research Methodology

In this section, the methods used in the instruction process are introduced and then the population of the study and the measurement design is presented.

2.1.1. Web-based Instruction and Text-based Instruction

In this study, two different language teaching methods were adapted and implemented on the teaching of English for Deck Officers. The course was instructed using the two common teaching methods, web-based instruction and text-based instruction after the classroom was divided into two groups randomly.

The course materials that are made up from the contents of the course that we mentioned in the previous section were prepared before the instruction period started, considering the methods to be used. The first method, web-based instruction has been a very popular teaching method recently although its origins can be traced back to the 1960s. In this teaching method, the teaching / learning activities take place in the computer room with a computer available for each student. The method has gained its popularity thanks to its many advantages such as being a student-centered method which provides the students with the chance to learn English actively and at their own speed. In other words, this method pushes students to the forefront and prevents boredom in the learning process because the learners are actively engaged in the process. One of the most striking aspects of the implementation of this method is that the medium of instruction is English during the lessons. Students are encouraged to use the target language in the classroom environment instead of their native tongue although the use of first language was not strictly banned.

2.1.1.2. Computer Assisted Language Learning

Given the fact that there is a strong interest in technology use for language learning during the recent years, it has now become necessary to use computer-based technologies and interactive learning tools in the field of Maritime English teaching.

Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) is an approach to both teaching and learning in which the computer and computer-based resources such as the Internet and interactive tools and materials are used to present, reinforce and assess subject to be learned. It usually includes a substantial interactive element. It also includes the search for and the investigation of applications in language teaching and learning.

Technology began to be used in foreign language teaching especially in the second half of the twentieth century. Today, computers provide us with the opportunity to use a more powerful, cheaper and faster access to information and insruction. Especially since recently, there is a boom of interest in using computers and the internet for foreign language teaching and learning due to the facilities it provides us with such as the unlimited materials in the four skills writing, reading, speaking and listening, as well as grammar and problem solving.

However, the use of computer technologies in Maritime English teaching which can be regarded as a subfield of English for Specific Purposes has a more recent history. Maritime English instruction at most universities especially in Turkey were carried out with traditional language teaching methods thus far, with the popularity of current language teaching methods and the benefits of technology, experts in Maritime English teaching have developed Maritime English teaching and learning tools for interactive use.

Computer-assisted language learning is a popular method in language teaching and learning in which computer and the internet is used as an aid to presentation, reinforcement and assessment of a material to be learnt, usually including a substantial interactive element (Davies, 2000). Levy (1997) defines CALL more succinctly and more broadly as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning". There are many versions of CALL and the technologies used in CALL instruction generally fall into two categories, software and Internet-based activities. Software used in a CALL environment can be designed specifically for foreign/second language learning or adapted for this purpose. hese generally are drill programs that consist of a brief introduction plus a series of questions to which the learner responds and then the

computer gives some kind of feedback. On the other hand, internet-based (web-based) activities vary considerably, from online versions of software (where the learner interacts with a networked computer), to computer-mediated communication (where the learner interacts with other people via the computer), to applications that combine these two elements.

The history of CALL development are divided into three phases which are behavioristic CALL, communicative CALL and integrative CALL. Behavioristic CALL is defined by the then-dominant behavioristic theories of learning of Skinner as well as the technological limitations of computers from the 1960's to the early 1980's. Communicative CALL is based on the communicative approach that became prominent in the late 1970's and 1980's. In the communicative approach, the focus is on using the language rather than analysis of the language, teaching grammar implicitly. It also allowed for originality and flexibility in student output of language. Integrative/exploratative CALL, starting from the 1990's, tries to address these criticisms by integrating the teaching of language skills into tasks or projects to provide direction and coherence. It also coincides with the development of multimedia technology (providing text, graphics, sound and animation) as well as computer-mediated communication. The explorative approach which is used in this study is widely used today, including the use of Web concordancers and other Web-based CALL activities.

Research from many earlier studies have provided lots of evidence on the effectiveness of computer based instruction in foreign language teaching and learning. Findings from numerous studies have suggested that the use of visual media supports all the skills in a language as well as vocabulary learning.

Based on the evidence of the effectiveness of computer based instruction and web-based learning technologies, in my study, I aimed to test the effectiveness of computer-based instruction on Maritime English teaching, using an interactive learning material which is called the Mareng Interactive Learning Tool compared to the traditional teaching methods.

2.1.1.2.1. Mareng Interactive Learning Tool

As the teaching material of the course, The Mareng Interactive Learning Material, the contents of which is compatible with the content of our course was downloaded on the

computers for the use of students. The Mareng Interactive Tool is a web-based Maritime English teaching / learning material which aims at teaching Maritime English to deck officers in an interactive environment at their own speed. The MarEng project concentrated on creating an innovative Web-based Maritime English Language Learning Tool. The project was partially financed by the Leonardo da Vinci Program of the European Union. It is free to download and use the tool all over the world. Some parts of the marine interactive material are shown in Figure 7 below.

Figure 7. Mareng interactive learning material

The use of the Mareng learning tool, the computer based interactive teaching material I applied in my study is expected to contribute to the effective use of the Maritime English knowledge of the students and improve their abilities of communication. Mareng Interactive Learning Tool is a Computer-Based Learning material on Maritime English which is designed for both learning and teaching. The purpose of the MarEng Plus project

was to improve the usability of the Web-based Maritime English Learning Tool MarEng, as well as expand the user group of the tool.

During the first year of its existence, the learning tool was widely taken into use by different user groups (e.g. maritime students and workers) all over the world. However, based on the feedback received, the tool was missing some relevant content. During the recent years, all over the world there has been growing interest in issues related to security and the environment, and the same goes with maritime industry. Therefore, the MarEng Plus project was carried out to create new material under the themes of marine environment and maritime security. The feedback had also revealed that the lower level English learners were in need of an elementary level, as the original MarEng learning tool consists of only intermediate and advanced levels. Teachers who were using the MarEng tool considered that their teaching process could be made more efficient by creating a teacher's manual. Therefore, creating of an elementary level and a teacher's manual were part of the MarEng Plus project. As the maritime workers in particular are very mobile, it was also appropriate to find solutions to transfer the MarEng learning tool into the mobile learning environment. Therefore, the project also included transfer of the MarEng maritime glossary into a form that can be utilised in a mobile phone, even if the phone is out of satellite connection. All the project activities were performed by a partner group representing several European Union countries, most of the partners being the same as in the previous MarEng project. The partners' wide background in shipping industry and maritime English teaching gave a strong basis for the project success. The MarEng Plus project team foresees a strong and wide impact by continuing dissemination of the MarEng learning tool all over the world to all different kinds of users.

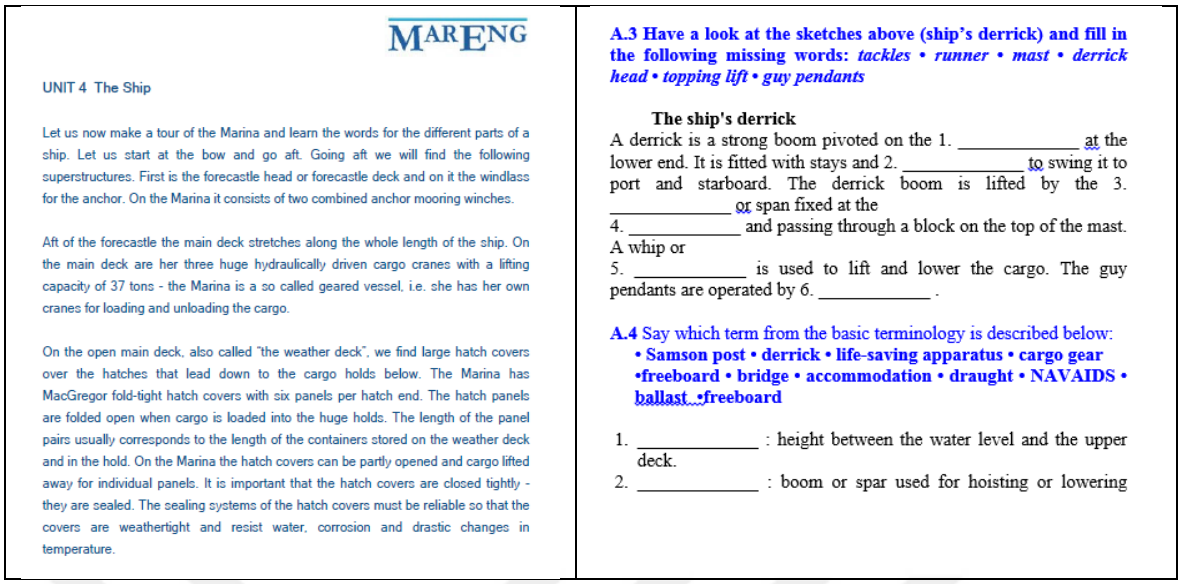
2.1.1.2.2. Grammar-Translation Method

The second teaching method that we implemented on the second group is the traditional text-based language teaching method has widely been used throughout the world. The method requires the instruction to take place in a classroom environment in a teacher-centered way using textbooks or printed papers / texts as teaching / learning materials. The use of first language is common and the lessons are generally performed in the native tongue of the students. The translation technique is also common in the teaching / learning process.

The grammar translation method is a foreign teaching method which focuses on translation and the teaching of grammar as the main activities. It was the most common and traditional foreign language teaching method at schools up to now and it is still widely used in many foreign language teaching environments. Classes in the grammar-translation method are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language and vocabulary is taught in the form of isolated words. The exercises and drills usually consist of translating the given texts and passages into the mother tongue. Students are asked to read te given passages and then to translate them into their mother tongue. Here, translation may either be written or spoken. The success of translation made by the students show that they succeeded in the subject they are learning about.Textbooks or copies of texts are used as the classroom materials in this method. Teachers usualy provide the students with the necessary course materials to be learnt. The method requires extensive memorization and there is little student/teacher or student/student interaction. Students are asked to memorize the words, phrases or rules of the target language to be able to make up sentences with the new words they learnt in the texts.

The principle features and many characteristics of the grammar translation method have been central to language teaching throughout the ages and are still valid today.

Since the method is very much based on the written word and texts are widely in evidence, the materials of the learners to whom the traditional method is implemented in this study consisted of the printed versions of the interactive documents including the activities, drills, and exercises at the end of the units. The students follow the lesson under the guidance of the teacher/ lecturer, read and translate the passages and ask for the unfamiliar vocabulary to the teacher in order for a better translation. Some parts of the printed format of the Mareng Interactive Tool for a text-based instruction from the fourth Unit, The Ship are shown in Figure 8 below.



MARENG

UNIT 4 The Ship

Let us now make a tour of the Marina and learn the words for the different parts of a ship. Let us start at the bow and go aft. Going aft we will find the following superstructures. First is the forecastle head or forecastle deck and on it the windlass for the anchor. On the Marina it consists of two combined anchor mooring winches.

Aft of the forecastle the main deck stretches along the whole length of the ship. On the main deck are her three huge hydraulically driven cargo cranes with a lifting capacity of 37 tons - the Marina is a so called geared vessel, i.e. she has her own cranes for loading and unloading the cargo.

On the open main deck, also called "the weather deck", we find large hatch covers over the hatches that lead down to the cargo holds below. The Marina has MacGregor fold-tight hatch covers with six panels per hatch end. The hatch panels are folded open when cargo is loaded into the huge holds. The length of the panel pairs usually corresponds to the length of the containers stored on the weather deck and in the hold. On the Marina the hatch covers can be partly opened and cargo lifted away for individual panels. It is important that the hatch covers are closed tightly - they are sealed. The sealing systems of the hatch covers must be reliable so that the covers are weathertight and resist water, corrosion and drastic changes in temperature.

A.3 Have a look at the sketches above (ship's derrick) and fill in the following missing words: *tackles • runner • mast • derrick head • topping lift • guy pendants*

The ship's derrick

A derrick is a strong boom pivoted on the 1. _____ at the lower end. It is fitted with stays and 2. _____ to swing it to port and starboard. The derrick boom is lifted by the 3. _____ or span fixed at the 4. _____ and passing through a block on the top of the mast. A whip or 5. _____ is used to lift and lower the cargo. The guy pendants are operated by 6. _____ .

A.4 Say which term from the basic terminology is described below:
• Samson post • derrick • life-saving apparatus • cargo gear •freeboard • bridge • accommodation • draught • NAVAIDS • ballast •freeboard

1. _____ : height between the water level and the upper deck.
2. _____ : boom or spar used for hoisting or lowering

Figure. 8. Text-based learning material

2.2. Study Design

Within the concept of the design of the study, the first step was to make a comprehensive and detailed literature review into Maritime English and Maritime English teaching. Both national and international scientific studies were explored and to get a better sense of what is already known from the past research and what is needed to be known while planning research for the future. Then, two different and common foreign language teaching methods which are explained in the research methodology section were adapted to the contents of the course of 'English for Deck Officers' and the two methods were applied to the two learner groups during the implementation period of the experimental research.

Before the implementation of the methods to the students, an English placement test, success perception test and an attitude test were applied to the students at the beginning of the academic term. Seeing that the greatest majority, 50 out of 61 of the students were in the intermediate level in English language and seeing that almost all of the students had a positive attitude towards learning English as a result of the questionnaires, it was concluded that the classroom was at an equal basis in terms of English levels and the factors that may affect their learning.

So, the classroom was randomly divided into two groups, according to their school numbers. Those who ended up with even numbers formed one group, those who ended up with odd numbers formed the other group and the experimental process of the

implementation started. Group 1 was instructed with the computer assisted language learning method where I applied the mareng interactive learning tool in the classroom and group 2 was instructed with the traditional text-based grammar-translation method which I brought lecture notes to the class, delivered them to the students. The implementation lasted for 14 weeks and 3 hours for each week. The students took a pre-test before the implementation and a post-test after the implementation to see their stage of development at the end of the course and they took the regular mid-term exam and final exam during the term.

In addition, the Maritime English success of the learners were compared with their university entrance exam scores to see and reveal if there was a connection between the two or not.

2.3. Population Design (Selection of Participants)

The population of the study consists of cadets who have been studying at Maritime Transportation and Management Engineering Department at the Faculty of Marine Sciences at Karadeniz Technical University in the city of Trabzon in Turkey. The students are on their second year of their undergraduate education. There are, in total, 61 students who are in their second year of their university education at the Department of Maritime Transportation and Management Engineering. All of these students are responsible for attending the course of Maritime English in the program in their second year. Another information about the population of the study is that all the students used as subjects in the study have acquired a certain level of knowledge on the English language due to their past education and experiences. They all attended an English proficiency exam at the beginning of the first year of their university education. Some of them succeeded in passing the exam while others failed. Those who failed attended a preparatory training consisting of one school year to learn English and reach the level of those who passed the exam. In this way, they were able to continue their education in their own department. To put it simply, all the students who participated in the study as subjects have a certain level of knowledge on the English language due to their past education and experiences.

2.4. Measurement, Data Collection Design and Data Analysis

Two different teaching methods were used to teach Maritime English vocabulary and topics to cadets. The implementation of the instruction process lasted for fourteen weeks, the period of an academic term. Three hours of training was provided for students each week for fourteen weeks.

This investigation was conducted through an elaborately and systematically designed procedure. In the first step of the study – the first week of the instruction period- each student's English level who participated in the study as a subject was determined. The students took the English placement test which tests structures, vocabulary, reading and writing skills in the English language. It has a maximum score of 100. There are 76 multiple-choice items in the test. Each of the questions are worth one point. There are also additional 24 points available for the test's writing items. The test starts with easier items and becomes progressively more difficult, including items from all levels. The evaluation of the results was carried out using the Placement Conversion Table. The Placement Conversion Table was used to decide which level the students were at. The levels were classified according to Common European Framework division of levels. Students who scored between 0-20 were at the level of A1 (Beginner), who scored between 20-39 were at the level of A2 (Pre-Intermediate), who scored between 40-69 were at the level of B1 (Intermediate), who scored between 70-79 were at the level of B2 (Upper-Intermediate), who scored between 80-94 were at the level of C1 (Advanced) and who scored between 95-100 were at the level of C2 (Proficiency). After the English proficiency exam, two questionnaires testing the perception of success and attitudes of the students towards the English language were given to the students to fill out. The first part of the former questionnaire included a personal information section. The second part of it consisted of items prepared to measure the students' perception of success to learn English. The questionnaire of perception of success scale consisted of items for those who considered themselves as successful English language learners and items for those who considered themselves as unsuccessful language learners. The questionnaires were adapted in accordance with the scope and aim of the research. The questionnaires were also presented to students in the Turkish language since the language of the questionnaires were thought to include the possibility of affecting the students' responses. In this case, the risk of

misunderstanding the questionnaire items were thought to be reduced because the students had the chance to read the items in their mother tongue.

In the following step, the students were randomly divided into two groups. The only criteria while forming the two groups was the students' school numbers. Those whose numbers ended with an even number formed the first group and those whose numbers ended with an odd number formed the second group. As a result of this division, the first group consisted of 31 students and the second group consisted of 30 students. Since tests offer objective information for analysis and discussions, each group was implemented a pre-test before the instruction stage and a post-test after the instruction ended each week. The importance of such tests are also pointed out by Parrot (1993) in his explanation that tests "provide teachers with some form of feedback to set against impressionistic judgments about the effectiveness or otherwise of particular materials, techniques or approaches and to help them in making future decisions about using these" (Parrot, 1993).

The first group was instructed using a computer based interactive teaching approach in the computer room and the second group was instructed using a traditional text-based teaching method in the classroom. The period lasted for 14 weeks, 3 hours per group each week. The students in both groups took a common mid-term exam in the 7th week of the period and a common final exam at the end of the term.

The materials used in the computer based training of the first group was the web-based Maritime English Learning Material, Mareng. The Mareng Learning material was downloaded on all the computers for the use of the students. The content of the lecture named ''English for Deck Officers'' was compatible with the syllabus of Mareng Interactive Tool. Since Mareng Interactive Tool's content was adaptable to the course content, the syllabus consisting of 14 weeks was adapted from the interactive tool.

The materials used in the traditional text-based instruction were the printed versions of the Mareng Interactive Learning material including visuals, pictures and exercises. All the students in the second group were supplied with the texts at the beginning of each lecture as the course materials.

During the experimental process of implementation, learners were unconscious about the procedure and they reacted to the instructional period in a naturalistic way.

The quantitative analysis of the data collected was carried out, computed and tabulated by using SPSS Ver. 20 package.

3. RESULTS

In this section, the results of the study are revealed and analyzed in the following tables. In the first step, the English proficiency exam results of the learners who took the test at the beginning of the term are shown in a tabulated format.

Table 1. English levels of the learners

Level	CEFR	N
Beginner	A1	0
Pre-Intermediate	A2	6
Intermediate	B1	50
Upper-Intermediate	B2	5
Advanced	C1	0
Proficiency	C2	0

As it can be seen from Table 1, 50 among 61 students were at the level of B1 (Intermediate) according to the Common European Framework Reference for Languages scale. This means that most of the students got close marks, between 40 and 69. Six of the students were at the level of A2 (Pre-Intermediate), all of the six students' grades were between 34 and 39 which means that their marks were really close to reaching level B1. Lastly, 5 of them had higher marks and got the level B2 (Upper-intermediate). Looking at this table, it can be easily interpreted that the English levels of the students that we conducted our research with were close to one another since they had a one-year of prep education in the English before they started being educated in their own field. In the next step, students' perceptions of success and failure about learning English were surveyed by conducting the following questionnaire in Table 2.

Table 2. Perception of success questionnaire

Perception of Success Frequencies				
Questions		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Perception of Success	• Boş zamanlarımda sürekli İngilizce calışıyor, İngilizce kitap, gazete vb. okuyorum.	1	1,4	3,3
	• Sınavlar kolay oluyor, bu da basarımı yükseltiyor.	4	5,7	13,3
	• Dersi cok dikkatli dinliyorum.	9	12,9	30,0
	• Boş zamanlarımda İngilizce filmler,diziler izliyor, İngilizce müzik dinliyorum.	20	28,6	66,7
	• İngilizce ögrenmeye ilgi duyuyorum, İngilizceyi seviyorum.	16	22,9	53,3
	• Sınıf arkadaşlarımla rekabet icerisindeyim.	1	1,4	3,3
	• Kelime bilgimi gelistirmek icin sürekli sözlük kullanıyorum.	4	5,7	13,3
	• Sınavlarda kendime güveniyorum.	9	12,9	30,0
	• Kendimle yarışıyor, önceki sınav sonuçlarımdan daha yüksek notlar almaya çalışıyorum.	2	2,9	6,7
	• Ögretmenim beni cesaretlendiriyor ve teşvik ediyor.	1	1,4	3,3
	• Sürekli derse katılıyorum ve sınava çok iyi hazırlanıyorum.	1	1,4	3,3
	• Ögretmenim çok iyi ve bilgili, bu da İngilizce başarımı olumlu yönde etkiliyor.	2	2,9	6,7
Total		**70**	**100**	**233,3**

According to the questionnaire which was carried out in students' native tongue in Table 2, the mostly selected item for why the students considered themselves successful in English and learning English was this one : ''I watch English movies and TV series and I listen to music in English in my free time.'' with the rate of 28,6%. The second mostly selected item was '' I'm interested in learning English. I love English.'' with the rate of 22, 9%. The items of the questionnaire that were mostly rated by the students make it clear that most of the students have a positive perception on English and learning English. The next table shows the main reasons why students considered themselves as ineffective learners of English.

Table 3. Perception of failure questionnaire

Perception of Failure Frequencies				
Questions		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Perception of Failure	Sinavlarda surekli talihsizlik yasiyor ve bilgilerimi sinav kagidina aktaramiyorum	8	8,8	21,6
	Sinavlarda cok heyecanli ve gergin oluyorum	11	12,1	29,7
	Yeterince ingilizce calismiyorum	27	29,7	73,0
	Sinav sorularini dikkatli bir sekilde okumuyorum	3	3,3	8,1
	Sinavda vaktimi iyi degerlendiremiyorum	4	4,4	10,8
	Ingilizceden zevk almiyorum,ingilizceyi sevmiyorum.	9	9,9	24,3
	Ogretmenim iyi degil bu da ingilizce basarimi olumsuz yonde etkiliyor	6	6,6	16,2
	Ingilizce sinavlarini pek ciddiye almiyorum, bu da basarimi dusuruyor	4	4,4	10,8
	Ingilizce ogrenebilme konusunda kendime guvenmiyorum	10	11,0	27,0
	Sinavlar cok zor oluyor, bu da iyi not almami engelliyor	9	9,9	24,3
Total		**91**	**100,0**	**245,9**

According to the third table which is given above, the mostly rated item by the students for their perception of failure is the item ‘’I don’t study English enough.’’ with the rate of 29, 7% and the second item was ‘’I get nervous and tense during the exam.’’ with 12, 1%. The selection of these items by the majority can be interpreted in the way that most of the students attribute their failure in English to a lack of study or being nervous in the exams which shows that they don’t have a negative attitude towards English and that they believed that they could succeed in learning it if they studied enough. After analysis of the questionnaires, the students were divided into two groups randomly and both groups were implemented a pre-test before lessons and a post-test after the lessons. The percentages of success rates are given in Table 4.

Table 4. The mean of pre-test and post-test results

Groups	Average Score of Pre-Test	Average Score of Post-Test	Percentage of Variation
Group 1	24	69	187,5
Group 2	28	53	89,29

Table 4 shows that the Maritime English knowledge of the students in each group was very close to each other and was probably due to their first year of academic education in their own department.

The pre-test results before the instruction with the percentages of 24 and 28 shows that the students in the groups shared similar background knowledge at the outset. Then the first group was instructed using the interactive or web-based method for teaching specific English for maritime purposes and the second group were instructed using the traditional text-based method using the technique of translation widely. At the end of the instruction, both groups took the post-test which included the same questions with the pre-test. The mean of the marks of the students in the first group was 69 whereas the mean of the marks of the students in the second group was 53. Table 4 only shows the rates of the first week's pre-test and post-test, this practice was repeated every week before and after the instruction and the increase in the average values of pre-test and post-results was always higher in the first group.

After seven weeks of instruction, all the students were supposed to take the mid-term exam and they were tested with an exam which totally consisted of all the things that was taught during seven weeks no matter what the methods used for teaching were, because the topics were the same each week. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5. The averages of Mid-term exam results of the groups

Descriptive Statistics Group_1					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mid-Term Exam	31	19	88	49,71	18,208
Valid N (listwise)	31				
Descriptive Statistics Group_2					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Mid-Term Exam	30	9	70	33,20	17,529
Valid N (listwise)	30				

As seen in Table 5, the mean of the mid-term exam results of the first group was 49,71 and the mean of the mid-term exam results of the second group was 33,20. In a time period of seven weeks, the students the first group who used the interactive learning tool actively showed more success than those who relied on worksheets consisted of the printed texts of the interactive tool. After the mid-term exam, a time period of 7 more weeks and

instruction process passed and the students took the final exam. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The averages of Final exam results of the groups

Descriptive Statistics Group_1					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Final_Exam	31	30	94	63,58	16,528
Valid N (listwise)	31				
Descriptive Statistics Group_2					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Final_Exam	30	0	87	46,20	22,013
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Table 6 shows that the mean of the final exam results is 63, 58 in the first group whereas the mean of the same exam's results in the second group is 46, 20. The success rate of the first group is above the success rate of the second group, as in the mid-term exam. This shows that the first group showed a more successful learning process than the second group both in the mid-term exam and the final exam. This fact can be seen more clearly in Figure 9 below.

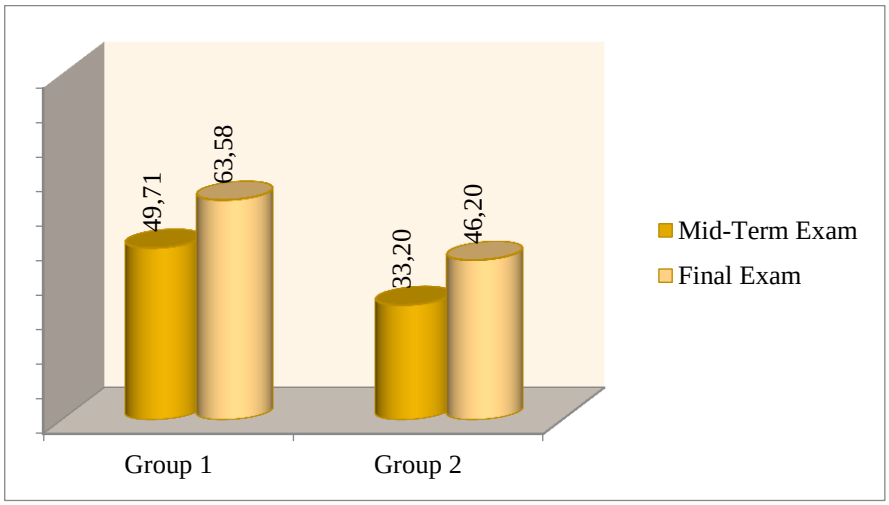


Figure 9. Comparison of the groups

The success of both groups increased in the final exam, which may be because of the fact that students pay greater attention to the final exams than mid-term exams because the role of final exams in passing the course at the end of the year is more than the role of mid-

term exams. Although each group witness a rise in the success rates, the first group is clearly seen to be more successful than the second group in terms of the results of the exams.

The comparison of the students' success rates in Maritime English mid term and final exams and their success in the university entrance exam (OSYM) is also included in this study. The comparison is shown in Table 7.

Table 7. Comparison of the students' Maritime English success with their University Entrance Exam Scores

Model Summary				
Model	R	**R Square**	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,043[a]	**,002**	-,015	15,04183
a. Predictors: (Constant), Grade-point Average				

ANOVAa						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	**Sig.**
1	Regression	24,258	1	24,258	,107	**,744**[b]
	Residual	13349,134	59	226,257		
	Total	13373,393	60			
a. Dependent Variable: OSYM Scores						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Grade-point Average						

The statistical analysis of the comparison of the students' Maritime English success with their University Entrance Exam scores shows that there exists no relation between the two. The R square value and the significance value shows the unrelatedness of the two variables.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Maritime English used to be regarded as a minor subject but the situation changed considerably when it was understood that quite a number of tragic and costly accidents (30-40%) happened due to communication deficiencies, first of all due to insufficient command of Maritime English now. It is well known all around the shipping industry that English is the main and only language that should be used in any type of maritime communication. Even so, more and more people, especially students of Maritime Universities from countries where a different language is used for teaching, have trouble understanding the importance of speaking English. The need for effective communications at sea and ashore is internationally well known by all the shipping industry and the seafarers are obliged to gain the appropriate skills and knowledge to communicate effectively.

In the world of international shipping, with seafarers from many countries sailing on ships all over the world, effective communication from ship-to ship and ship-to-coast is vitally important in order to ensure safety of navigation at sea. In order to prevent breakdowns in communication and cooperation at sea, instruction and practice of Maritime English is a very important element in maritime education.

The International Maritime Organization whose main concerns are to take the necessary technical precautions to ensure the security of navigation at international seas and to encourage the regulation of international norms regarding this has made many regulations aimed at reducing the maritime accidents up to now. In spite of technological developments on marine and international safety rules, current accident rates in the sector still constitute a serious problem. The survey shows that in spite of all precautions, marine accidents could not be prevented. There are a lot of sub-factors that cause the humans to have accidents who are considered as the main reasons of maritime accidents. One of these sub-factors is the lack of communication. This sub-factor which is one of the reasons why people have maritime accidents is believed to be eliminated if effective Maritime English teaching is enabled for the people who work in the maritime industry.

This study aimed at providing the learners with a better teaching method of English for maritime purposes and compared two methods which are the popular web-based teaching method and the traditional text-based teaching method in teaching Maritime

English to cadets. As the result of the study, it was seen that the web-based instruction was more effective than the text based instruction for students in learning Maritime English. The interactive learning tool can be said to be a more efficient way to teach Maritime English to students than the traditional text based instruction. Mareng Interactive learning tool attracted the attention of the students as a learning material since all the students are substantially engaged with computers today and the Maritime English teachers are advised to adapt their lectures to interactive, web-based teaching methods and techniques to attract students' attention more than the traditional teaching methodologies. Besides, the web-based teaching method is also advantageous in the fact that it is a student centered method in which students are actively engaged in the process and can trace their own learning speed. In sum, it is suggested that web-based instruction should be adapted to Maritime English teaching rather than implement a traditional instruction.

The use of target language in Maritime English instruction was also seen to be more effective than the use of first language in class. Visuals and role plays with dialogs in the field which were taken from the Mareng Learning Tool caught the attention of the learners more although first language use is regarded as more comprehensive. Therefore, it was seen that web-based instruction in which e-learning tools are used should be adapted to Maritime English teaching rather than implement a traditional instruction in order to create effective Maritime English teaching/learning environments.

In addition, the results of the comparison of the university entrance exam scores of the students and their success average in Maritime English showed that there exists no significant relation between their success in Maritime English exams and the university entrance exam. Students who showed underachievement compared to the others were seen to show overachievement or the reverse.

5. SUGGESTIONS

Maritime English teachers are offered to adapt their lectures to interactive, web-based teaching methods and techniques to attract students' attention more than the traditional language teaching methodologies.

This study can be improved by looking for other innovative language teaching methods and trends in order to contribute to the maritime community. Besides, interactive teaching / learning materials for teaching Maritime English should be upgraded and new materials should be developed in order for the Maritime English learners to make use of.

Besides, not only Maritime English teachers but also policymakers should develop new regulations to be brought into force regarding the subject of Maritime English teaching. In this way, it can be possible to reduce the destructive effects of entropy in the world which has been changing and developing thanks to the concept of globalism and to propose more innovative Maritime English teaching methods. By this means, it will be possible to reduce the effects of the human factor, -the main reason of maritime accidents- on accidents to some extent.

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7. APPENDICES

İNGİLİZCE'YE KARŞI TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ

0 = KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM.
1 = KATILMIYORUM.
2 = KISMEN KATILIYORUM.
3 = KATILIYORUM.
4 = KESİNLİKLE KATILIYORUM.

	TUTUM ÖLÇEN DAVRANIŞLAR	0	1	2	3	4
1	İngilizce bana sıkıcı geliyor.					
2	İngilizce sevdiğim dersler arasındadır.					
3	İngilizce konuşmayı sevmiyorum.					
4	İngilizce öğrenmek bana göre zevklidir.					
5	İngilizce çalışırken canım sıkılıyor.					
6	İngilizce'den nefret ediyorum.					
7	İngilizce dersinde alıştırmalar yapmaktan zevk alıyorum.					
8	İngilizce derslerinde kendimi rahat hissediyorum.					
9	İngilizce'yi sevdiğim için İngilizce derslerini hiç kaçırmam.					
10	İngilizce şarkılar dinlemekten zevk almıyorum.					
11	İngilizce öğrenmek için istekli değilim.					
12	İngilizce yazı yazmaktan hoşlanıyorum.					
13	İngilizce dersinde soru sormak ve cevaplamaktan çekiniyorum.					
14	İngilizce çalışmayı sevmiyorum.					
15	İngilizce öğrenirken rahat ve sakinimdir.					
16	İngilizce dersinden korkarım.					
17	İngilizce dersleri ilgimi çekmiyor.					
18	İngilizce ile ilgili her türlü aktivite hoşuma gider.					
19	İngilizce derslerine sınavdan sınava çalışırım.					
20	İngilizce ile ilgili hiçbir şey ilgimi çekmez.					
21	İngilizce dersinde verilen ödevleri yapmaktan zevk alıyorum.					
22	Elimde olsa İngilizce'yi öğrenmezdim.					
23	İngilizce'ye ayrılan ders saatlerinin daha fazla olmasını isterim.					
24	Bu derse sadece sınıfımı geçmek için çalışıyorum.					
25	Mesleğimde İngilizce bilmenin bana gerekli olduğunu düşünmüyorum.					
26	Daha az İngilizce dersi almak istiyorum.					
27	Ders kitapları dışında başka İngilizce kaynaklar da okuyorum.					
28	İngilizce'yle ilgili yeni bilgiler öğrenmek istiyorum.					
29	İngilizce dersindeki aktivitelere istekli bir şekilde katılıyorum.					
30	İngilizce bilmesem de mesleğimde başarılı olacağına inanıyorum.					
31	İngilizce öğretmenimizi kendi dalında yetersiz görüyorum.					
32	Sınıfımızdaki öğrenci sayısı İngilizce öğrenmek için ideal sayıdadır.					
33	İngilizce kişinin kendini geliştirmesine yardım eder.					
34	Bence İngilizce dersinin konuları önemsizdir.					
35	İngilizce'nin benim bölümüm için gerekli olduğunu düşünmüyorum.					
36	İngilizce'de başarılı olacağım konusunda kuşkularım var.					
37	İngilizce'yi daha ileri düzeyde öğrenmek isterim.					
38	İngilizce derslerine korku ve endişe içinde giriyorum.					
39	İngilizce gündelik yaşam içinde önemli değildir.					
40	İngilizce bilmenin çağımızdaki öneminin farkındayım.					
41	İngilizcemi ilerletmek için daha çok zaman harcamak istiyorum.					
42	Televizyonda İngilizce yayın yapan kanalları izlerim					
43	İngilizce'yi iyi bir şekilde öğrenmek için elimden geleni yaparım					

İNGİLİZCE'YE KARŞI TUTUM ÖLÇEĞİ

44	İngilizce bilgimi geliştirmek ve bu konuda daha çok çalışmak istiyorum.					
		0	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
45	İngilizceyi kitaplardan çalışarak öğrenmeyi seviyorum.*					
46	İngilizceyi bilgisayardan ve internet üzerinden öğrenmeyi seviyorum.*					
47	İngilizce dersinde eğlenceli aktiviteler yapmak hoşuma gidiyor.*					
48	İngilizceye kitaptan çalışmayı sevmiyorum.*					
49	Öğretmenimiz eğlenceli aktiviteler uyguladığında daha kolay öğreniyorum.*					
50	Öğretmenimiz kitabı takip ettiğinde daha çok sıkılıyorum.*					
51	Mesleğimden İngilizce'nin bana çok gerektiğinin farkındayım.*					
52	Denizcilik İngilizcesi dersinden korkuyorum.*					
53	Denizcilik İngilizcesini başarıyla öğreneceğime inanıyorum.*					
54	Denizcilik İngilizcesini öğrenmekte zorlanacağımı düşünüyorum.*					

A – DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİLER

A01. Cinsiyet?

	Erkek		Kız

A02. Mezun olduğunuz okul türü ve ismi?		
	Anadolu Lisesi	.....
	Süper Lise	.....
	Düz Lise	.....
	Meslek Lisesi	.....
	Diğer	.....

A03. Sınıfınız ve bölümünüz?		
	1. Sınıf	.....
	2. Sınıf	.....
	3. Sınıf	.....
	4. Sınıf	.....

B – İNGİLİZCE DERSİNE KARŞI BAŞARI/BAŞARISIZLIK ALGISI

B01. Sınav sonuçlarınızı ve sınıftaki durumunuzu göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda, İngilizce dersinde başarılı mısınız, yoksa başarısız mısınız? ***Başarılı iseniz yalnızca ilk sütundaki maddeleri,başarısız iseniz ikinci sütundaki maddeleri işaretleyiniz.***

❖ **Eğer kendinizi başarılı buluyorsanız, başarınızı aşağıdaki faktörlerden hangisine ya da hangilerine bağlıyorsunuz?**	❖ **Eğer kendinizi başarısız buluyorsanız, başarısızlığınız sizce aşağıdaki hangi sebeplerden kaynaklanıyor?**

	Başarılıyım, çünkü;		**Başarısızım, çünkü;**
	Boş zamanlarımda sürekli İngilizce çalışıyor,İngilizce kitap, gazete vb. okuyorum.		Sınavlarda sürekli talihsizlik yaşıyor ve bilgilerimi sınav kağıdına aktaramıyorum.
	Sınavlar kolay oluyor, bu da başarımı yükseltiyor.		İngilizceden zevk almıyorum/İngilizceyi sevmiyorum.
	Dersi çok dikkatli dinliyorum.		Öğretmenim bana karşı ön yargılı davranıyor.
	Boş zamanlarımda İngilizce filmler, diziler izliyor, İngilizce müzik dinliyorum.		Yeterince ingilizce çalışmıyorum.
	İngilizce öğretmenimden ders konusunda yardım alıyorum.		Sınav sorularını dikkatli bir şekilde okumuyorum.
	İngilizceye ilgi duyuyorum/İngilizceyi seviyorum.		Sınavda vaktimi iyi değerlendiremiyorum.
	Sınıf arkadaşlarımla rekabet içerisindeyim.		Sınavlarda çok heyecanlı ve gergin oluyorum.
	Kelime bilgimi geliştirmek için sürekli sözlük kullanıyorum.		Öğretmenim iyi değil bu da İngilizce başarımı olumsuz yönde etkiliyor.
	Sınavlarda kendime güveniyorum.		İngilizce sınavlarını pek ciddiye almıyorum, bu da başarımı düşürüyor.,
	Kendimle yarışıyor, önceki sınav sonuçlarımdan daha yüksek notlar almaya çalışıyorum.		İngilizce öğrenebilme konusunda kendime güvenmiyorum.
	Öğretmenim beni cesaretlendiriyor ve teşvik ediyor.		Sınavlar çok zor oluyor, bu da iyi not almamı engelliyor.
	Sürekli derse katılıyorum ve sınava çok iyi hazırlanıyorum.		
	Öğretmenim çok iyi ve bilgili, bu da İngilizce başarımı olumlu yönde etkiliyor.		

Name:……..
Surname:……..
Department:……
English Preparatory Training
Yes…….. No……

FEBRUARY 12, 2014,
WEDNESDAY
DURATION: 2 HRS

ENGLISH PLACEMENT TEST

Circle the correct option in questions 1 – 50.

1. This ..... my brother.

A) am B) is C) are D) do

2. ... she a teacher?

A) Are B) What C) Is D) Were

3. What..... their names?

A) are B) does C) is D) am

4. ... your sisters married?

A) Does B)Are C) Do D) Is

5. Choose the correct sentence

A) Always he wakes up at 7:00 am C) He always wakes up at 7:00 am

B) He wakes up at always 7:00 am D) He wakes always up at 7:00 am

6. Marek : Do you live in Madrid?

Vanessa : ……

A) Yes, I live B) Yes, I do C) Yes, I am D) Yes, I does

7. Marek : Did you have lunch at home yesterday?

Vanessa : ……

A) No, I haven't B) No, I hadn't C) No, I don't D) No, I didn't

8. Marek : .....?

Vanessa : They are from Brazil

A) Where are they of? B) Where is they from?
C) Where are they from? D) Where are you from?

9. Marek : .....?

Vanessa : She's a teacher

A) What she does? B) What do she do? C) What does she? D) What does she do?

10. Marek : .....?

Vanessa : In a flat.

A) Do you live in a house or a flat? B) Does you live in a house or a flat?
C) Are you live in a house or a flat? D) Live you in a house or a flat?

11. Marek : What's your brother doing now?

Vanessa : .....

A) He likes watching TV. B) He is watching TV.
C) He doing his homework. D) She's doing her homework.

12. He ..... breakfast yesterday

A) hadn't B) no had C) didn't have got D) didn't have

13. Peter ..... fly to London tomorrow.

A) to going B) goes to C) is going to D) go to

14. I have to go to the bank ..... some money.

A) for getting B) to get C) to getting D) for to get

15. Vanessa : Whose flowers are those?

Marek : They're .....

A) to Mary B)Maries C) of Mary D) Mary's

16. Vanessa: Have you ever ..... a tractor?

Marek : No, I haven't.

A) drove B) driving C) driven D) drive

17. ..... is it from New York to Los Angeles?

A) How far B) How long C) How much D) How many

18. Has Mr. Conti arrived ..... ?

A) already B) still C) now D) yet

19. I've lost my keys. I can't find them .....

A) anywhere. B) nowhere. C) nothing. D) somewhere.

20. Marek : Why do you go to the restaurants?

Vanessa:.....

A) To eat B) Because to eat C) For eat D) eat

21. Where have you put my keys? I clearly remember ..... them on the table last night.

A) to leave B) left C) did leave D) leaving

22. Everyone said the film was great but I didn't like it, I was really .....

A) amazed B) disappointed C) disappointing D) embarrassing

23. Marek : What ..... you do if you won the lottery?

Vanessa: I'd buy a big house and a brand new car.

A) will B) should C) would D) are

24. I've got a BMW. I've had it .....

A) for 5 years B) since 5 years C) 5 years ago D) in 5 years

25. I've ..... washed my hair.

A) yet B) still C) ever D) already

26. Marek : Those cases look heavy, ... carry one for you?

Vanessa: That's very nice of you.

A) will I B) do I have C) shall I D) do it

27. The girl ..... mother's ill is off school today.

A) her B)whose C) who D)that

28. ..... my mother ..... my father have got blue eyes, their eyes are green.

A) Neither / nor B) Either / or C) Neither / or D) Both / and

29. The man ..... built this house died in 1933.

A) is B) has C) who D) which

30. This is the cat ..... I saw.

A) whom B) ---- C) what D) who

31. I ..... getting up at 08.00. It's not as difficult as I thought.

A) used to B) used C) am used to D) would

32. I wouldn't mind ..... tonight.

A) to go out B) go out C) going out D) to going out

33. They ..... last night, but I'm not sure.

A) may arrive B) might arrive C) should arrive D) may have arrived

34. I couldn't mend the TV myself, so I ..... at a shop.

A) had it mended B) had it mend C) did it mend D) had mended

35. He reminds me ..... someone I knew in the Army.

A) to B) of C) from D) with

36. Guesthouse rooms must be ..... by noon

A) vacated B) abandoned C) left D) evacuated

37. At the end of the course special prizes were ..... to the winning participants.

A) won B) awarded C) earned D) deserved

38. After many years of research, they found the solution.....

A) by the end B) at the end C) at last D)on the end

39. "I know it's late, so I shall not ..... you any longer" said the police officer to a young couple.

A) detain B) hold up C) withhold D) retard

40. ..... you finish your homework, the earlier we will start playing.

A) As soon B) The soon C) The sooner D) At the moment

41. He began walking at six miles an hour but he couldn't ..... that speed and soon he began to walk more slowly.

A) keep up B) keep on C) keep in D) keep down

42. She is right to be angry with you, you .....

A) couldn't have let her in B) shouldn't let her in

C) shouldn't have let her down D) oughtn't have let her up

43. The plane is just going to take .....

A) away B) out C) off D) up

44. Some people ..... making their wills till it is too late.

A) put in B) can put C) put off D) put on

45. I' d like to take ..... of this opportunity to thank you all for your cooperation.

A) advantage B) occasion C) benefit D) profit

46. You can go to the party ..... you are back home by midnight.

A) as well as B) as time as C) as long as D) as far as

47. How many sheets of paper do you think this file will ..... ?

A) occupy B) suit C) fit D) hold

48. Let's go to the theatre, ...

A) don't we? B) let us? C) shall we? D) will we?

49. By this time tomorrow we ..... the meeting.

A) will have B) will have had C) are having D) will had had

50. "We'll never be able to do it" said the man to nobody .....

A) especially. B) specially. C) in particular. D) himself.

THE TEST IS OVER!

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!

KTU MARITIME TRANSPORTATION AND MANAGEMENT ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT

2013/14 SPRING TERM "CLASS OF ENGLISH FOR DECK OFFICERS"

Name-Surname: School number:

SHIPS AND SHIP TERMS – SHIP DESIGN AND CONSTRUCTION

PRE-TEST

1. Translate the ship terms into Turkish and write their meanings next to them. (40pts)

1.hull:……..…

2. amidships:……..

3.beam:…….……

4.propeller shaft:……..….

5.bow thruster:…….

6.rudder:……..…..

7.bulbous bow:……

8.hold:……..

9.propulsion unit:……

10.hatch cover:……..

11. single deck vessel:…….

12. Slot:……

13.funnel:……..

14. Crane:……..

15.galley:……...

16.draught:……

17. Buoyancy:……

18. Mooring:……...

19. Windlass:……..

20. Freeboard: ……

2. Which ship terms are defined below? (30pts)

1. _____ : the body of the ship.

2. _____ : the large hinged plate at the stern of the ship which controls the ships direction.

3. _____: space inside the ship for carrying the cargo.

4. _____ : a part of the ship which drives the ship through the water.

5. _____ : an opening in the deck through which the cargo is lowered into and lifted from the hold.

6. _____ : the measurement of the ship's largest width.

7. _____ : the forward end of the ship's hull.

8._____ : the after end of the ship's hull

9._____ : the halfway between the forward and after ends.

10._____ : the part of the ship which increases speed when in ballast.

3. Match the words with their definitions. (30pts)

1…….the crew	a. the deck at bow
2…….the forecastle deck	b. the men working on a ship
3…….the poop deck	c. a smaller crane on the ship
4…….the superstructure	d. all structures above the main deck
5…….port side	e. the body of a ship
6…….the Chief Officer	f. the deck at the stern
7…….the accomodation	g. next in command under the captain
8…….the hull	h. the space you live in
9…….the Chief Engineer	i.head of the engine room
10……a derrick	j. left on a ship

Ad:
Soyad:
Numara:

09.04.2014
ÇARŞAMBA
Süre: 40 dk

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

DENİZ ULASTIRMA VE İSLETME MÜHENDİSLİĞİ

"ENGLISH FOR DECK OFFICERS" DERSİ ARASINAVI

A) Answer the questions below.

1. What is the purpose of the bow thruster in vessels?

.....

2. What is the function of the bridge on a vessel?

.....

3.What are the responsibilities of the second officer on board?

.....

4. Write down the terms referring to the wind.

.....

5. What is the supervision of the master of the ship?

.....

6.Which type of cargo is carried by jumbo derricks?

.....

7. What are the main features of bulk carriers?

.....

8. What is the purpose of the bulbous bow?

.....

9. How is the cargo carried and stowed in containerships?

.....

10. Can you define correctly the relationship between the weather and the seamen?

.....

B) Make the definitions of the following terms.

1. Rudder: .....

2. Strake:.....

3. Shell plating:.....

4. Keel:.....

5. Bulkhead:.....

6. Stringer:.....

7. Gangway:.....

8. Sternpost:.....

9. Freeboard:.....

10: Buoyancy:.....

C) Fill in the blanks with one word for each gap.

1. The machinery for turning the rudder is .....

2. .....is a space or deck below the main deck but above the hold.

3. .....is a ladder in a ship leading from one deck to another.

4. The bulkheads divide the ship into .....

5. ..... is the upper line of the plates of the shell plating.

6. The ..... of the ship is the distance from the port to the starboard side of the ship.

7. ..... is a part of the ship which drives the ship through the water.

8. .....is an opening in the deck through which the cargo is lowered into and lifted from the hold.

9. The hull includes both ..... and .....

10. The master of a vessel is the ..... of the company which owns the ship.

11. .....refers to the inspection of foreign ships in national ports.

12. A .....is a document that gives the terms of a contract between a shipper and a transportation company.

13. The ..... is a log book where all information about the ship's movements during a voyage is recorded.

14. A list of all the crew members on board is the .....

15. A detailed summary of the total cargo of a vessel is called the .....

16. ..... refers to a permission from someone in authority.

17. A person whose job is to deal with business for someone else is an .....

18. The services and personel in port that take care of loading and unloading the vessel are called .....

19. A document showing that the vessel is properly registered with the authorities is the .....

Başarılar!

Öğrencinin;
Adı:
Soyadı:
Numarası:

30.05.2014

Süre: 70 dk

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
DENİZ ULAŞTIRMA VE İŞLETME MÜHENDİSLİĞİ
''ENGLISH FOR DECK OFFICERS'' DERSİ FİNAL SINAVI

Answer the questions below. (20p)

1. What are the types of cargo packaging (packing)?
……
……

2. Explain the term '' trimmed by the stem''
……
……

3. What are the four important functions of ports? Explain each of them briefly.
……
……
……

4. What is a ''port of call''? Explain.
……
……

5. What is the difference between a port and a harbour?
……
……

Fill in the blanks with a word for each gap. (30p)

1. A ship with a centre of gravity too low will be …… and conversely, a ship with a centre of gravity too high will be …… .
2. The method of packaging depends on …… and ……
3. Heavy and bulk cargoes are usually carried …… .
4. Container cranes are fitted with a …… as a lifting device.
5. …… is a form of container which is suitable for lightweight goods of larger cubic capacity.
6. A …… is a term used to describe a yard used to place containers or conventional bulk cargo, usually connected to a seaport by rail or road.
7. Port locations are selected in order to ……
8. A …… is a massive port structure made of masonry or large stone blocks laid in the sea to protect the harbour from waves and currents.
9. The area between the quay wall (made of solid masonry) and the nearby warehouse or storage facility is called ……
10. A …… is used as a promenade or landing place for passengers.
11. Crude oil can be carried in ……
12. Cargoes can be divided into two types : …… and ……

Match the words with their definitions. (30p)

(……)**1**.berth	**a**. the station for passengers or cargo
(……)**2**.crane	**b**. a certain place by the quay where the ship can tie up
(……)**3**.quay	**c**. a small quay where oil tankers tie up and unload
(……)**4**.dock	**d**. a place to keep goods
(……)**5**.stevedore	**e**. the water area surrounded by quays in port
(……)**6**.pier	**f**. to tie up a vessel
(……)**7**.basin	**g**. a platform with/without sides, on which you can load packages
(……)**8**.jetty	**h**. a quay structure built out from the shore line towards the sea
(……)**9**.crate	**i**. part of a harbour where ships may moor and be loaded/unloaded with gates
(……)**10**.bale	**j**. a machine for lifting heavy things
(……)**11**.to moor	**k**. a man working in a port loading and unloading ships
(……)**12**.terminal	**l**. a large bundle of goods packed and fastened up
(……)**13**.derrick	**m**. the structure on land to which a ship ties up
(……)**14**.pallet	**n**. a wooden box
(……)**15**.warehouse	**o**. the crane on a ship to lift cargo

Fill in the blanks with the words given in the box. (10p)

lifts	**store**	**attaches**	**does not lift**	**load**
discharge	**reaches**	**moors**	**operates**	**do you lash**

1. A crane driver …….. the cranes.
2. A stevedore …….. slings to the bales and crates.
3. A quayside crane …….. the cargo on board ship
4. Before the voyage, the men lift the cargo on board ship; they …….. the ship, and in the port of destination they take the cargo ashore they unload or …….. the cargo.
5. On a cargo vessel you …….. cargo in the holds or on deck.
6. Why …….. the cargo on board a ship?
7. It is important to secure or lash the cargo so that it …….. during a voyage.
8. A ship …….. at a berth by the quay.
9. A merchant vessel often has a long voyage before she …….. her port of destination.

Translate the sentences into Turkish. (10p)

1. To provide against just such an accident as the ship is said to have encountered she had set back a good distance from the bows an extra heavy cross partition known as the collision bulkhead, which would prevent water getting in amidships, even though a good part of her bow should be torn away.

……
……
……

2. A navigator needs to know where the centre of a depression is in relation to the position of his vessel, in order to avoid the area of highest wind. The approach of a depression can be foretold by a falling barometer, a backing wind, and the appearance in the sky of cirrus clouds. Further evidence of an approaching depression is a halo, or white luminous ring, around the sun or moon, and banking up of low, heavy cloud.

……
……
……
……

CURRICULUM VITAE

Seda ALTUNTAŞ was born in Trabzon in 1986. After finishing Tevfik Serdar Anatolian High School, she attended the English Language Teaching department of Atatürk University in 2004. She has been working as an English teacher since her third year of education at university. She graduated from university in 2008 and worked at private language teaching courses and a public school as an English teacher until she started working at Avrasya University in 2011. She has been working at Avrasya University as an English lecturer since then. She always had interest in teaching English for specific purposes, somehow she met the field of Maritime English and turned towards Maritime English teaching by attending the Ms program at Maritime Transportation and Engineering Department at Karadeniz Technical University in 2011. She is currently studying Maritime English instruction at Karadeniz Technical University.