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Guidelines for Good Practice“

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List of abbreviations

ADL	Activities of Daily Living
AHP	Allied Health Professions
AOTA	American Occupational Therapy Association
CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COTEC	Council of Occupational Therapists for the European Countries
DVE	Deutscher Verband der Ergotherapeuten
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EGP	English for General Purposes
EGPP	English for General Professional Purposes
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENOTHE	European Network of Occupational Therapy in Higher Education
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
EPP	English for Professional Purposes
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
ESPP	English for Specific Professional Purposes
EVP	English for Vocational Purposes
IADL	Instrumental Activities of Daily Living
ICD-10	International Classification of Diseases

ICF	International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health
LSP	Language for Specific Purposes
OT	Occupational therapy
OTs	Occupational therapists
PBL	Problem-based learning
TBL	Task-Based Learning
TPR	Total Physical Response
WFOT	World Federation of Occupational Therapists
WHO	World Health Organization

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1 Introduction

English skills play an important role for occupational therapists (OTs), who are members of the allied health professions (AHPs). As in many other professional fields, English serves as a Lingua Franca in occupational therapy (OT) when accessing and conducting research, attending conferences, etc. Current research in the field of OT comes to a large extent from English-speaking countries or is published and made available in English. When OT students work on a topic during their three-year training, for example, a bachelor paper, it is therefore very probable that they will avail of these English sources. Therefore, an English course specialising in medicine is a very necessary part of OT training. The importance of such a course is also supported by the fact that there has been a considerable increase in the number of hours allotted to English courses in the Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria, giving English a stronger part in the general curriculum.

Since this is a specialist field, there is no ready-made course book available on the subject. Medical English books are rather rare, and mostly target doctors and nurses, sometimes with the intention to prepare people from these medical professions to work in an English-speaking environment. The only book of which I am aware that targets physio-, speech and language- as well as occupational therapists is "Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe", written by Sandra Schiller for a German-speaking audience. Due to the differences in teaching units at different universities it is necessary that English teachers for OT students compile their own course materials to suit the context. As far as I am aware there are no guidelines available to help in setting up such a course. I have been working as an occupational therapist for more than five years and am currently teaching an English course for OT students at one University of Applied Sciences in Austria. I have encountered several challenges while setting up this course together with a colleague. As an occupational therapist as well as an English student, this topic is very interesting and important for me to explore.

Concerning personal approach and access Dörnyei (2007: 293) states that "with the emphasis on reflexivity and researcher involvement, qualitative research offers writers the freedom to have their own as well as their participants' voices heard". In this quotation the author stresses the advantage of being an "insider" to a field, or in

the case of this paper, two fields, namely, English and OT, because it allows for different voices to be heard and relevant information to be included from different angles. This project can therefore be embedded within the field of applied linguistics which Croker (2009: 4) describes as focusing on “language in use, connecting our knowledge about languages with an understanding of how they are used in the real world”. He also emphasises the role of interdisciplinarity within applied linguistics.

The research questions of this study are

- What are the aims of teaching English for OT students?
- How do selected Universities of Applied Sciences differ or show similarities in the way this course is set up?
- What do teachers consider helpful for planning and teaching this course?
What are their aims?

In this study English courses for OT students in four selected Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria are compared and evaluated. Additional information will be gathered from conducting interviews with teachers of these courses. The next step will be to take the findings within the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and explore whether the experience of the interviewed teachers differs from the content found in the literature. The sections on *results and discussion of findings* provide a comparison of findings from my own research and ESP literature. My overall aim for this paper is to collect and contrast information concerning these English courses in order to provide a set of guidelines which might be useful for this group of teachers. In the section *guidelines for good practice* information is summarised in bullet-point format as a reference for teachers to quickly access relevant information.

What Basturkmen (2010: x), who is the author of two recent books on ESP, states in the preface of one of them, mirrors the aim that this study has. She stresses the “how to do it’ type orientation” and learning “from observing experienced teachers / course developers (observing how they set about developing courses, the kinds of decisions they make and how they respond to practical difficulties)”. The aim of this study is to illustrate what ESP teachers for OT students consider special and above all important for planning and implementing this highly specified course.

2 The importance of (medical) English for occupational therapists

There are numerous situations in which OTs use the English language and medical English in particular. Some of these situations might occur during their daily working process and working routine, some situations might have already been experienced during OT training. An English course is part of the OT bachelor programme but can also serve as a basis for people's professional career starting with placements. Some of the universities analysed differentiate between situations in which OT students and qualified OTs need English for their curricula. Therefore, these two options are given further attention in this part of the paper. As will be demonstrated, some areas, however, overlap.

In contrast to business English as one part of ESP or English for academic purposes (EAP), textbooks for medical English are not so common. Not only are there less materials available, but I have the impression that in general ESP literature medical English is given less attention than, for example, business English. This is supported by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 2) who claim that “[w]ithin ESP the largest sector for published materials is now that of Business English”.

According to García Martínez and Cilveti English plays a central role when communicating within the field of medicine, for example, when attending congresses. When their text was published in 1998, apparently 90 per cent of publications of medical articles was in English “even in countries where English is not the native language, e.g., in Germany and Japan” (García Martínez & Cilveti 1998: 263). In a recent publication, Hwang (2011: 138) refers to the situation in Taiwan for medical students and the importance of English by saying that “[m]ost disciplines within medicine take place in a professional society or an association with meetings and publications in relation to English”. This can also be considered true for the situation of OT in Austria.

2.1 Use of medical English for occupational therapy students

One of the main reasons why OT students use English is to research scientific articles for their bachelor papers. The fact that OT has a much longer tradition in the English-speaking world than in Austria strongly influences the reality of OT research in different countries. If students want to use recent research findings, they have to work with English texts. Another situation in which students might need English is if they decide to conduct one or more of their placements in an English-speaking country. The motivation for this very often is to observe and experience OT practice and advancement in these countries.

There is an annual conference for OT where students are especially invited to participate and contribute. This is the ENOTHE conference (European Network of Occupational Therapy in Higher Education) which OT teachers and students can attend. The conference is held in English too. For many students it is their first experience in using English to communicate in a context related to OT.

Some students also plan to do a master's degree after graduation. In the master's studies it is even more likely that they will have to work with English texts. The first master's degree course for OTs in Austria started only in 2009. Until then, OTs that wanted to do a master's degree were attending courses abroad with English as the language of instruction.

2.2 How do qualified OTs make use of English?

While some OTs might attend a master's programme, others will be interested in English as a means of keeping up to date with treatment methods etc. The best way to do this is to access, again, English texts such as scientific articles etc. There are some OT journals in German-speaking countries published by the country's respective OT associations, but they are not peer-reviewed in contrast to, for example, BJOT (British Journal of Occupational Therapy), AJOT (American Journal of Occupational Therapy) or SJOT (Scandinavian Journal of Occupational Therapy).

Many OTs conducting research in Austria choose to send their work to journals published in English in order to make their findings accessible to a wider audience. When publishing in German-speaking journals, it is sometimes necessary to provide an additional abstract in English. With the graduation of OTs from master programmes it is very likely that OT research and publications in Austria will continue to increase in the future. Publishing scientific articles or writing abstracts is often done in English. Having a good knowledge of the field-specific and scientific language is therefore an essential skill.

As was already mentioned before, there are some conferences for OTs or members of the AHP taking place in German-speaking countries. There is, however, a wider range of international conferences offered for which English is the working language. Associations for OTs such as the WFOT (World Federation of Occupational Therapists) as well as COTEC (Council of Occupational Therapists for the European Countries) and ENOTHE hold annual meetings. As in many other fields, English here serves as a *Lingua Franca* for the participants.

Another area in which qualified OTs might need English is for seminars and workshops focusing on different therapy methods, models of practice, etc. especially if the lecturer's native tongue is English. The reason for this, again, is because many therapy methods and concepts have been developed in English-speaking countries. It is also common in seminars that the bibliography contains articles or books in English. If lecturers refer to recent studies, again, it is very likely that these will have been published in English. Therefore it is very clear that the number of situations in which qualified OTs and students can benefit from English skills is quite high.

3 English for Specific Purposes

Having highlighted the importance of English for OTs and OT students, this section will now provide basic definitions and descriptions of ESP which provides the framework for this study and serves as a basis for the *methodology* and *discussion* section. Already in 1991 Robinson (1991: 1) identified "ESP [a]s a major activity around the world". According to her ESP brings together findings about language, pedagogy as well as students' specialist areas. It is therefore important that teachers have a knowledge of the language and how to teach it, as well as how to design an

appropriate course. In contrast to teaching English for General Purposes (EGP), in ESP teachers need to be aware of their students' speciality in order to provide suitable materials, for example, through authentic texts taken from the target community (*ibid.*).

An important and frequently quoted definition of ESP given by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 1) reads as follows:

The teaching of English for Specific Purposes has generally been seen as a separate activity within English Language Teaching (ELT), and ESP research as an identifiable component of applied linguistic research. We believe that for some of its teaching ESP has developed its own methodology, and its research clearly draws on research from various disciplines in addition to applied linguistics. This openness to the insights of other disciplines is a key distinguishing feature of ESP. [...] [T]he main concerns of ESP have always been, and remain, with needs analysis, text analysis, and preparing learners to communicate effectively in the tasks prescribed by their study or work situation.

According to Dudley-Evans and St John in this more recent text ESP has a special place within English Language Teaching (ELT) and applied linguistics, but it also includes aspects that are distinct from these disciplines. The authors describe a shift which has taken place within ESP, namely, that the number of non-native speakers as ESP teachers has been increasing. They argue that what is more important is the ability "to make use of their knowledge of the institution in which they are working and of students' learning styles and preferences" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 31). Concerning the development of ESP, Dudley-Evans and St John state that it has moved "from grammatical, functional and notional syllabuses to a more eclectic and task-based approach" (*ibid.*: 32) which is illustrated in different recent textbooks used in ESP.

The following characteristics described by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 4f) are cited by many authors writing about ESP. They distinguish between absolute and variable characteristics:

1. Absolute characteristics:

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs for the learner;
- ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
- ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.

2. Variable characteristics:

- 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;
- ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

It is helpful to keep these characteristics in mind when analysing ESP courses as they illustrate the differences and challenges of ESP in comparison to EGP.

Another important distinction is made between different subtypes of ESP according to different authors. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 6) differentiate between two major fields of ESP, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). They consider English for Professional Purposes (EPP) as a subcategory of the latter. Basturkmen (2006: ix f) feels that these three form equal subcategories of ESP. She refers to EOP as English for Vocational Purposes (EVP) which can be considered a synonym. What all of these subcategories have in common is that their aim is to enable students to “cope with the features of language or to develop the competencies needed to function in a discipline, profession, or workplace” (*ibid.*: 6). In contrast to EGP, “ESP aims to speed learners through to a known destination” (*ibid.*: 9). This can be explained by the fact that ELT courses are more general, whereas the learners’ special situation and concrete aims are more specific and more central to ESP courses. The focus therefore is a narrower one than in EGP courses (Basturkmen 2010: 3).

The ESP student uses English successfully to achieve a specific aim within a defined framework for academic, professional or occupational purposes. Basturkmen considers these goals as external, i.e. instrumental and non-linguistic in a narrow sense, namely driven by study or work situations rather than the students’ personal motivation (*ibid.*: 8). Because students acquire language by working with specific materials of their speciality, Basturkmen argues they will be more motivated and learn more effectively than in an EGP course. Different authors emphasise that it is easier to measure whether learning objectives for ESP courses are achieved because they are more specific than in EGP courses (Basturkmen 2010: 11; see also Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 9).

Robinson (1991: 4) proposes that the use of specialist language such as specific content and terminology characterises ESP. The author considers the activities used for teaching even more crucial, which might not necessarily ask for use of specialist language, but might still be appropriate when encouraging students' engagement and language production. Another typical characteristic of ESP courses suggested by Robinson (*ibid.*: 5) is that they "are designed with particular students in mind". She makes an important claim by saying that "what we are really involved in as ESP practitioners is not so much teaching English for specific purposes but teaching English to specified people" (*ibid.*). She puts the focus on the students and their needs rather than deriving course content and materials from the specific field. ESP not only teaches language to be used in the workplace, but students benefit from an ESP course because it enhances their language skills in work as well as social situations. ESP courses consider different registers, including different topics and also written as well as spoken mode (*ibid.*: 19f). Basturkmen (2006: 28) argues that certain skills and aspects of language are more likely to be used within a special field such as workplace, university or among professionals than others. These can be a focus of teaching. To be able to do this, investigating specialist discourse is a central basis for ESP teaching. Basturkmen (2010: 36) claims that the needs of the English course should be established from "detailed, accurate and realistic descriptions of how language is actually used in these areas". Helpful questions for course designers to keep in mind are:

- What language (skills, genres and features) do the learners need to know?
- Is information (data and descriptions) about these already available?
- If not, how can the ESP course developers collect data and investigate these?
- If so, how can the already available data and / or descriptions be used to supplement or replace the course developers' investigation? (*ibid.*: 42f)

Basturkmen emphasises the necessity of looking for available information and using it if possible.

Data can consist, for example, of results from genre analysis which can be considered part of specialist discourse analysis described above. To take an example from medical discourse, Basturkmen describes the nursing care plan which is a

certain genre within medical English. Identifying typical text patterns used by a discourse community can help language learners to fulfil communicative purposes within this discourse community and write their texts according to the features typical for the genre (*ibid.*: 45). Aside from nursing care plans, this can also be relevant, for example, for the genre of scientific texts from the medical field as well as patient reports (see *materials* in the *discussion* section for more details).

3.1 Medical English within ESP

As has been described in the previous section, medical English is a part of ESP as it is a specialised language used within a certain target community, namely among different groups of medical professions. English for medical purposes

is a form of English as a Second Language¹ education that clearly emphasizes medical English according to the needs of one's job such as writing progress notes and charting, interviewing and assessing patients and reporting. (Hwang 2011: 139)

Here Hwang places medical English within ELT and refers to certain genres or text types which are typical for the medical field.

Many characteristics typical for ESP can be applied to medical English. When doing a literature search, one easily finds texts regarding medical English for doctors or nurses. Course materials published on medical English also tend to focus on these two medical professions. One reason for this, according to Basturkmen, might be that the programmes often focus on immigrant groups working in different countries, e.g. nurses working in the US. Materials or courses that are offered focus on possible problems that can occur within communication, such as the correct use of paralinguistic features of communication, how to make small talk, understanding nonstandard dialects that patients speak, understanding instructions, etc. (Basturkmen 2006: 26). These are just a few examples of how important and influential medical English can be for people to successfully settle in a workplace in an English-speaking country.

More relevant details concerning medical English as part of ESP can be found in the *discussion* section of the paper. English for OT students targets a specific profession

¹ English as a Second Language

within the medical field and can be considered a subcategory of medical English. The following section focuses on this.

3.2 Medical English for OT students

The aim of this section is to illustrate why English for OT students can be categorised as a special type of medical English and to offer an explanation as to why this course can be considered as a part of ESP. According to Basturkmen's (2010: 53) distinction English for OT students can be considered a relatively 'narrow angled' type of course since it has "been designed for learners we might assume have largely homogeneous needs and who have a particular type of academic or work environment in mind" (*ibid.*). This is the case since all the students are studying within the same discipline of allied health professions. This leads to the assumption that students' needs must be rather homogeneous.

In one of her publications Basturkmen poses a question very central to this study, namely, whether "there [is] such an entity as 'Medical English' and, if so, might descriptions of it be simply too broad to be of much interest to any of our health care practitioners" (*ibid.*: 53f). The problem has been highlighted that there is not enough material on medical English specific to OT students and their needs. Materials available for doctors and nurses focus on skills and needs that OTs do not necessarily share. Basturkmen supports this by saying that "learners will need to use language not in a broad domain but in their specific discipline or type of work" (*ibid.*: 54).

Basturkmen uses different categories in which the English course for OT students can be placed. The English course focused on in this study can be assigned to the group "English for Professional Purposes (EPP)" which is subdivided into "English for General Professional Purposes (EGPP)" and "English for Specific Professional Purposes (ESPP)". "English for the health care sector" belongs to the first category, whereas "English for nursing", for example, belongs to the second group (*ibid.*: 6). All of the illustrated categories are part of ESP. I would suggest that English for OTs can be categorised as ESPP.

Additionally, English courses for OT students can be categorised as pre-experience since the English course is completed while studying OT (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 6). One can therefore conclude that the students in such a course only have a limited knowledge of their speciality (i.e. field of study) depending on when the course takes place in their training. This categorisation of the ESP subtype might be challenged by another distinction made by Dudley-Evans and St John, namely that English for (Academic) Medical Purposes is seen as opposed to EOP. They

distinguish between studying the language and discourse of, for example, medicine for *academic* purposes, which is designed for medical students, and studying for *occupational (professional)* purposes, which is designed for practising doctors. (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 7)

According to this, one would have to distinguish between English courses for OT students (English for academic medical purposes) and for qualified OTs (English for occupational / professional purposes). The specific goal of an English course for OT students may be quite broad. On the one hand the course prepares students to understand scientific writing and specialised literature. But on the other hand students are prepared to complete a placement abroad. When students conduct a placement in an English-speaking country, they will not use English within the realm of academia but rather in professional practice. In the placement they will have to use language similar to the qualified OTs instructing them in order to communicate with clients as well as colleagues. From this point of view English courses for OT students include elements of English for (Academic) Medical Purposes and EOP.

As has been stated in the section relating to the importance of English for OT students, there are a number of reasons for the student's individual need of an English course such as reading academic papers, doing a placement abroad or even working in a different country after graduation. Some students might also plan to attend seminars and workshops conducted in English, or international conferences. Others might plan to continue with a master's degree, which means continuing to work with scientific texts in English and maybe using English as the language of instruction. It is useful to keep these individual goals in mind because "learners can easily become de-motivated by language course content that does not appear directly relevant to their real world objectives" (Basturkmen 2010: 8). Teaching a group of students who might have very diverse personal learning goals can be a very challenging task. It is therefore of salience to identify "language-based objectives"

relevant for the students' "target occupation or academic discipline and ensure that the content of the ESP course works towards them. ESP focuses on when, where and why learners need the language either in study or workplace contexts" (*ibid.*).

Robinson (1991: 3) points out more characteristics of ESP by saying that "there is usually a very clearly specified time period for the course" which means that the "objectives should be closely specified and their realisation related to the time available". Also typically, "students on an ESP course are likely to be adults rather than children" (*ibid.*) which is also true for the English courses in OT training. She specifies this further by stating that usually "students on ESP courses are in tertiary education or are experienced members of the workforce" (*ibid.*). In this project, students are in tertiary education, but they are not yet involved in active employment.

4 Theoretical background for methodology

For the purpose of this paper, it is important not only to consider basic principles of ESP, but also the findings from other areas such as curriculum evaluation, qualitative research in general and especially qualitative interviews. These methods seem to be the most suitable approach for answering the related research questions.

4.1 Curriculum evaluation

Kiely (2009: 99) defines programme evaluation as "a form of enquiry which describes the achievements of a given programme, provides explanations for these, and sets out ways in which further development might be realised". He further notes that a teaching task usually has two overlapping and interdependent levels which are the content and the focus of students (*ibid.*: 106). In a programme, "[t]he learning experience that is satisfying in a holistic way has the potential to engage, motivate, generate effort, and lead to desired outcomes" (*ibid.*: 107f). Evaluation is not so much about judging a programme but rather "becomes a set of strategies to document and understand the programme" (*ibid.*: 114). Kiely mentions different aspects contributing to curriculum evaluation. I would like to compare these to the authors' other findings about curriculum evaluation.

To evaluate curricula of English for OT students, basic definitions and findings by Rea-Dickins and Germaine are used. Their publication on evaluation dates from

1992, but it is still a relevant collection of thoughts and selected aspects, which can be applied in evaluation. Like Kiely, Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 3) propose that evaluation in general influences learning as well as teaching, and for the teacher it includes valuable information for various reasons. Evaluation can influence teaching practice in the classroom as well as planning a course. It can also help to organise and manage the language learning and tasks learners engage in. For the purpose of this study the evaluation of the English courses at different universities aims to show practices applied by teachers and course designers. Portraying the current situation is particularly interesting because of the major changes in recent years as a result of transition to a bachelor degree programme at third level education.

Rea-Dickins and Germaine stress the importance of defining “the criteria used in our judgements” (*ibid.*: 4) which forms the basis for the evaluation. Evaluation can also try to “[confirm] the validity of classroom practice” (*ibid.*: 7) in terms of “explaining and confirming existing procedures” (*ibid.*), as well as “obtain[ing] feedback about classroom practice” (*ibid.*: 8). The aim of evaluation is to “explore the reasons why something is working well in the classroom and why it is appropriate for a given target audience” (*ibid.*). This is important as it allows others to benefit from this collection of practices for setting up similar courses. However, it is also possible to “gain information to bring about innovation or change” (*ibid.*) and to “identify those factors that contribute to classroom successes” (*ibid.*: 10). Successful classroom practices are also described as possibilities for improvement. To sum up, in this study the purpose for evaluation can be considered as a possibility for curriculum development and betterment as well as enhancing self-development of teachers (*ibid.*: 23).

Rea-Dickins and Germaine illustrate that “[e]valuation is directly affected by context” (*ibid.*: 20) which can be, for example, the classroom, the institution offering the course, region as well as society (*ibid.*: 19). There are several factors that can enhance learning. It is therefore important to identify “[w]hat is needed [for] a detailed examination of the environment created by the teacher and learners to promote effective language learning” (*ibid.*: 27f). According to Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 129) useful evaluation considers aspects which are successful as well as less successful in order to know how and why a course has or has not worked out. If we

know the why, we can dismiss unsuccessful aspects and support successes. They continue saying that “[e]valuation in ESP situations is concerned with the effectiveness and efficiency of learning; with achieving the objectives” (*ibid.*). The authors emphasise that we can only evaluate a certain number of things at the same time. Focus in the teaching-learning context can be put on materials, classroom activities, design of the course, teaching methodologies used, etc. (*ibid.*). A course that works well for one group might not necessarily be suitable for a different group of learners. It is therefore important to consider improvements not only for the subsequent course, but also consider the possibility of adjusting an already running course to make sure it fits the students’ needs. For the analysis of curricula this study tries to take as many aspects as possible into account, but has to choose some to focus on in more detail.

Dudley-Evans and St John see teachers and other colleagues who are carrying out the course as a possible source for evaluation (*ibid.*: 132). The authors stress the importance of interviews, a qualitative research method, as a means of evaluation:

The structured interview is extremely useful in evaluation and needs analysis. [It] consists of questions which have been carefully thought out and selected in advance. Because the interviewer has key questions which everyone is (and must be) asked, comparisons can be made [...]. Additional questions may be asked to follow up responses for clarification and more detail. (*ibid.*: 134f)

More detailed information on interviews and qualitative research are provided in a later section of the paper. Continuously questioning ESP courses helps to perceive and evaluate the ongoing process of a course. This way we can identify factors influencing the course in a positive or negative way and identify reasons for this (*ibid.*: 139). When in the evaluation process of a project, an important aspect to consider is materials, what kind of materials will be used and how are they to be used (Rea-Dickins & Germaine 1992: 28). Information on this subject can be derived from data about courses or interviews. “In evaluating materials it is necessary to examine the ways in which teaching and learning materials are sensitive to the language learning process” (*ibid.*: 34), i.e. how do materials suit the students that will be using them.

Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 66) outline a number of steps for collecting data during evaluation. The authors refer to how teachers can evaluate their classrooms, but I think the general structure can be applied to any other kind of evaluation. This

project follows this same sequence. The first step focuses on the selection of the setting. The second step is to decide on what the evaluation will focus on. The third step, to clarify how the data will be collected, is followed by the fourth step, the actual collection of data. Steps five and six are the description and analysis of the data. The analysis should refer to step two of the sequence. This suggested sequence can be found in the *design and methods* section.

4.2 Qualitative research

Basics on qualitative research are also influential for the purpose of this study. Dörnyei (2007: 24) describes qualitative research as

involv[ing] data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods. Typical example: interview research, with the transcribed recordings analysed by qualitative content analysis.

He points out that numbers are not salient for the categories used for qualitative research. Similarly, Croker (2009: 5) sees that the role of qualitative research is collecting “primarily textual data and examining it using interpretative analysis”. The essential point of qualitative research is to “focus on understanding the process of what’s going on in a setting” (*ibid.*: 7f). Since qualitative research can be considered exploratory, it is especially useful for research in fields not well explored yet. Qualitative research tries “to discover new ideas and insights, or even generate new theories” (*ibid.*: 9). These theories, however, cannot necessarily be generalised to a different context but can lead to understanding several influential aspects (*ibid.*). Also Dörnyei (2007: 128) proposes that we cannot generalise results from qualitative research as the situations examined are very different, but it is possible to illustrate experiences typically made by people in very similar situations.

4.2.1 Qualitative Interviews

Croker (2009: 11) states that in qualitative research the researcher collects data, for example, through interviews. By choosing this method, researchers can adjust their exploration to the individual interviewee and the course of the conversation. According to Dörnyei (2007: 134) “the interview is the most often used method in qualitative inquiries. It is regularly applied in a variety of applied linguistic contexts”. Interviews for this project were conducted in single sessions per interview partner. Using interviews as a means of data collection appeared to be a suitable method for

meeting the purpose of this project. I have found studying Dörnyei's and Kvale's work immensely helpful in preparing for interviews. Numerous relevant passages were influential for setting up this qualitative interview study and its procedure. I would like to point out, from my own point of view, what I saw as the most important statements from Dörnyei's and Kvale's work.

According to Dörnyei (2007: 135), "structured interviews [...] follow a pre-prepared, elaborate 'interview schedule / guide', which contains a list of questions to be covered closely with every interviewee". The advantage of pre-prepared questions is that the interviews are similar concerning the information they provide. This makes the analysis and comparison of individual interviews easier (*ibid.*). Similarly, Richards (2009: 184) describes structured interviews as the "most controlled form". Supporting Dörnyei, Richards (*ibid.*) states that in this form of interview, questions follow certain formulations in order to "elicit responses that can be recorded exactly [...] and can be compared across respondents".

Kvale (2007: 56) describes a less rigid structure by saying that "[t]he interview stage is usually prepared with a script. An interview guide is a script that structures the course of the interview more or less tightly". The questions prepared in the interview guide allowed for change of sequence and wording, which is typical for semi-structured interviews. The interview guide can be considered as "an outline of topics to be covered, with suggested questions" (*ibid.*: 56f). In the course of the interview the sequence and wording of the topics can be adapted (*ibid.*: 57), i.e. the questions are handled flexibly during the course of the interview. Dörnyei (2007: 136) similarly argues that in semi-structured interviews "a set of pre-prepared guiding questions and prompts [are used], the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner". In addition to this, the word "structured" refers to the guidance offered by the researchers in the interview situation. At the same time, however, they are interested in topics emerging spontaneously and exploring them while supporting the interviewee in this process (*ibid.*). Richards (2009: 185) considers these characteristics as a compromise and claims that semi-structured interviews are an interview type used very often.

According to Richards, the interview guide should “[identify] key topics that need to be covered” (*ibid.*: 186). He claims that the researcher defines topics which need to be covered in the course of a semi-structured interview as well as a suggested sequence. At the same time, however, they are interested in and open to unexpected turns which the interview might take (*ibid.*). He stresses the importance of “allowing the interview to develop naturally so that the respondent does not feel that they are simply replying to questions” (*ibid.*). Dörnyei (2007: 136) describes this in a similar manner by saying that “[u]sually, the interviewer will ask the same questions of all of the participants, although not necessarily in the same order or wording, and would supplement the main questions with various probes”. When developing an interview guide, focus is put on “how the questions can be grouped under relevant topics and how these topics can be organized to produce a naturally developing line of exploration” (Richards 2009: 187).

Richards emphasises the value of interviews especially for teachers because “properly conducted, they can provide insights into people’s experiences, beliefs, perceptions, and motivations at a depth that is not possible with questionnaires” (*ibid.*). It is this richness and depth of information acquired through interviews that makes analysis and results so interesting and valuable. The relevant background knowledge summarised in this section serves as a basis for the design and methods of this study which are described below.

5 Design and methods

The procedure for the research process is outlined in this section of the paper. To answer the set research questions, three research methods were applied. These are literature analysis and review, curriculum evaluation and qualitative interviews. The aim of the study is to analyse English courses in the participating universities and compare how the courses are organised and implemented.

In the editorial introduction of Kvale’s book Flick (2007: xi) writes about qualitative research in general and states that “[r]esearchers themselves are an important part of the research process, either in terms of their own presence as researchers, or in terms of their experiences in the field”. Dörnyei (2007: 296) refers to this as the “researcher-as-instrument issue“. In this study the characteristics of the researcher

are on the one hand a background in English studies, as well as being an occupational therapist and teaching English for OT students at a University of Applied Sciences in Austria. It is important to be aware of this double role of the researcher.

The first step for this study was to carry out a literature search. Key words for this search were, “ESP”, “medical English”, “occupational therapy”, “teach”, “programme evaluation”, “student”. Through the library search engine I found useful books and some journal articles on ESP and other issues. The journals I searched through for relevant content were “English for specific purposes”, “Language Teaching Research”, “Language Teaching”, “International journal of applied linguistics”, “Applied Linguistics”, etc. I also searched in data bases used by OTs such as CINAHL, the Cochrane Library etc. I did not succeed in finding anything directly about medical English for OTs or OT students there. Articles on medical English focused mainly on medical graduates or doctors in training. Numerous texts are written about medical English courses in Asian countries. For this project, I therefore decided to rely on general ESP literature and extract from it what was relevant for the specific field of OT, as well as use the information I collected directly from the universities and teachers.

There are currently eight Universities of Applied Sciences running bachelor degree programmes for occupational therapy (BSc) in different regions of Austria. Four of these universities were selected as the sample of this study. All universities included are members of ENOTHE and their programmes are approved by the WFOT. OT programmes approved by the WFOT meet defined quality criteria of standards compared to other institutions offering OT training. The selected universities run at least one English course for their students during the six-semester programme, i.e. English forms one part of the general curriculum². The heads of Occupational Therapy Departments were contacted via phone and informed about the purpose of the project. Then they were sent a written information sheet. The English lecturers also were sent a respective information sheet. The universities and prospective interview partners agreed to participate in the project either in written form (via email) or via a telephone conversation. Protocols of phone calls with universities and teachers as well as email conversations were kept. People’s interest and motivation

² Additional information on the individual universities (e.g. total number of students, number of study programmes offered, information on location, etc.) is not provided in order to maintain anonymity.

to participate turned out to be an important factor to enable accessing necessary information.

Dörnyei (2007: 126) points out that “there is always a limit to how many respondents we can contact or how many sites we can visit”. For the purpose of this project it was therefore decided to select four Austrian Universities of Applied Sciences. He continues to say “that a well-designed qualitative study usually requires a relatively small number of respondents to yield the saturated and rich data that is needed to understand even subtle meanings in the phenomenon under focus” (*ibid.*: 127). Having data from four universities appears to be a good starting point for research into a topic on which not much is published on.

The participating universities were assigned letters randomly. Their teachers are equally given a letter, A to D, making it possible to link the university with the respective teacher. Universities and interviewees were informed beforehand that only pseudonyms would be used in the evaluation grid and interview transcription (Cameron 2001: 23). Assigning letters was done to ensure anonymity of the participating universities. The alphabetical order does not reflect any order or hierarchy. The criteria for a teacher being a participant were that they were to have a minimum of two years teaching experience at their university. There was one teacher per university interviewed. This teacher would either teach the whole year or at least one group of students.

The project plan and sequence is illustrated in figure 1.

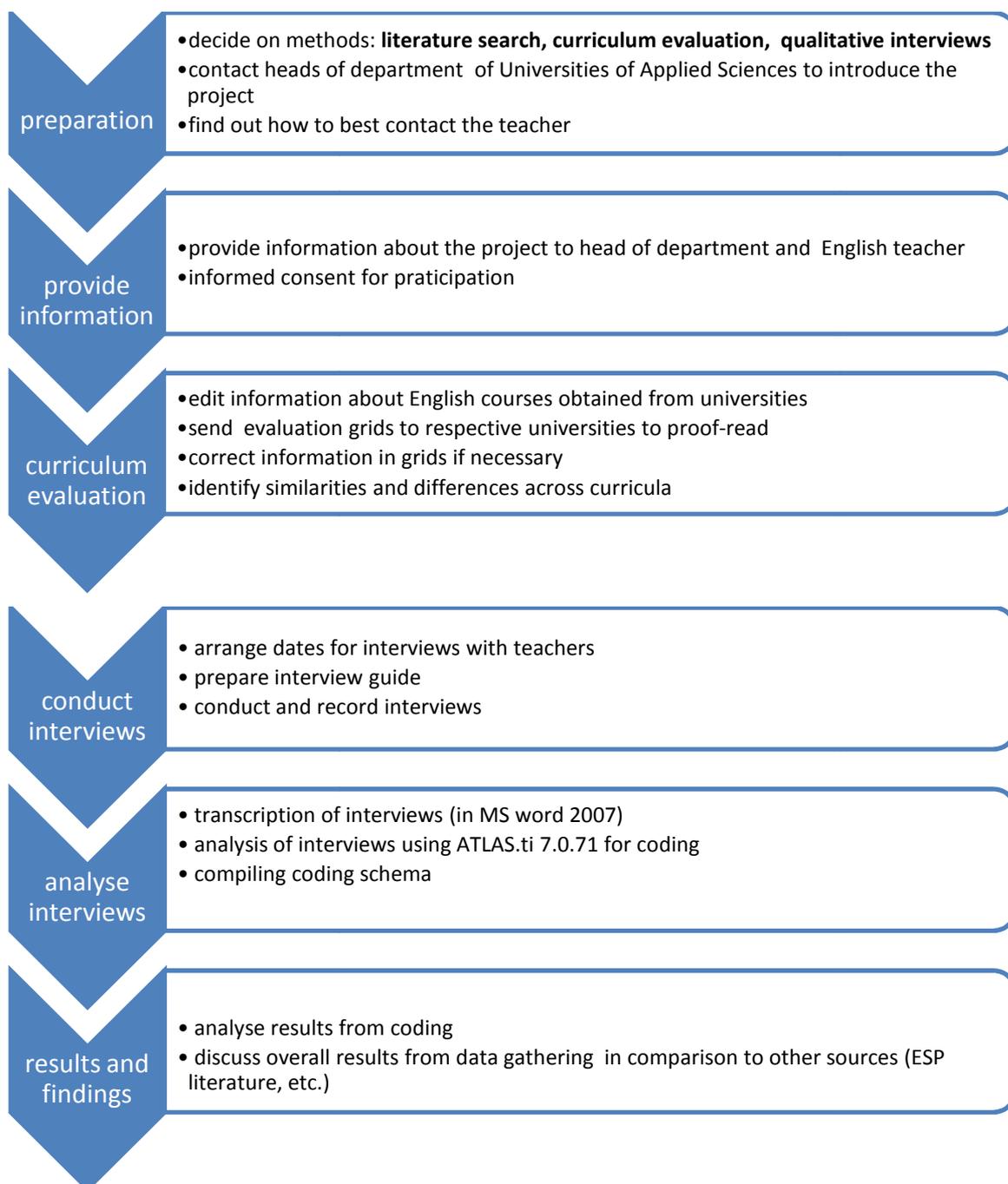


Figure 1: Project Plan

The next section focuses more closely on the first step of data collection, namely the curriculum evaluation.

5.1 Curriculum evaluation

The evaluation framework introduced by Rea-Dickins and Germaine proved to be a very useful tool to plan and conduct the curriculum evaluation for this study. The criteria and questions introduced by the authors can be considered interdependent

(see Rea-Dickins & Germaine 1992: 74). They serve as a useful guideline to provide details about this study and can be summarised as follows: The information is collected from the universities and teachers in order to answer the related research questions. This information is to be made available to the teachers and universities taking part in this project as well as to other teachers who might be planning to set up a similar course. Certain results might also be interesting for English teacher of other AHPs. The evaluation is carried out because there is a lack of information for the teachers who are running medical English courses for OT students. There are several criteria that will be evaluated.

- Title of course
- Number of English courses
- Total hours and total of periods per week
- ECTS credits and workload
- Frequency in the students' timetable
- Course type
- Semester the course is scheduled for
- Group size and number of teachers
- Prerequisites
- Aims and learning objectives
- Topics and contents
- Teaching methods
- Language of instruction
- Course materials
- Recommended reading
- Qualification of teachers and information on who is teaching the course at the moment
- Assessment methods
- Grades
- Other (subject) courses taught in English during OT studies
- Number of hours the course consisted of before the training was started as a bachelor programme

These factors were considered relevant and important for organisation of the curricula and setting up the English course. The data was collected directly from the

selected universities. The interview guide used these criteria as a basis for collecting information, however, the interactive nature of the interviews made it possible to gather more detailed information and identify practices and possible challenges teachers face in the implementation of the course. Coming back to the framework proposed by Rea-Dickins and Germaine, the information obtained from the universities was carried out over a time period of two months in spring 2012. The universities (the heads of departments, teaching staff responsible for coordinating the English course, or the English teachers) provided relevant data. Information was obtained through the universities' websites, curricula, course descriptions as well as information from the heads of departments or English teachers³. The evaluation grid was filled with the information obtained and was then proofread by the universities. Corrections were made when necessary and the final version was approved by the head of the department. In the end, the information from the four universities was put together in one grid and translated into English. This grid can be found in the appendix of this paper. The original German expressions, e.g. title of courses, are included as footnotes in German to illustrate the original meanings regardless of possible ambiguity due to translation. The purpose of the evaluation is to gather information on certain aspects of the English course from different universities and illustrate how they implement these. The purpose is to visualise similarities and differences. In combination with the information gathered from the interviews, the aim is to provide guidelines that can be useful for teachers in this field.

In her chapter on evaluation Robinson (1991: 65) writes that evaluation is about "effectiveness and efficiency of teaching programmes". Evaluation can "serve as a resource for others thinking of running similar courses" (*ibid.*: 67). Basturkmen (2010: 65) emphasises that

what sets course evaluation in ESP apart from course evaluation in general is its focus on evaluating perceptions of effectiveness and assessing learning not only at the end of the ESP course but also in the light of subsequent experiences in the target field.

It is not only important to consider students' perceptions on how effective the course is, but also to evaluate "whether the students learnt what we had hoped they would" (*ibid.*: 66).

³ Individual sources are not mentioned explicitly in the running text nor the bibliography to secure anonymity of universities and teachers

I would like to quote Basturkmen (2010: 30) on needs evaluation which is an important and widely discussed aspect in ESP:

Needs analysis can take a number of forms including questionnaires, interviews, observations of interactions and analysis of language use in the target situation, tests of performance and observations of ESP learners carrying out tasks replicating those in the target situation.

A selection of these methods is usually applied by ESP teachers to access important information about the target community and target situations. This is done because usually ESP teachers are not members of the target community. It is interesting, however, that needs evaluation is not carried out explicitly by the universities analysed. Since three of the four teachers are OTs themselves, they are at the same time, so to say, members of the target community. They can identify situations in which they need English (attending conferences, doing a master's degree or working abroad, reading scientific articles in English, etc.) taking their own experience into account. Therefore, the needs identified by the selected universities and teachers are mostly drawn from their own experience as OTs as well as from the students' personal goals. The proceedings of needs analysis are therefore not explicitly focused on in this study.

5.2 Interviews

Robinson (1991: 69) mentions various forms of methods for data collection that can be used for evaluation. These are questionnaires, checklists, rating scales, interviews, observation, discussion, records and assessment. For the purpose of this paper I would like to quote Robinson (*ibid.*: 70f) on the advantage of carrying out interviews for the purpose of evaluation:

Face-to-face interviews are time consuming but provide the opportunity for more extended exploration of the points than do questionnaires or checklists. Ideally, the interviews are planned and systematised; that is, the same or related questions are asked of each interviewee.

In this study the interview guide is organised around the evaluation criteria. Teachers went into more detail on certain aspects and could elaborate on their point of view and experience.

Kvale (2001: 1) proposes that in a qualitative interview "knowledge is constructed in the inter-action between the interviewer and the interviewee". He further describes

this as an exchange of information on selected topics which are of interest for both partners of the conversation (*ibid.*: 5). The interviewer wants to capture how the interviewee sees selected topics and evaluates certain practices. The content of the interviews can also be of interest for the interviewees because they reflect on their practices.

5.2.1 Interview Guide

As mentioned before, the sequence of interview questions followed the categories used for curriculum evaluation, but more issues and details could be elaborated on in the interviews. Many topics and questions go back to my own experience as a teacher in this field. The interview guide consisted of 99 questions covering different topics. Questions for the interviews were formulated over time and extended when interesting points in literature were found. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 144), for example, mention numerous types of activities that can be used in the classroom. The authors list “drills, pairwork, storytelling, songs, [and] games”. Another aspect considered in the interviews was to find out what activities the students like and respond to in a positive way (*ibid.*). During the interviews a number of questions focused on the homework that teachers set for their students’ self-study time and how these are assessed. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (*ibid.*: 156) mention several types of homework such as “written homework, making notes for an oral presentation, reading preparation, working on a part of a class project, or learning vocabulary items”. These are a few examples of how findings from ESP and teaching literature influenced the interview questions.

It was decided to conduct the interviews in German because all teachers involved are German native speakers. The detailed interview guide can be found in the appendix. It follows the levels introduced by Richards (2009: 188), namely topic, subtopic and key-questions. An example for topic would be “assessment” with related subtopics such as “assessment criteria” or “documentation”, and some possible questions assigned to these subtopics. The list of questions drawn up in the interview guide was treated flexibly during the interviews, for example, sometimes questions could be omitted because they had been answered already. Nevertheless, the structure helped to get comparable answers from different interview partners to enable useful

analysis. As Kvale (2007: 57) states “the more structured the interview situation is, the easier the later conceptual structuring of the interview by analysis will be”.

The interview checklist was prepared following Dörnyei’s categories (2007: 137) which clarify important aspects such as making sure that all important topics are dealt with, questions to be asked are properly formulated, with probe questions included to fall back on if necessary (*ibid.*). Dörnyei (*ibid.*: 140) also emphasises that

before starting the recording, we need to explain again the reason for the interview [...]. We should also summarize briefly what will happen to the interview data and it may be worth reassuring the respondent again on the issue of confidentiality.

These points influenced the interview checklist preceding the questions in the interview guide. Like his fellow writer Kvale, Dörnyei suggests the use of so-called “pre-closing moves” in order to summarise the conversation’s main points. This gives the interviewee the chance to give feedback to the interviewer’s interpretation of contents. Moreover, by posing an open question in the end the interviewee is invited to make additional comments (*ibid.*: 143). Another suggestion by Dörnyei is to “re-express our gratefulness and respect, and discuss the ways by which the material will be used and the logistics of how to keep in touch in the future” (*ibid.*). This was also included in the interview checklist. Cameron (2001: 20f) talks about the importance of reminding interviewees that recorded data will be treated anonymously in the paper.

5.2.2 Conducting interviews

As others, Kvale (2007: 24) emphasises getting the consent of interviewees and securing their confidentiality. This was stated clearly to the interview partners when arranging the interview date and before starting the recording on the actual day of the interview. Concerning the analysis, interview partners were given the option to read the transcripts of their interviews. However, none of the interview partners considered reading their transcripts necessary. Cameron (2001: 20f) suggests stating clearly what the material collected from the interviews will be used for and how it is going to be analysed. An interview cover sheet as suggested by Richards (2009: 191) was completed after individual interviews.

The interviews were conducted and transcribed between August and October 2012. A digital voice recorder was used for recording the interviews (Olympus digital voice recorder VN-8400PC). A print-out version of the evaluation grid of the respective university was used for each interview. Since the focus was on the content of the interviews, this mode of recording was sufficient for the purpose of this paper. The interviews lasted longer than expected each lasting between one and a half and two and a half hours. This may, however, be due to the fact that I tried to paraphrase statements and questions during the interview to avoid ambiguity and make the meaning of utterances clearer. This eases the later analysis and makes interpretations more valid (Kvale 2007: 42). I also summarised main points at the end of the interviews to give interviewees the opportunity to comment, clarify and correct (*ibid.*: 13).

5.2.3 Transcribing interviews

I transcribed the interviews in separate documents. Each utterance by interviewer and interviewee was labelled with subsequent numbers. The transcription produced was later copied into Atlas TI for the coding stage of the analysis. While transcribing I differed from commonly used schemas applied in transcription of interviews in discourse analysis by using small and capital letters as well as punctuation to make reading the interviews easier. Other features of speech such as length of pauses, intonation, etc. were not considered because they are not relevant for the performed content analysis. What was done during the transcription process according to Cameron (2001: 35) is, however, “not a faithful representation of [...] data”. Even so, as Cameron (*ibid.*: 39) puts it, “what is worth including in a transcript depends on what you want to do with that transcript afterwards”. So the reason for this choice was related to the purpose of the project: It was about finding out information, i.e. doing content analysis or, as Kvale (2007: 94) puts it, “the main interest is the content of what is said”. Transcription conventions were decided upon (see Kvale 2007: 96) but with only what was relevant for the content analysis of this project. I only transcribed for the content conveyed in the interviews and added a few remarks in square brackets (laughter, describing what was happening, e.g. interviewee checks something in their notes, etc.) or explanations as footnotes that are important for understanding. Dörnyei (2007: 247) supports this by saying that “if we are interested

in the content rather than the form of the verbal data, we can decide to edit out any linguistic surface phenomena”.

Similar to Cameron’s statement, Kvale (2007: 92) claims that transcribing interviews is the first state of interpretation. Likewise Dörnyei (2007: 246) takes the view that “turning recordings into transcripts already contains interpretative elements” and “[n]o matter how accurate and elaborate a transcript is, it will never capture the reality of the recorded situation”. Relating to Cameron (2001: 23) there were no passages in the recordings which were not transcribed, but in the interviews it was arranged with the interview partners to use pseudonyms for names and places, and sometimes anonymise certain parts of information to protect them from being identified by people reading this study.

Table 1 below lists the transcription conventions which have been defined for the interviews. They are quite straightforward because only items relevant for content analysis were considered.

I	Interviewer
A / B / C / D	Interviewee of the corresponding interview. This also refers to the Universities of Applied Sciences included in this study (universities A / B / C / D)
[]	Square brackets include comments and information about the interview situation to make the dialogue more easily accessible for the reader
...	Means a sentence was not finished
<u>word</u>	Underscoring indicates stress in a sentence
footnotes	Footnotes sometimes include explanations for acronyms or terms used by the interviewees to refer to specific associations, medical diagnoses, etc.

Table 1: Transcription conventions

5.2.4 Coding interviews

Interviews were coded and analysed using Atlas TI software. Codes are closely related to criteria from curriculum evaluation as well as topics and subtopics from the interview guide. The research method is an analysis of content with the aim to collect as many aspects as possible which are interesting for the teaching of medical English for OT students.

Kvale (2007: 105) states that “[c]oding involves attaching one or more keywords to a text segment in order to permit later identification of a statement”. After transcription, coding can be considered the next step of analysis. As Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 253) say

[c]oding refers to organizing data into themes and categories so that they can be used for the purpose of ongoing analysis, interpretation and conclusion drawing. On a mechanical level, it involves assigning codes to units of data which represent the themes and categories that emerge from the data during analysis.

For the purpose of coding the data from the interviews, my aim was to find themes that (potential) teachers might be interested in looking up. Using these codes through all of the four interviews meant that different quotations of each code provide information on a certain topic collected from all four interviews. Certain codes are especially interesting when answering the research questions posed at the beginning of the paper, others are more peripheral in relation to the research questions.

Dörnyei (2007: 250) defines “code” as “a label attached to a chunk of text intended to make the particular piece of information manageable”. He specifies that “all the qualitative coding techniques are aimed at reducing or simplifying the data while highlighting special features of certain data segments in order to link them to broader topics or concepts” (*ibid.*). This was especially important because the interviews were long. Waiting to define categories and codes during the analysing process instead of at the beginning allows for different layers of meaning to be identified (*ibid.*: 26). After initial coding, the interviews were reviewed and edited several times to make categories clearer.

What I applied for the analysis was what Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005: 259) refer to as “inductive coding” which means that “the analyst develops the coding system only when the close analysis begins”. I did not have a set of codes ready when I started coding the interviews, but the codes emerged during the process of working with the first and subsequent interviews. I did, however, use some of the terms or categories I had used for the interview guide because many of the answers could be coded relating to topics that were asked about in the interviews. Ellis and Barkhuizen (*ibid.*: 266) say rightly that “in order to assign codes to concepts, the concepts first have to be found in the data”. I read through the interviews and marked interesting passages

which I then assigned a code to. Sometimes more codes are assigned to the same quotation if it fits related categories. “Codes are letters [...] which serve as mnemonic devices that identify and mark the themes in the text. They should be short, simple and easy to remember” (*ibid.*: 267). This is what I tried to do in the coding process. I also experienced what Ellis and Barkhuizen (*ibid.*) describe here, “the labels are revised as the researcher both discovers new themes and redefines old themes while working through new data and re-visiting previously analysed data”. Coding data is a process that is ongoing for a long time, and refined every time one reads the interviews again and re-checks the codes.

At this point I would like to give a brief overview of the codegroups. The final coding schema can be found in the appendix. Codes were assigned in relation to information about the English courses such as how many parts are there, how is the distribution across training, information on ECTS credits and workload, frequency of sessions, group size, number of teachers, etc. These points can be considered as basic data for organising such a course within the general curriculum.

Another group of codes was identifying information on the planning of the curriculum and sessions. Included here are, for example, the possible influence of the general module English belongs to, how are individual sessions organised etc. The third group of codes was content and topics, which included collecting different topics covered in the course as well as how aspects such as grammar, vocabulary etc. are treated. The next group of codes is closely related to the latter in that it focused on aims and learning objectives of the course, taking into account comments about students’ goals being worked on or not, as well as how teachers help to meet these goals. A separate code group was used for comments about the four skills⁴, reading, writing, speaking and listening, and how these are treated in the English course.

Another code group with many subcodes related to teaching methods, which methods are used and how, how is group work organised, which methods and activities do teachers make use of, etc. A smaller code group was concerned with language of instruction, is English or German used in class, by teachers and

⁴ Basic terms from ELT are used throughout this paper. Detailed information on these can be found in publications by Hedge, Cook and Richards & Rodgers (publication details can be found in the *references*).

learners. Another important codegroup identified materials and sources being used, which is of special interest because teachers do not use ready-made course books for their teaching but compile their own materials suitable for the purpose.

One group of codes had to do with possible improvements and wishes that interviewees stated. Reading this group of codes would be if one was interested about changing or setting up a new course. Suggested improvements were related to many different aspects of course organisation, materials, etc. Another codegroup focused on coding statements on the importance of English for OT especially in relation to OT research. Another code group concentrated on the teachers, their experience, qualification, background and other related aspects.

Another important codegroup is that of assessment and assessment methods. Statements made by the teachers on the topic were pointed out, proving to be sometimes challenging for them. Information about students on issues such as level of English, motivation, etc. was another codegroup. Comparably smaller groups of codes were in relation to topics on international contacts, atmosphere in the classroom, teamwork and cooperation (within universities) and expressed interest in the results of the project. Since some of the subcodes and codegroups are quite similar in nature they are examined together in the *findings* and *discussion* section.

6 Findings

In this section the findings of data collection from curriculum evaluation and interviews are presented. More details are provided in the subsequent *discussion* section where results are compared and contrasted to findings from ESP literature.

6.1 Findings from evaluation of English courses for OT students

Since in all four universities the English course is part of the general OT curriculum it can be categorised as “pre-experience” in contrast to “during-experience” and “post-experience” (Basturkmen 2010: 6). This situation, of course, influences the planning and implementation of the English course. Also the category of ESPP where the English course focuses on one group of AHPs, namely OTs, is important to keep in mind when relating findings from general ESP literature to the aims of this study.

The results of the curriculum evaluation of English courses conducted at different Universities of Applied Sciences show both similarities and differences. A detailed grid outlining information on the selected criteria can be found in the appendix. A summary of analysis is provided here. Concerning the **number of courses**, it has to be highlighted that university A offers five English courses running for five semesters in contrast to universities B, C and D which run two English courses (university B) or only one English course (universities C and D). University B has one course in semester one, and the other one in semester six. Universities C and D have their English course in the middle of the three-year training, namely in semesters three and two respectively. Depending on the semester in which the different courses take place content and learning objectives vary, which will be focused on in the discussion part.

The **type of course** is either a seminar (universities A and C) or a course (universities B and D). Both categories denote an intensive and active learning experience for the students which contributes to language learning. The course type is closely related to the number of **ECTS credits** because they have more credits than, for example, a lecture course. The number of ECTS credits⁵ ranges from one (university D) to five (university A), similar to the **workload** which consists of 125 hours in university A and 25 hours in university D. Similarly, **total number of teaching units**⁶ ranges from 17 (university D) to 90 (university A), with universities B and C positioned in the middle having 28 and 36 teaching units respectively. So we can see different degrees of intensity of the English course in the four different universities. This is, again, closely linked to the number and intensity of topics which can be covered in the different courses.

Considering the **frequency** with which the sessions take place, there are also differences among the four universities in relation to the total number of hours assigned to the English course. Universities B and D run their courses for a time period of about four weeks, whereas university C runs the English course for a time period of one semester and university A for several weeks each term. Depending on the general time table, sessions are run every week or every other week. In the four

⁵ In all universities one ECTS equals 25 hours workload

⁶ In all universities one teaching unit consists of 45 minutes

universities English classes do not take place more often than once a week. The **number of teaching units taught per session** is quite similar and amounts to three teaching units on average. Explanations and comments on this made by the interviewees can be found in the *results* section of the interviews and the *discussion* section.

The universities show different ways of organising the **number of students** in a class. In university B the whole class (which consists of 20 students) is taught by one teacher. University D teaches some parts of the course to the whole class (32 students), other parts to two groups (16 students each). Universities A and C have two groups with twelve (university A) or 14 to 17 students (university C) each. Another difference is that in university A the same person teaches both groups, whereas in university C the two groups are taught by two different teachers. Concerning the **teachers' qualification** it is important to note that in universities B, C and D OTs are teaching the English course. Teachers B and D hold a master's degree in OT, teacher B even a PhD, whereas in university C one of the teachers is a native English speaker and the other one is studying English at university level. Only the teacher at university A is not an occupational therapist. Teacher A holds a teaching degree in English. The curricula and heads of departments state different **criteria for selecting the teachers** for the course. In university A the teacher has to hold a teaching degree in English, whereas in the other universities, emphasis is put on specialist (OT) knowledge as well as required English skills.

All universities share the requirement that **English level B2** according to the CEFR⁷ is a prerequisite to enter the degree programme. This is the proficiency level students reach with their school leaving examination in Austria. Early in the curriculum evaluation, it became clear that even though the B2 level for English should form the basis for the students' (medical) English course, this was not always the case. This issue was explicitly addressed by the heads of departments in universities A and B. The difficulty of this very individual level of English proficiency among students was further talked about by all four teachers interviewed.

⁷ Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

It is also interesting that there are no **subject courses offered in English** at all four universities in terms of CLIL and subject-language integration. In universities A and C occasional lectures by international guest speakers are often held in English. In university C it is planned to hold other (subject) courses in English too. Universities B, C and D note that students work with texts in English throughout their training, especially when writing their bachelor papers.

All the universities are similar in that the **total number of teaching units** has increased significantly since the change of the programme to tertiary education. Universities A, B and D used to have ten teaching units for English, university C 20 teaching units. Comparing this to the total number of teaching units now ranging from 17 (university D) to 90 (university A) there has been an increase in each university. One can therefore conclude that the importance of English for studying OT has become more widely acknowledged and is reflected in the curriculum in an increase of total hours. The bachelor degree programme consists of numerous modules in each university. In all four universities English is part of **general modules** focusing on research methodology and its components. As we will see in the *discussion* this general module influences the direction and balance of the content. In some universities this link is more obvious than in others. Only the first of the two English courses in university B, which is referred to as basic ESP, is part of the general module “foundations of occupational therapy”.

Learning objectives centre around the following areas: students should know and apply English vocabulary concerning their field (universities C, D); definitions and synonyms related to the field (university D); explain OT to different target audiences (university D); understand and discuss English texts and articles (universities B, C, D); discuss research findings (universities A, B, C, D); communicate with colleagues (universities A, C); communicate with clients (universities A, C); conduct presentations in English (university B). The formulation of aims in the curricula is rather broad, but these aims have a different level of importance among the universities. The interviews clearly showed that it is the teachers who typically formulate more specific goals when compiling the course description for the respective semesters. The learning objectives from the curricula merely serve as a guideline.

Topics and content are closely related to the learning objectives and centre around the following areas: terminology and field-specific vocabulary such as vocabulary related to medicine, hospital, OT and the therapeutic process (A, B, C, D); higher education vocabulary (A); communication skills (A, C); oral and written communication skills across an international, multidisciplinary context (A, C); patient instruction (A, C); presentations (A, B, C); reading specialised literature (A, B, C, D); literature search and scientific writing (A, B, D); writing a CV and filling out a job application form (A). We can see that university A covers a larger number of topics than, for example, university D, the reason being the difference in the total number of teaching units.

Teaching methods defined by the curricula vary across the universities. Group work as well as presentations, role plays and input-lectures have a central role at all universities. The importance of discussion is represented in the English curriculum of universities B and C. Autonomous learning is mentioned in curricula A and C. Interactive and communicative aspects are stressed in universities A and B. Only university A states teaching methods using language teaching terminology namely communicative language teaching (CLT), content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and total physical response (TPR). The different teaching methods were also discussed during the interviews.

In relation to teaching **materials** and **recommended reading** for students, the evaluation shows that some universities use the same or similar sources. In other criteria the universities differ. This might also be closely related to the total number of teaching units. More teaching units offer the possibility of covering more topics, working on more goals and using a larger variety of teaching materials. Universities A, C and D include Schiller's book "Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe" in their materials. All universities make use of OT literature in English such as journal articles, books and websites. A detailed list of recommended and possible texts can be found in the *discussion* section.

In relation to **assessment**, universities A, B and C use continuous assessment to evaluate students' performance by including various assignments and different types

of performance. Presentations as well as written assignments and quizzes, class participation, group work and possible projects contribute to the overall grade. University D does not have a separate grade for the English course, but uses a module exam. An overall grade is achieved for the general module.

Since the evaluation of the curricula of the different universities served as a basis for the interviews, more in-depth information and explanation was gathered when talking to the teachers. Overall findings from the interviews follow in the next section.

6.2 Findings from interviews

Table 1 below shows some information on the four interviews which were conducted for this study. They lasted from one and a half to two and a half hours. The total of numbered utterances varies between the different interviews from 464 (interview C) to 657 (interview B). The number of quotations coded range from 309 (interview C) to 445 (interview A).

INTERVIEW	A	B	C	D
duration	2h 30 min	2h 15 min	2h 13 min	1h 35 min
transcription utterances	617	657	464	554
quotations coded	445	334	309	284

Table 2: Information on interviews

Interviewees chose the setting for their interview. The atmosphere during all interviews was constructive. There was a good rapport between the interviewer and the individual interviewees and the teachers talked very openly and informatively about their experiences with the English course for OT students. In Kvale's (2007: 143) view "knowledge is not collected, but produced between interviewer and interviewee, and the meanings constructed in their interaction are again restructured throughout the later stages of an interview inquiry". Knowledge can be constructed best if there is confidence and trust between the speakers. It was important to create an atmosphere in which the goal "is not to try to prove or disprove something; rather, the aim is to explore and then describe in rich detail the phenomenon that is being

investigated” (Ivankova & Creswell 2009: 137). This intention was made explicit to the interviewees before the interview.

Coding of the interview transcriptions showed a higher frequency of certain codes in comparison to others across all interviews. Selected codes were assigned 20 times or more and can therefore be considered especially important. The topics of these codes are listed here: The importance of English for OT was coded in 22 quotations. Different topics and content (44 utterances), and codes for certain fields of vocabulary (34) were also coded often. Many different aims were collected (84 in sum) which are very closely related to the topics / content covered. From the skills codegroup the code for reading was assigned most often (20). Two codes relating to teaching methods were coded often, namely types of activities (21) and materials (21). Within the codegroup “materials” the highest frequency was coded for texts (32) and books (29) as well as recommended dictionaries (24). From the teacher codegroup the quotations most coded were concerned with the teachers’ English language experience and qualification (26). Students’ level of English (53) and their feedback on the course (25) had the highest frequency from the student codegroup. Because of their relatively frequent occurrence these codes can be considered especially relevant. They represent topics that were very central in the interviews and can therefore be considered relevant when planning and implementing a similar course. These results will be discussed in more detail in the *discussion* section of the paper.

Other codes were used less often, but still had more than ten occurrences across the four interviews. One of the many issues that concerned these codegroups was the distribution of the English class (14) and the frequency of the class (17). Another subcode from this codegroup is the importance of English as seen by the students (14). Quotations on planning the current curriculum were assigned 16 times. Among the subgroups represented from the codegroup topic were communication (14) and grammar (18) as well as literature search (13). 16 quotations relate to working on and reaching the set course aims. Speaking (15) and writing (16) are coded for the codegroup skills. The codegroup teaching methods was represented by seven frequently assigned subcodes, namely the emphasis on active learning (13), the use of e-learning for the course (12), group and pair work (16) and comments on the

allocation of possible group members (14). Using a combination of different teaching methods was coded eleven times, as was the use of presentations (11) and role plays (11). Concerning the language used in the course 16 quotations refer to the use of English by the teacher, and 11 to specific situations where the teachers use German. General comments on materials and how to select them (17) as well as comments on handouts (13) and lecture notes (11) were also included. Improvements concerning an increase in the total number of hours of the course (14) as well as increasing the use of English texts in other courses (13) were coded. OT research taking place in mainly English-speaking countries (16) was also a topic of interest. Comments on teachers' teaching experience and didactics (16) as well as other roles that teachers hold in their universities (14), other courses they teach (14), and how many years the interviewees have been teaching the English course already (13) were coded. In relation to the code group assessment six subcodes appeared more often than others. These included the role active participation played as part of the students' overall grade (14), the different components of the final grade (14), the use of presentations as part of assessment (16), the conducting of tests and quizzes as a measure of achievement (12), the different types of written work forming part of overall assessment (13) and the possible difficulties relating to assessing students (13). Comments about students' learning strategies and learner types were coded twelve times and quotations about students' motivation 19 times. Quotations about atmosphere in class amount to 17. Cooperation of teachers with other team members or teachers accounted for 13 quotations. All other codes were assigned to ten or less quotations and are therefore not discussed in detail in this analysis.

The overall result strongly shows how influential the students' individual level of English is. Although groups of learners are in the same field of studies and should have level B2 in English, they differ in age, work and education experience, personal goals and their level of English. The teachers therefore experience their groups of students as rather inhomogeneous. The difference in English language proficiency strongly influences many aspects of course planning and implementation. This is a major challenge identified by the teachers. In order to make assessment fair for students with different levels of language proficiency, teachers try to derive the overall grade from different parts and areas of performance.

To make students more comfortable with the language, the teachers use English as the language of instruction and encourage students to speak only English in class. The teachers' main aim is for students to lose their fear with the English language; they want to encourage them to speak and read in English. They consider it very important to motivate students to participate actively in class and acquire the language. All the teachers say that they work on all four language skills, although in comparison to reading, listening and speaking, writing skills are less focused on. All teachers commented positively on the fact that the total number of English lessons has increased as a result of the university status of programmes, although some of them think it could be even higher than is at the moment.

Teachers say that they are involved actively in planning curricula, syllabi, compiling teaching materials, etc. They all identify the lack of useful, ready-made source material. Teachers value cooperating with other teachers or colleagues at their universities and would greatly encourage such cooperation. The qualification of teachers is different as was already described in the results of curricula evaluation. Teachers see possibilities for improvement in different areas such as increasing the total number of hours as well as using English texts in other courses to increase the students' exposure to the English language. Other areas of possible improvement are the assessment of students, cooperation with other teachers, as well as distribution and frequency of sessions. Teachers also mentioned some other topics that they would find useful as part of the course but unfortunately would not have the time to cover in class.

Only teacher A is aware of the existence of ESP literature and research in this field. The other teachers commented on the lack of source material which they would like to use as a basis for their course. Challenges identified by interviewees, which proved to be similar to findings within ESP literature, are illustrated in the *discussion* section.

It is also interesting that needs analysis is not mentioned explicitly or carried out by the teachers but is given great attention in ESP literature. As mentioned before this might be due to the fact that in universities B, C and D the teachers are OTs themselves and therefore members of the target community. They know from their

own studies and work experience the possible needs that the English course can cater for. For planning and implementing the course, the majority of teachers do not talk about ESP literature as a source. Instead they would like to have ready-made books and materials available which they can use to build their teaching programmes.

Findings from curriculum evaluation and interviews are summarised and illustrated in the *discussion* section which compares findings to ESP literature. After some general comments, relevant topics are discussed in nine subsections which include categories important for designing curricula as well as planning and implementing courses.

7 Results and discussion of findings

In this section details about results gained from curriculum evaluation and especially from interviews are compared with additional findings from ESP literature illustrating how closely theory and practice are related. The section is subdivided into sections on different aspects related to teaching. Argumentation will emphasise similarities and differences of findings with ESP literature.

A basic concept to keep in mind throughout the whole *discussion* section is that it is never possible

to teach all of a language, teachers and course designers must be selective. Nowhere is this more so than in ESP teaching, with its emphasis on specific purposes and the limited duration of most ESP courses. It is often by selecting what to teach that language teachers show their notions of what language is and their beliefs as to what is important in language learning. (Basturkmen 2006: 23)

Decisions about what to teach, how to teach it and in which time frame, are essential for a successful ESP course. Because ESP courses are different and therefore difficult to compare, it is not surprising that Basturkmen (*ibid.*: 4) identifies a “gap in the literature on ESP”. Findings from this study call for another special type of ESP course, namely medical English for OT students to be recognised.

Basturkmen (*ibid.*: 18) believes that “the task of the ESP course developer is to identify the needs of the learner and design a course around them”. Although the process of needs analysis is a fundamental part in ESP literature, it seems English

teachers for OT students do not conduct a fully-fledged needs analysis. Needs analysis is essential for ESP teachers who are language experts but not necessarily members of the target community. They conduct needs analysis to identify possible learning objectives and topics relevant for the students' specialty. Teachers B, C and D, however, are OTs and therefore members of the target community. They identify needs by analysing why they themselves need English. Additionally, they are in close contact with qualified OTs and can ask them to identify possible needs they have not seen themselves. Due to this unique situation, needs might be clearer for teachers who are also OTs than for outsiders. Examples of possible English needs for OTs and OT students have been identified in the introductory chapters. Another source for the identification of needs is through the students themselves and the goals they have for the course. Their English needs might be closely related to the performance necessary for their studies. This small-scale type of needs analysis is mentioned by teacher D (D: 112⁸) who lets her⁹ students formulate their own goals, i.e. what do they expect from the course.

In general it is especially important in an ESP course to distinguish between objective and subjective needs. Basturkmen (2006: 20) warns that "ESP has sometimes produced a rigid view of language needs and failed to take account of the variation of language use that exists in any target situation". For an ESP course to be successful we need to consider the target situations and the different possibilities of language use in these situations. She proposes that "[i]f the students are a fairly homogeneous group in relation to their target needs, then a course towards the narrow-angled end of the continuum is not only feasible but is almost inevitable" (Basturkmen 2010: 56). It is important to keep in mind, however, that "students in narrow-angled ESP courses are not likely to have identical needs and at least some of the course content is bound to be more relevant to some individuals than others" (*ibid.*: 58). This is true for the courses analysed. For example, teacher B says she focuses on what students need during their studies (i.e. reading English articles) and not on working abroad because only a small percentage of students actually end up doing this (B: 20).

⁸ The format used to refer to interviews (D: 112) can be read as interview D, utterance 112

⁹ Since the majority of teachers interviewed were female, the feminine personal pronouns (she, her, etc.) are used throughout the *results* and *discussion* section when referring to teachers' statements. A distinction between masculine and feminine personal pronouns is not made in order to maintain anonymity.

The subsections illustrate areas of interest and discuss them in more depth. Findings from curriculum evaluation and interviews are discussed in relation to ESP literature. Different categories are very closely related to each other and cannot be easily distinguished because they influence each other so strongly. Information in this section can be seen as a guide for teachers in relation to planning and implementing their course. A comprehensive list in bullet-point format is provided in the section *guidelines for good practice*.

7.1 Course and syllabus design

In her book, Robinson (1991: 33) focuses on syllabus and course design for ESP. Her general definition of syllabus is “a plan of work to be taught in a particular course”. According to Basturkmen (2006: 21) a syllabus is a list of language items planned to be taught in a course. Robinson (1991: 33) already mentions the problem that “[n]umerous accounts of ESP courses exist, although many remain in unpublished form” which is why it is difficult to obtain course materials or ideas. Robinson points out that “syllabuses are rarely, if ever, unique” (*ibid.*: 44) which holds true also for the courses analysed. Every teacher sets up their own syllabus. As Robinson puts it “[t]here is certainly no single model for an ESP course. An ESP course frequently requires a major input of time and resources – both financial and physical – on the parts of students, teaching staff and administrators” (*ibid.*). Depending on the syllabus, materials are designed and then methodology chosen (*ibid.*: 45). Teacher A says that students receive a copy of the syllabus as a guide. It contains information on learning objectives, content, methods and recommended reading (A: 176). Likewise, teacher B makes sure that students are aware of the learning objectives, content and the topics on which the main focus lies (B: 178). Also teacher C discusses learning objectives with the students at the beginning of the course for orientation (C: 70). Students also receive these objectives in written form (C: 73-74). Students in university D receive a list with the competencies of the general module. They then formulate their own personal learning goals for the course (D: 112).

Robinson (1991: 34) describes ESP course design in the following way: it “is the product of a dynamic interaction between a number of elements: the results of the needs analysis, the course designer’s approach to syllabus and methodology, and

existing material (if any)". For the courses analysed there is no course book readily available for use. Teachers collect, adapt or compile existing materials to suit their needs (see further details in subsection *materials* of the *discussion*). There is not much collaboration between the different teachers of ESP involved. This is also addressed by the interviewees. Teachers C and D only collaborate with the colleagues they are teaching the course with (C: 400; D: 435-436). None of the teachers cooperate with English teachers of different universities which teachers A and C find a pity (A: 541; C: 410). Additionally, teacher A stresses the importance of cooperating with English teachers for physiotherapists and other AHPs (A: 539).

The interviews bring to the fore many interesting comments relating to course and syllabus design which are relevant for planning the English course. These are discussed in the following subsections.

7.1.1 Involvement in curriculum design

Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 22) emphasise that teachers can consider earlier findings from literature regarding possible findings, needs analyses, materials, etc. before starting the course. The increase in the total number of hours allotted to English courses in the universities called for major changes to be implemented in the new curriculum. Teachers stated they were actively involved in this process but contradicted the quotation by Dudley-Evans and St John above as they did not find information available to build their new curricula on. Interviewees B, C and D did not consult ESP literature when setting up the course. Only interviewee A is aware of ESP literature (A: 206). In my opinion lecturers who do not hold a teaching degree in English might not be aware of available literature on ESP that could be helpful for their needs. Ways in which one can benefit from ESP would include "checking the literature for relevant articles, looking for ESP teaching material, contacting colleagues and organisations who might have experience of such groups, reading material about the subject or discipline" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 123). Likewise Basturkmen (2010: 140) suggests "that course developers make use of and build on information already available in their investigation of specialist discourse". My impression is that teachers did take time to look at available course materials for medical English and after finding nothing useful for their group of students, went ahead to compile their own materials.

All teachers say that they are constantly involved in planning and adapting the curriculum and aspects such as composing materials etc. They are able to plan the course according to what they consider important within the general framework provided by the university (A: 136; 161-162; 496; C: 378 & 408; D: 98 & 100-102). The course has developed over time and teachers have collected materials, adapted methods, aims, etc. in order to improve the course (C: 430). All teachers are satisfied that the total number of hours for English has increased since the programme change to tertiary level. Three teachers suggest increasing the total number of hours even more because in relation to the learning objectives, the hours are not sufficient, i.e. teachers have to restrict themselves at the moment (A: 16; 34; 404; C: 16 & 356; D: 126). This problem is also identified in ESP literature since there is only "limited time, and needs will invariably exceed the available time, so the analysis must help in selection and prioritisation" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 138). Teacher B is satisfied with the total hours given to the English course because she does not include preparing students for a placement abroad as part of the course (B: 12 & 292).

Another impression I got from the interviews was that there is a lack of cooperation between universities. If there was collaboration, teachers could share findings from (ESP) literature search and materials that they found useful. The situation, however, seems to be that all teachers start from scratch and invest a lot of time. Cooperation would allow teachers from different Universities of Applied Sciences to benefit from each others' experiences and findings and save a lot of time. I believe that ESP literature can be a helpful starting point for these teachers, even though some necessary specific information might not be found in ESP literature. Teacher A, for example, points out differences between her English course compared to the experience ESP teachers in other fields make (A: 504).

In ESP literature syllabus design is often linked to genre analysis. For example, Basturkmen (2006: 55f) emphasises the influence that genre analysis can have on devising a syllabus. She suggests that

[a] genre-based perspective on language does not mean that genres are seen as fixed and static. Genre rules constrain the communicative choices including choice of lexis, syntax, and content but they are not binding. [...] In recent

years, much teaching and research in ESP has focused on the study of the genres used in academic groups and workplace or professional communities.

When reading this quotation by Basturkmen one can imagine that using genre analysis could serve as a basis for planning a curriculum for medical English for OT students. A first step would be to

identify the genres that students will use in the target situation and then help students to deconstruct them in order to understand how they are structured, how the structure relates to the objectives (or communicative purposes) of the target group, what content the genres contain, and the linguistic devices and language use typical in them. (*ibid.*: 58)

Results of such a procedure could serve as a basis for a genre-based syllabus. According to Basturkmen's (*ibid.*: 59) description, students should be involved in the process of identifying texts relevant for the genre and therefore for their own English course because genre is dependent on and created by the target community.

7.1.2 Timing

This subsection focuses on duration, distribution and frequency of courses and hours. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 146) in their book describe numerous parameters essential for course design. All courses analysed for this study can be classified as extensive ESP courses because English represents "only a small part of the student's timetable". Extensive can also mean that "[e]ach class and the material for it may have to be self-contained in terms of both the aim of the class and the material used, which does not allow for carry-over between classes" (*ibid.*: 147). The English course always runs parallel to many other courses of the students' programme. It is possible in an extensive course, however, to have intensive elements (*ibid.*) which is the case in universities B and D where more teaching units are combined for each session (see *frequency* below).

In university A five English courses are offered in semesters one to five, but not semester six. Teacher A (A: 6) said she would like to have more time for English when students actually work on their bachelor papers to support them writing abstracts etc. She therefore recommends that English courses start in semester two instead of semester one and run until semester six (A: 42). Teacher A considers it as an advantage that her courses run for the main part of OT programme and she can support students in different stages of their studies. This enables her also to adjust

the content of the English course to what is going on at the same time in the students' subject courses or placements (A: 27-28; 142; 586). Basturkmen (2010: 139) supports this by suggesting that the experience that students have concerning the subject matter, i.e. at what stage of their training the English course takes place, should be considered.

This situation which allows students to acquire subject knowledge at the same time as the English course is defined by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 151) as "*parallel with experience* [...] [because] the English course runs concurrently with the study course of professional activity". This is important to keep in mind in terms of material selection and topics. We need to consider which subject knowledge students already have in order that we can build on it and see what they have not yet covered. The ESP teacher tries "to bring to the surface the knowledge of the subject area that the students already have and to create opportunities for the students to actualize this knowledge in the target language (in this case, English)" (Basturkmen 2006: 139). In the courses analysed for the purpose of this study, this would mean looking at which medical fields have already been covered by the students and how this in turn can influence the choice of texts we use in class. It can also be relevant in terms of how much students already know about reading scientific papers and academic texts from their field in general. Teacher D supports this by saying that when implementing the course in the first year of studies, students have less OT background knowledge which needs to be taken into account when planning the course, content and activities (D: 304).

Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 151) see it as an advantage when students have already acquired subject knowledge because this can serve as a basis for the teaching situation. Teachers can "ask them to give examples from this knowledge and to make use of certain learning strategies that are familiar from learning about their subject or profession". Interviewee B, for example, chooses particular (OT) frameworks and models to work with in the English course which the students are familiar with in German from preceding courses (B: 100). It can therefore be useful to time the English course and its contents accordingly within the OT curriculum.

Teacher B says it is helpful if students already start with the first English course in their first year of studies. This provides a chance for them to start working on their very different levels of English (B: 4). To have the second course in the last semester, teacher B considers rather late because students have almost already completed both their bachelor papers (B: 5). Teacher D finds it helpful that students start with their English course in semester two because they have already read some English articles in semester one and therefore already have questions about problems they have encountered (D: 18).

In relation to the students needing English to read literature for their bachelor papers or complete placements, it is interesting to distinguish between immediate versus delayed needs. The situation described by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 148) also applies to the courses analysed in this study: “the English course runs parallel with subject courses in the first or second years of students’ subject course, but the students’ actual needs for English become more pressing in later years of the course, or once they have graduated”. The students feel that at the beginning of their studies, they do not need English because they take exams for subject courses in German. However, they “may well need to consult English sources when they write a dissertation in their final year” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 148). While the English courses analysed seek to prepare students to use English sources for writing their papers, they have a greater or lesser focus on preparing students for doing a placement abroad or working in an English-speaking environment.

Concerning planning the timetable for the course, Robinson (1991: 43) states that “if class sessions are infrequent (once a week), each session may need to be treated as self-contained, with no carry-over expected from one week to the next”. Once a week is the highest frequency of the courses analysed. They do have, however, more than one teaching unit each session. Teacher A, for example, states that in comparison to courses in the past, she tries to organise three teaching units per session and runs the sessions every ten days (A: 48 & 50). Her experience in the past was that when she combined less units per session and over a longer period of time, students lost track (A: 46 & 48). Frequency in university C is similar with courses taking place once a week or every other week which means the course runs for one semester. Teacher C considers this useful for language acquisition (C: 24 & 26). Like teacher A, teacher

C has found it successful to hold three teaching units per session as it seems to be a good length for the students when taking into account concentration time span and language acquisition (C: 28 & 30).

Teacher D holds the class every week with four to five teaching units per session (D: 21-22). She finds this a useful way of getting students into the habit of speaking English and working with selected topics (D: 28 & 32). For organisational reasons teacher B held the first course for two afternoons in total the last time (7 units per afternoon) which she considers useful because students have time to really get into the language. On the other hand, it is very intensive for the students who struggle with English to begin with (B: 28 & 35). Next time, she would organise to have at least three afternoons so there are two possibilities for self-study time in between (B: 40). Teacher D likes that the English course is completed within one or two months because from her experience students are happy when the course is finished and they can concentrate on other things (D: 23-26). We can see here that different teachers have made different experiences with frequency and duration of the course. Overall it is recommendable to run sessions every week or every other week and combine three teaching units per session. The place of English within the general timetable and whether an in-house teacher or an external lecturer holds the course has considerable impact.

7.1.3 Relevance of English for OT (students)

This section is very closely related to and supports claims made in chapter two (*the importance of (medical) English for OTs*). For example, teacher A writes in her syllabus:

A good command of English has become more important than ever before in all medical professions and will help you in your training and later in your professional development, publications, international conferences, studying abroad, exchanges with colleagues from abroad as well as most likely in your everyday working life, increased number of non-German speaking patients, use of IT-based resources. This course is meant to move you towards proficiency in the English language as it is used in the context. (A: 464)

Teacher A here refers to English skills students will most likely need after their graduation. Students might consider the role of English during their studies as less important. Teacher C claims that students see the importance of English when they attend ENOTHE conferences (C: 398). Teacher B, on the other hand, says that not

all students want to attend ENOTHE conferences or complete placements abroad. Some of them are happy once they finish their studies (B: 170). She therefore chooses skills students specifically need for their studies (working on their bachelor papers, reading English texts, etc.) as learning objectives because this is relevant for everyone in the group (B: 594). All teachers emphasise that recent scientific findings are published in English and students should be able to access and understand them (A: 16; B: 144; C: 388; D: 282 & 430). Teachers B, C and D emphasise the need to work with English texts for writing bachelor papers nowadays (B: 19; C: 388; D: 368). In relation to this, I would like to emphasise that writing a thesis in English is not an area explored in this study, the reason being that in all four universities it is rather uncommon for students to write their bachelor papers in English (see also A: 152). Students do, however, need to read scientific articles relevant to their field in English in numerous classes as well as when researching for their papers.

Those students who after graduation want to work in a scientific context or abroad have different aims than their colleagues (B: 590 & 594). Teacher B says that OT master students see the importance of reading scientific papers in English even more than the bachelor students (B: 572 & 596). In relation to the wish of practising OTs to stay up to date in their implementation of therapy and to apply evidence-based practice, they need to be able to access and understand English literature (D: 294 & 430).

7.1.4 Financial aspects

Djurić (1998: 222) emphasises that “too many foreign language teachers at the tertiary level have found themselves in a situation of seeking strong arguments merely to justify the presence of our foreign language in the curriculum”. This is a situation that interviewee A also describes. In university A English for OTs has the highest number of total hours, but this recently and repeatedly had to be justified to the finance department (A: 520).

7.2 Course content and topics

Content and topics defined in the curricula were already summarised briefly in the section *findings from curriculum evaluation*. Information on the same category but in

more detail was obtained during the interviews. For the *discussion* they are grouped into overall themes. Some topics are very closely related and difficult to distinguish.

Terminology and field-specific vocabulary:

- What is OT / General description of OT (A: 138; D: 90), introduce yourself and your profession (D: 46 & 498)
- Field-specific terminology relating to OT and medicine (B: 100; D: 86)
- Therapeutic process (A: 146; C: 138; D: 86 & 498)
- Assessment (A: 142 & 146; D: 86)
- Documentation (A: 150; D: 86)
- Reports (A: 150; C: 138)
- Abbreviations and acronyms (A: 322)
- OT terminology in models and theories (B: 106)
- Diagnoses and diseases (A: 142; D: 86 & 498), e.g. arthritis, Parkinson's disease, Alzheimer's (A: 142)
- Human body (A: 278; C: 34)
- Description of different departments in the hospital as well as procedures and personnel (A: 142)
- Recent developments in medicine – pros / cons (A: 140)
- OT in other countries (A: 138)

Communication skills:

- Greeting (A: 146; D: 80)
- Communicating with the client, asking questions (A: 142 & 146; C: 50; D: 46 & 512)
- Intercultural communication (A: 12 & 152)
- Giving advice (A: 360; C: 60)
- Discussion (B: 193-194)

Patient instruction:

- Giving instructions (A: 142)
- Describing movements (A: 142; D: 86) and exercises (A: 298)

Reading specialised literature:

- Scientific reading (A: 12; B: 108; C: 34 & 50; D: 62 & 88)

- OT websites (A: 142), including websites of OT associations abroad (A: 138), stories of OT (A: 142)
- Dictionary use (A: 108 & 332; B: 196)

Literature search and scientific writing:

- Literature search (B: 208; 150-154; D: 86-88; 204)
- Abstract writing (A: 12)
- Statistics and graph description (A: 12)

Presentations:

- Presentation (C: 34)

CV and job application forms:

- Writing a CV and filling out a job application form (A: 148)

What all of these topics covered in the English courses have in common is that they can be considered field-specific, i.e. used by the target community. For example, to know about hospital procedures, interdisciplinary team, symptoms and diseases, etc. will be useful for students completing a placement abroad. Their target community are the OTs they work with there. Understanding the language used in scientific writing is important in order for students to understand research findings influential for therapy. The target community consists of other students and teachers who discuss research findings and in turn use them for scientific writing. Another target community could be people attending a conference. This is also closely related to communication, not only at conferences but also among colleagues and with clients. The fact that English is part of the general module research methodology is reflected in the content as well, reading specialised literature, literature search and scientific writing, etc.

As Robinson (1991: 83) says “content may be very specific indeed, requiring a high degree of knowledge and skill from the teachers”. ESP courses, therefore, are often intense. Teachers might want to try to cover as much content as possible. This pressure can influence the learning situation (*ibid.*). It is interesting to note that in the list we can see that university A covers the most topics. This university has the highest number of total hours for English in the curriculum and the teacher is

therefore able to cover more topics. Because other universities have less hours available, they have to focus and specialise on selected topics. The list provided above can therefore be seen as including possible topics which teachers can choose from for their own purpose. As teacher C says, there are many topics and still each of them could be explored further if there was more time available (C: 16). Relevant vocabulary and grammar topics can be found in the section *language – vocabulary and grammar*.

7.3 Aims and learning objectives

Aims and learning objectives are very closely linked to the content of the courses, i.e. one category feeds the other. Again, a list is provided with the aims from different areas:

Students should be able to:

- know and apply English vocabulary related to their field, make use of definitions and synonyms (B: 18; C: 68; D: 86)
- Explain OT to different target audiences (B: 210; D: 126)
- Pronounce words correctly (C: 68)
- Listen to a talk (C: 68)
- Talk about the lecture (A: 266)
- Understand and discuss English texts (A: 192 & 255; B: 6, 12-14 & 108; C: 68; D: 8):
 - Critically evaluate texts and practices (A: 514)
 - Understand the meaning of a text without necessarily understanding every word (B: 58)
- Find English texts and articles: (A: 26 & 192; B: 6 & 198; D: 8 & 137)
- Use dictionaries successfully for their purposes (A: 330; B: 100, 204 & 633) as well as other source materials (B: 100)
- Discuss research findings (B: 6, 110 & 162)
- Communicate with (international) colleagues (A: 164 & 19; B: 108; C: 68)
- Communicate with clients (A: 152; C: 68; D: 86 & 126)
- Conduct presentations (A: 26 & 140; B: 173; D: 126)
- Take part in discussions (A: 140 & 142; B: 162)
- Write summaries / abstracts (A: 192; B: 126 & 148)

- Write a CV and fill out a job application form (A: 191), for example, to apply for a placement abroad (A: 191)
- Feel prepared to complete a placement abroad (D: 86)
- Take part in international conferences (A: 193; D: 126)

Apart from these very specific learning objectives there are some overall principles that are important for the interviewed teachers, namely that the students should:

- Have the courage to speak in English (A: 108 & 164; C: 312; D: 126)
- Have the courage to read English texts (A: 150 & 164; B: 12; D: 318) in order to be able to use it for bachelor papers
- Realise the importance of English for their studies and careers in OT (A: 322), realise the wealth of OT literature in English and access it (B: 558; D: 318)
- Have a basis to study further, attend courses and conferences in English (A: 164 & 590)
- Improve their personal English skills (C: 312) regardless of their different level and improve their personal language proficiency during the course (A: 108)

As in the case of the previous list for possible topics, this list can be used to identify course aims. For individual syllabi, content and aims, of course, have to be matched. Aims can be considered as competencies. Basturkmen (2006: 135) examines one of the objectives in ESP teaching “to develop performance competencies”. In her opinion “[c]ourses are organized around core skills and competencies” (*ibid.*) which are important to use in the target environment. A major choice teachers have to make is what their main focus is on. For example, teacher B proposes that reading scientific articles in English should be the main focus of the English course because other issues might not be relevant for all students (B: 20). She emphasises that the English course should support students to use English in a way that will be useful for them in their training (B: 169). This decision has to be communicated well to the students. The other universities go beyond this and also focus on practical work of OTs in English-speaking environments.

What is very interesting is that for all teachers it is very important that students are encouraged to speak and read in English. Their aim is that students are not afraid of and feel comfortable to use the English language. They want to encourage them in using the language. The atmosphere created through this can support students’

learning process. Students acquire language best if they participate actively in class. The aim is that students can participate in real-life situations and make use of whatever language they have available. Basturkmen (2006: 4) refers to this as the deep-end strategy which means that “[l]earners are cast into a situation where they need to use English in order to perform, a situation in which they have to communicate using whatever English they have at their disposal”.

Teacher A emphasises the importance of keeping in mind what the aims of the course are. There is only limited time available and it is useful to focus on selected things in more depth than doing more topics on a superficial level. She says one should not aim too high, but be realistic and remember what is important and relevant for the students. (A: 569). Also teacher D doubts that students benefit from more topics because this will reduce quality of the topics (D: 504). In university D, where students earn one grade for the overall module “research methodology”, all courses of this module support the achievement of selected competencies (D: 517).

The goals students achieve are closely related to language use in a target situation. In ESP literature this is often referred to as speech acts. Basturkmen (2006: 47), for example, points out that “ESP instruction and research often includes a focus on identification of the speech acts (also termed *functions*) used in target environments”. She defines speech acts as being “concerned with the communicative intentions of individual speakers or writers and are defined by the purposes for which the speaker uses the language” (*ibid.*: 48). The aims that are formulated for the English course of OT students are clearly serving a specific purpose.

One step further would be to not only prepare students for target situations and the language used in them but to include

[i]nstruction with the aim of raising students’ critical awareness [which] would involve discussing with students how norms and communicative practices in the target environments become established, encouraging students to critique any negative aspects, and making them aware of ways to try to change or modify the situation so as to position themselves better in relation to it. (*ibid.*: 141)

As an objective, ESP teaching should therefore “seek [...] to change the way the students feel about themselves and to improve their perceptions of their status in

relation to members of target environments and discourse communities” (*ibid.*). This simply means that students should acquire the skills necessary to critically question concepts and practices. Interviewee A mentions this by saying that she uses the English class to raise students’ awareness of OT practice in general and especially in different countries (A: 514).

Another interesting fact to look at is how teachers work on the set aims for the course. Teacher A, for example, points out the importance of letting students speak as much as possible, especially at the beginning of the course (A: 112). She feels that this supports students in losing their fear of speaking in English. In relation to the question concerning students reaching the set aims, teacher A says that some reach them more successfully than others, but that all students complete the course with an increased English knowledge and more skills than they started with (A: 454). Teacher C likewise believes that all her students reach the set aims, but to different degrees of proficiency (C: 338). What all students in university C and D achieve is mastering basic vocabulary relevant to OT and feeling more comfortable with the English language (C: 340; D: 368). Likewise, teacher A thinks that everybody achieves the courage to speak and read (A: 456). Teachers A and C additionally identify improvement in students’ presentation skills throughout the course (A: 460; C: 416). To support reaching the set aims, it would be beneficial for students to move within the mentioned target discourse communities, but unless they attend international conferences, work with English-speaking clients in their placements or complete a practical placement abroad, the only target situation they use English in is in the area of their studies when they are confronted with English texts in different courses or when searching for and working on their bachelor papers. Teacher B’s impression is that all students meet the main learning objective of reading and understanding specialised literature in English (B: 608). She points out, however, that in her opinion this is supported by the fact that students work with many texts in English in other classes related to research methodology. This frame gives the students more room to practise and might support reaching the set aims (B: 522).

7.4 Teaching Methodology

As the curriculum evaluation already illustrated, different types of teaching methods are used in the English courses. Only teacher A uses terms from ELT for categorising

her teaching methods, namely CLIL (A: 18; 206; 208), CLT (A: 206; 208) and TPR (A: 212). Whereas **TPR** is only used for teaching movements and instructing exercises, CLIL and CLT are used to a larger extent. What teachers B, C and D describe in their own words during the interviews could be categorised within **CLIL**, **CLT** and task-based learning (**TBL**). Teacher C explicitly addresses that in contrast to a language teacher she can merely describe her methods, but does not know the correct terms for them (C: 122). Teachers try to mix or provide a combination of different teaching methods and forms of activities to make learning more interesting (A: 208; 256; 565; C: 136; D: 154; 160; 486). No matter which teaching methods and different ways of conducting the course a teacher chooses teaching should always be authentic. There is no use in trying to do things that do not match the teacher's own personality (C: 438). Teacher C points out that it is important to develop one's own style in teaching.

In his article Hwang (2011: 142) emphasises the usefulness of CLT in ESP. The

curriculum should cultivate and emphasize listening, speaking, and reading skills. Authentic reading materials, such as English language newspapers and magazines, should be used so that student will not be able to find translations. Group discussion, cooperative learning, role-playing, and problem solving can be used in the English classroom to improve students' listening and speaking abilities. Students should be managers of their own learning, and they should be encouraged to negotiate meaning, interact with others in the group, and use effective and active learning strategies that will reinforce the value of student-to-student interaction.

Hwang here illustrates the close relationship between teaching methods and other aspects such as materials, language learning, skills, cooperation with other students, etc. Basturkmen (2006: 24) suggests using a task-based syllabus for ESP courses. She describes that such a syllabus lists specific tasks including different types of meaningful language use. During the course students learn to perform these tasks. "It is argued [...] that through struggling to use language to complete the task, the students acquire language" (*ibid.*). Considering the list of learning objectives for the course provided before (see section *aims and learning objectives* of the *discussion*), they can be seen as tasks in possible real-life situations. In contrast to ELT where "tasks are chosen for the pedagogical value, in ESP they may be chosen for their relevance to real world events in the target environments" (*ibid.*: 25). Tasks and learning objectives strongly influence the syllabus.

Interviewee A mentions the importance of acquiring language through **content** (A: 208). Basturkmen (2006: 105) claims that “ESP makes extensive use of content-based approaches”. This “approach makes use of authentic texts to which learners are expected primarily to respond in relation to the content” (*ibid.*: 103). In all universities teachers use a lot of authentic materials in their course (see also *materials* section in the *discussion*). The four main characteristics of content-based instruction (CBI) according to Basturkmen (2006: 103f) are

1. Content is the organizing unit of course design.
2. Skills are integrated.
3. Language is approached holistically.
4. Extensive use of authentic materials.

Content is a very important factor for the courses analysed and was addressed in both curriculum evaluation and interviews.

One important aspect of ESP methodology is what Basturkmen (*ibid.*: 114f) refers to as “input-based strategies”. The basis for this is that “learning occurs primarily through exposure to language input in the form of written or spoken texts and language descriptions” (*ibid.*). This reflects what all interviewees identify as one teaching method, namely the importance of providing input. Teachers give language **input** which is then worked with (A: 244; D: 150). Teacher B stresses the active notion of input in contrast to a lecture (B: 246). Teacher C thinks that the class time including active learning is longer compared to lecture-like inputs (C: 134). It is important to keep in mind that input is as important for learning as output. Basturkmen’s (2006: 115) claim that “input needs to be followed by student output for learning to occur” is shared by all teachers interviewed. Some options for output are different in-class activities as well as discussions, presentations and role plays. Teachers mention the use of **discussion** in class as a teaching method (A: 142; B: 242; D: 150). Teachers B and D distinguish between discussion in small groups and discussion involving the whole class (B: 242 & 248; D: 274). Also **presentations** are a favoured method (A: 212; B: 242; C: 104; D: 150).

All teachers make use of **role plays** to use acquired vocabulary and knowledge in communication (A: 212; B: 250; C: 126; D: 158). Robinson (1991: 49) describes role plays as involving “the learner taking on a different role and even identity from his or her usual one”. Teachers A, B and C use role plays for therapist-client situations (A:

212; C: 150) such as initial assessment (A: 232; B: 252; C: 150). This might include that the student who plays the therapist has to explain what OT is (B: 256; D: 158). Teacher D says that role plays generally are performed in pairs, sometimes a third person in the team acts as an observer (D: 174).

Teacher C tries to ensure students' acquisition of language items for the respective role play. Together with the students she collects useful phrases or words before starting the role play. During the activity, she walks through the room and listens to the different groups. Sometimes she asks students to write down their dialogues or act them out later in front of the class (C: 176). Basturkmen (2006: 117ff) describes this in her book when emphasising that selected language "items are presented or highlighted by the teacher [...]. [This] is followed by some form of practice in which the students produce the items". She adds that "the input-output option is used for teaching different aspects of language, including genre knowledge" (*ibid.* 121). According to this, interviewee C also stresses the role of using, for example, patient case studies taken from OT books as input because they serve as model for language and expressions which students later need for their own writing (C: 250).

Adding to the idea of input-based strategies, Basturkmen (2006: 123) also explains the application of **output-based** strategies in ESP which means that "instruction takes as its starting point students' effort to communicate in the target language". This means that teaching "needs to provide learners with opportunities to use whatever linguistic resources they have at their disposal" (*ibid.*: 124). Interviewees emphasised that they want to encourage students to use all the knowledge and skills they have available for the tasks.

Teachers also make use of **self study** opportunities for learners which can be done either individually or in groups (C: 145-146; D: 150). As part of self study, for example, students read and prepare texts in written or oral form for class (A: 242; C: 84; D: 38). Teacher A makes selected exercises available for students who then compare their results with answers provided (A: 182). Teacher B provides 30 minutes at the end of each session for self study so students can work on their final projects (B: 308). The total number of ECTS credits and hours of workload include estimated hours for self study which should be considered when designing the syllabus.

Projects are also a method used in some universities. According to Robinson (1991: 50) a project is defined to have “a clear target or end-product”. In university A there is collaboration with other European OT universities on a project. Students from different countries work on a case study to later compare their results (A: 168). Teacher A says that students are very motivated to take part in this project. Projects in English are also prepared for ENOTHE conferences (A: 200; B: 226-228; C: 68; D: 138-140). Teacher A assigns course time for preparation of ENOTHE projects for the students who are participating (A: 202). Teacher C emphasises that participating in ENOTHE projects is supported by the university (C: 112). Students are happy to attend these conferences and have an authentic target situation to use English in (C: 116).

Concerning **e-learning** for the English course, teachers say that they use it for different purposes. Teachers A and B use one e-learning platform which is widely used at universities nowadays, namely *moodle* (A: 212; B: 345). They upload learning materials such as the syllabus and handouts for the students on the e-learning platform (A: 262; B: 345). The advantage of uploading links and source materials is that students can still access information even after the course is already finished (B: 375). According to teacher B e-learning platforms additionally provide opportunities for active learning through, for example, online discussions, etc. (B: 342). Teacher C uses a different online learning platform provided by the university, which allows uploading materials for the course. The teacher can also send emails to the whole class through this internet portal (C: 202). In university D it is planned to use *moodle* for the English course in the future (D: 192-194).

As has been demonstrated above, teachers use different teaching methods for the course. Teacher D thinks it is important to remember that not every method is suitable for every group. It might be necessary to adapt the methods to the group that one is currently teaching (D: 521-522). Apart from methods used in class, teachers also describe some general principles for teaching. One important point emphasised by all the teachers is **repetition** since it contributes to automatisation in the learning process. Teacher C tries to repeat different things within sessions or in the following session (C: 426; D: 76; 160; 414). Also the final quiz is seen as a repetition (C: 426).

Games and activities in the sessions serve as a possibility to repeat content, vocabulary, etc. (C: 424).

Repetition is closely linked to **active learning**. When analysing the interviews it became clear that all teachers put emphasis on active learning. Involving students actively in different tasks and games increases the speaking time and encourages language use (A: 212 & 569; C: 124 & 398). To use new vocabulary in a relevant task supports students' acquisition of vocabulary and makes automatisisation possible (C: 128 & 424). Presentations and discussions (B: 242-244) are examples to involve students actively in language production, as well as role plays in different variations (C: 126). Kiely (2009: 108) describes that "[a] satisfying learning experience sustains motivation, develops a learning identity and trajectory, and nurtures investment in learning activity".

Teacher A actively engages students in self and peer evaluation (A: 212; 148; 555). Peer evaluation can be used for checking written work where in pairs students give each other feedback on their work (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 199f). "Peer and self-assessment are used to supplement teacher assessments and have most value as an aid to learning" (*ibid.*: 212). These forms of assessment are considered qualitative in contrast to quantitative such as assigning grades. "If constructive peer assessment procedures are developed, these can reduce the burden on the teacher and contribute to effective study techniques for the learners. Peer and self-assessment help learners to become more self-directed" (*ibid.*: 213).

Using **English as the language of instruction** encourages students to speak in English (A: 222; B: 118; C: 80; D: 168). It is important, however, to communicate this decision and intention to the students. Teacher D describes that it is motivating for students to see that also the teachers try to use only English in class (D: 478) even though their English might not be perfect either (D: 492). Teachers B, C and D say they occasionally use German when students do not understand instructions or information, for example, about assignments or tests (B: 118; D: 32) or when translating unknown words (C: 158-160).

Summarising the discussion of teaching methodology, I would like to quote Robinson (1991: 22) who emphasises that “acquisition develops through exposure to language in context”. She continues stating that “[w]hat can actually be done to help students both acquire and learn to use English appropriately in context is a matter of methodology” (*ibid.*: 23). This quotation stresses the role methodology plays in learning. Like Basturkmen, Robinson (*ibid.*: 25f) mentions, for example, the role of genre analysis as well as awareness of discourse and discourse community including “development and use of distinctive text types involving specialised terminology” (*ibid.*: 26). All these factors influence which methodology, topics and materials to choose for ESP courses.

Three points related to methodology require further elaboration. Possibilities of subject-language integration in this context are illustrated. Group work, as a popular means of teaching, is given closer attention. A list of ideas for activities is provided to demonstrate the diverse possibilities the teacher can choose from.

7.4.1 Subject-language integration

Different thoughts of teachers expressed during the interviews can be related to subject-language integration. In relation to ESP it means that “there is normally only one teacher present in the classroom, who is then involved with both language and content” (Robinson 1991: 89). Related to this interviewee A uses CLIL explicitly for certain topics such as intercultural communication (A: 18). At the moment no subject courses are taught in English at the selected universities. Interviewee A and others, however, mention the benefit students would have if CLIL were used on a regular basis for selected subject courses.

What teachers would consider beneficial is using English texts in other (subject) courses throughout OT training. Teacher B and D, for example, also teach courses for OT students relating to research methodology and in these classes work to a large extent with English texts (B: 124; D: 6 & 14). This means that students are more exposed to English throughout their studies than exclusively in the English course. Because teacher B has such a strong research background about OT in English, she often uses English terminology in other classes (B: 292). This gives students the opportunity to relate terms and definitions in German and English. Using English

texts in research methodology classes for teacher B reduces the pressure during the English course because she knows that students will continue working with English-speaking literature also in other contexts (B: 554). Students could benefit even more if English texts were used in other subject courses as well. Teacher A has already succeeded in convincing colleagues at her university to use English texts increasingly in their classes (A: 16).

Conversely it is also possible in the English class to support subject courses. Teacher A, for example, tries to include topics for students' presentations taken from subject courses they attend at the same time to have some subject-language integration. For example, presentations in semester four are held about OT texts on orthopaedics (A: 26). She is also planning to offer an elective subject in the future together with a colleague using CLIL as teaching method (A: 577).

7.4.2 Group work

The group aspect can be an important issue to consider in relation to the methodology of the English course. As already mentioned, in universities A and C the whole course is taught in two groups (with approximately 15 students), whereas in university D only parts of the course are taught in groups. In these universities the class is considerably smaller than regular ESL courses which consist of larger learner groups. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 90) describe different types of class organisation. They refer to an older categorisation by Mitchell et al according to which an activity is either carried out with the whole class, or different types of group work. Pupil demonstration means that one student demonstrates one activity for the whole class. During group work students can either work on the same or differing tasks, both in an individual or a group setting. Even more, students may be permitted to working on their own while others solve the same or a different task in small groups. These different options might be applied for accommodating students' different level of English which is a challenge that was addressed by all four teachers in the interviews.

In ESP sessions classes are often subdivided further into smaller groups or pairs for different tasks. Different types of group work can be used consciously for several purposes. One is that the learners profit from each others' knowledge. The ESP

teacher can also use different feedback procedures, for example, using a self-checklist or consulting with other students in pairs for self-checking (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 199f). All teachers mention working in small groups for several activities to increase students' speaking time in class (A: 212; B: 308; C: 141-142; D: 46). They do so every session (A: 227-228; C: 144). It is useful after having worked in small groups to get back together with the whole class and summarise or focus on content and language items that occurred etc. (B: 262; D: 156). Teachers C and D sometimes use group work for self-study (C: 144; D: 150). Teacher B uses a project conducted in small groups as a basis for assessment (B: 58).

When using group work, the teacher has to consider how to organise these groups. One option is to let students choose who they want to work with (A: 238; B: 298; C: 174; D: 56-58). Sometimes, however, it might be useful to assign group members consciously to make sure that students work with different people and listen to various formulations and pronunciation (A: 238; B: 298). For reasons of group dynamics the teacher might also sometimes allocate team members to sustain balance (A: 242). For some tasks it might be helpful, for example, to team up students with different proficiency levels to work together. This, however, has to be communicated clearly to the students (A: 240; B: 44).

7.4.3 Ideas for activities

As mentioned before, language acquisition and learning is something active. In the interviews, information on types of games and activities used by teachers which are popular with students were obtained. These are examples that teachers gave:

- Vocabulary / word games (D: 180)
- Games using different cards (A: 352)
- Advice game (A: 358)
- Phrasal verb game (A: 362)
- Self-made card game about the human body (A: 212)
- Human body games (accessed through BBC website) (A: 278)
- OT game about ADLs¹⁰, IADLs¹¹, sensory motion, etc. (A: 360-362)

¹⁰ Activities of daily living such as eating, bathing, dressing, using the toilet, mobility, etc.

¹¹ Instrumental activities of daily living such as cooking, cleaning, shopping, money management, using public transportation, etc.

- Guessing game (modelled on “Tabu”) with English vocabulary related to the field in which one student describes a word and others guess what it is (C: 272)
- Memory with pictures and English terms, or English-German word pairs (C: 272)
- Crossword puzzles (C: 272)
- Different activities in pairs (A: 555)
- Question rounds using a ball (A: 220)
- Double circle activities: student one has one part of information, student two the other part. Together they try to complete the missing information (A: 553)
- Expert groups: students work in four groups on different aspects of a topic, then new groups are formed including one member of team A, B, C and D each, they share their information (A: 553)
- Watching videos in which universities describe OT studies or OTs describe their work. First students listen and watch. Then the volume is put on mute and students speak along (A: 310)
- Word chain game, for example, with vocabulary about the human body (D: 180)
- Students use picture cards to instruct each other doing selected exercises (A: 298)
- Giving instructions to each other for certain exercises such as movements (C: 150), one group compiles a sequence of instructions for the other group and instructs them to carry them out (C: 278)
- Working with questionnaires (B: 330)
- Using different written exercises, e.g. filling something out, matching activities, etc. to work with new or already acquired content (C: 136)
- Reading or working with a text to then discuss it (B: 308)
- Students read a set text and bring three questions to class (e.g. in relation to OT or a diagnosis or scientific procedures) (D: 204)
- Using the structure of ICF¹² to complete an initial interview or talk about a topic (B: 100)
- Using OT models to discuss something with a partner or prepare a role play (B: 378)

¹² International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health used by the WHO

- Role plays (A: 352): for example, one student is an occupational therapist, one is the client – act out the dialogue of an assessment or possible therapy situation (C: 150)
- Listening comprehension with a CD, reading along with the text or filling out a gapped text (C: 126)
- When learning about assistive devices: describe them in English, use them in class, discuss what they are useful for, instruct each other how to use them (C: 236)
- Putting signs with different medical fields on different tables, students have cards with assistive devices and put them to the respective medical field (C: 272)
- Dictionary activity using English-English dictionaries to make sure to choose correct translations (A: 330)

All these activities enhance communication and language use. This list of ideas might be useful input for teachers when planning their lessons. Teachers emphasise that most of these games and materials are self-made (A: 360; C: 276). Related to these examples of activities and games teachers mentioned materials that they use for teaching. These are listed below:

- Using power point slides, flip chart and white board (B: 423-424; C: 267; D: 160 & 200)
- Posters (D: 270)
- Using learning cards (D: 270)
- Using audio and video materials (C: 269)

It is helpful if suitable teaching materials and rooms are available at the university to support the learning process (A: 559). Materials used for teaching are considered more closely in the following section.

7.5 Materials

Concerning methodology and materials “ESP practitioners can certainly learn a great deal from general ELT materials and methodological suggestions” (Robinson 1991: 47). They need, however, to adapt these to their certain teaching situation. We can see the influence of chosen teaching methodology on choice of materials as well as tasks and activities used in class. This is also supported by the following quotation in

which Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 167) emphasise that “[w]hat you select for your course will depend on the precise aims, language levels and your overall approach”. Similarly, Basturkmen (2006: 3) argues that “[t]eachers have at their disposal a range of options in designing ESP courses and materials”. As mentioned before, “[g]enre-based approaches focus learners’ attention on text types, or genres, that occur in target discourse communities[, i.e.] the work- or study-related groups the learners aim to enter or make progress in as a result of gains in their English language proficiency” (*ibid.*). Genres relevant in OT which are also identified by the teachers are patient case reports, research articles, academic texts, therapy assessment and documentation, conversations with clients or other team members, etc. These genres can therefore also be used in class. This is referred to by Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 152) as specific material since

the material uses carrier content that is drawn directly from the learners’ academic or professional area, such as topics that EAP students are following in their subject course, or case studies related to the professional work of EOP [...] learners.

Teachers make use of this type of specific materials extensively which stand in contrast to so-called common-core material.

Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 171) describe different reasons for using materials in an ESP course. One is that material is used as a language source. Secondly, materials can serve as support for learning for the students. A third option is that materials can motivate and stimulate the learners and the learning process, and lastly they can be reference material for the students. The interviewees mention these different purposes of materials. Another possibility is to provide additional material to be used for additional practice for especially interested students (*ibid.*: 171). This can be relevant for students with a higher proficiency level.

Materials that are well chosen will support learning. Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*) emphasise the role of materials because in order “to enhance learning, materials must involve learners in thinking about and using the language”. They continue saying that “[t]o stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging yet achievable; to offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners’ experience and knowledge; to encourage fun and creativity” (*ibid.*: 172). The link of materials to background and subject knowledge is clearly made here. Having fun and

being creative encourages active learning and language acquisition. It is also important that teachers make the “purpose and the connection [of materials] to the learners’ reality” clear (*ibid.*).

Concerning the level of difficulty of materials the teacher has to keep in mind “that materials are geared to the average, not just the brightest, students” (Robinson 1991: 61). All teachers mention the influence of different English levels of students on course design and chosen materials.

7.5.1 Published or in-house materials?

A prominent issue in ESP literature is the question whether to use published or in-house materials. It is not unusual that “teachers / course developers all [produce] their own teaching materials and [use] authentic written and spoken texts from the target communities widely in this” (Basturkmen 2010: 142). This practice observed by Basturkmen also is confirmed by the four interviewees in this study. Teacher A says it would of course be easier if there were a suitable course or reference book available for a, in her case, five-semester course (A: 470; 594-595). Instead, teachers compile their own materials. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 173) argue that ESP teachers not necessarily have to write their own materials but they need to be “good providers of materials”. This includes to “select appropriately from what is available; be creative with what is available; modify activities to suit learners’ needs; and supplement by providing extra activities (and extra input)” (*ibid.*). One important step is therefore to select from materials that are available and adapt these. There are specific tools for assessing course books which can prove helpful. Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*) recommend using three straight-forward questions when material needs to be selected:

- a) Will the materials stimulate and motivate?
- b) To what extent does the material match the stated learning objectives and your learning objectives? (It is rare for a single set of published material to match the exact learning needs of any one ESP learner group; and activities do not always meet the stated objectives.)
- c) To what extent will the materials support learning?

The quotations emphasise the importance of trying to be “creative with what is available” (*ibid.*: 174). Because there will not always be time to produce new material, another option is to modify activities which might be necessary “when the input and

carrier content are adequate but some or all of the exploitation is unsuitable" (*ibid.*: 175). Teacher A says that many topics in published course books are too detailed for the time available and the level of learners (A: 268). Additional materials which are not central to a certain task can, however, be used for "weaker learners to practice later (repetition) or faster learners to work on in spare class time (additional objectives)" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 175). This is one option for the teacher to tackle different levels of proficiency. When providing materials it is important to keep in mind that "[i]n ESP, the learners are not primarily language learners; they are [...] learners of other disciplines and this has to be a major consideration in the devising and delivering of a course" (*ibid.*: 177).

Concerning the advantage of in-house materials, Robinson (1991: 58) points out that they

are likely to be more specific and appropriate than published materials and have greater face validity in terms of language dealt with and the context it is presented in. In addition, in-house materials may be more flexible than published textbooks [...]. [W]riters of in-house materials can make sure that the methodology is suitable for the intended learners.

Robinson (*ibid.*) also says that very often in-house materials are compiled from other textbooks and contain photocopies. This can be seen as a disadvantage because single handouts have less structure than a textbook. Since, however, suitable course books are not available, materials have to be provided differently. All teachers say that a majority of materials they use have been collected or produced themselves (C: 232). Teacher C considers this as a result of lacking source materials. She describes that it is really difficult to find something suitable. Searching in available books, one might find useful extracts that the teacher then tries to compile to provide a set of useful materials for a language course (C: 236 & 446). She says there are no books ready to use. The lecture notes she has comprised with a colleague are self-made (C: 408). When using parts of published materials, it is important to adapt them for the purpose of the course. Selected texts can be useful to introduce vocabulary in an interesting way, for example, a text that includes certain words or lists of vocabulary (C: 238). Teacher A adds that because there are no medical English or EAP books readily available for the context, it is sometimes necessary to complement with chapters and activities taken from general ELT books, for example, on the topic of communication (A: 266).

Even in an ESP course for doctors where published course materials are available, the teacher might still decide to develop in-house materials in order to meet learners' needs. This problem is described by Basturkmen (2010: 95). What she identifies as a difficult factor is that "published course books generally target [...] a wider audience than [specific] ESP course[s, they] often target [...] medical students as well as qualified doctors and intermediate level learners of English" (*ibid.*: 84f). So even an ESP teacher providing courses for doctors or nurses might still have to design in-house course materials. This practice is similar to the one of the teachers interviewed.

Djurić (1998: 220) points out that before producing in-house materials it is important to look for "the negative effects of 'wrong' textbooks" in ESP literature. As mentioned before if an ESP teacher wants to set up a course and does not find published materials that are suitable, one should ask and write to teachers in a similar situation. They could give you information on which textbooks they use, which materials they maybe have already written or texts they have used for teaching (*ibid.*: 221). A general problem Djurić (*ibid.*: 221f) addresses is the lack of exchange and collaboration with other ESP teachers because "teachers for specific purposes also need *more special training, more information, and more opportunity to pose and share their specific problems*". Such an exchange of information or cooperation is not described by the teachers interviewed.

7.5.2 Authentic materials

Robinson (1991: 54), among others, stresses the role of authentic material used in the ESP classroom. For the purpose of this study, authentic material is defined as "material normally used in the students' own specialist workplace or study situation". This can include many different types of texts. Robinson (*ibid.*: 56) describes the importance of embedding the selected texts by saying that "[a]uthentic materials, however selected, will not work well in the classroom unless the methodology is carefully considered". The interplay of text and methodology here is seen as crucial. Basturkmen (2010: 63) adds that "[a]uthentic texts play an important role in demonstrating 'real' language use". She also emphasises the difficulty to choose appropriate authentic texts because, although teachers might want

to use authentic texts, if the information in them is beyond the understanding of our students, this will inevitably make for frustration and hinder the effectiveness of the instruction. Such cases may lead teachers and course developers to edit or adapt authentic texts or [...] create ones of their own. (*ibid.*: 64)

All teachers include authentic texts in their courses. Teachers describe searching for useful authentic materials as time-consuming. Already Robinson (1991: 82) describes the “[l]ack of sufficient preparation time [which] is a commonly mentioned problem among ESP teachers”. Nevertheless, it is important to search for suitable texts that are comprehensible for students. Teacher D likes using scientific articles and abstracts (D: 478 & 481). Even though the aim is not that students understand everything in the text, the teacher needs to be prepared for all sorts of content and vocabulary questions and therefore needs to prepare the article thoroughly (D: 480). In addition to scientific texts, teacher C also mentions other types of authentic texts she uses for the course, namely, articles for a general audience (in contrast to specialised medical texts) and case studies (C: 242). Teacher A additionally mentions authentic texts written for clients. She works, for example, with a book published for patients suffering from multiple sclerosis. The book consists of an introductory part which provides useful vocabulary and sections with pictures and instructions for exercises (A: 298).

Authentic materials can also be provided by the learners. If the ESP teachers do not have a background in the learners’ speciality, they can involve the learners in material selection and setting up of activities (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 185). Although it has to be kept in mind that they “are still students or apprentices to the special field [so they] bring less than those who are already experienced and practicing specialists” (*ibid.*: 188). Therefore, it is also important to consider in which semester of their (OT) studies the students are. Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*: 99) believe that it can be motivating if learners “bring texts that they need to understand or texts they think would be interesting or valuable”. This is considered by interviewees A and C when students choose texts, for example, to be used for presentations etc. Another possibility for subject-specific use of materials is project work. “[I]n project work it is the students who find and assimilate information. [...] Project work can be very rewarding but [...] [s]tudents have to search out information

for themselves, so there is a good deal of out-of-class activity” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 195). This could be catered for during self-study times.

It is of great value to use authentic texts in different language varieties, as is emphasised by all teachers interviewed. Articles from OT journals, for example, can be chosen from American, British, Australian, Scandinavian, Canadian and international journals (B: 382). In general it is important to use different types of materials and activities as well as various types of interaction in order to support different types of communication and language processing in class (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 177). “[T]he use of a wide range of types increases motivation, for both the learners and the teacher” (*ibid.*: 178).

7.5.3 Possible course materials

As has been mentioned before the needs of ESP classes “can usually be addressed only partially by commercially available materials that were developed with a general audience in mind” (Basturkmen 2006: 114). ESP teachers therefore commonly use materials they have compiled and constructed for their individual course and target audience. Teacher C, for example, uses a set of **lecture notes** for students (C: 212) which consists of selected materials compiled from different books and other passages written by the teacher team (C: 218). The lecture notes contain different activities and work materials (C: 222-224) as well as a list of source materials (C: 218). Different units deal with certain topics such as the human body, multidisciplinary team, communication, assistive devices, etc. (C: 236). Teacher C finds the division into units helpful, however, materials do not necessarily have to be strictly organised into units (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 171). What is important is that they are “reliable [...] [and] consistent and [...] have some recognisable pattern” (*ibid.*). Teacher A uses lecture notes for English course one (A: 266). Different kinds of **handouts** (A: 262; C: 202 & 212) or copies of texts (B: 365) are provided in many courses. Teacher C additionally uses exercise sheets (C: 202).

Teachers choose different text types as teaching materials. One option are **books**. Many books on medical English are published for nurses and doctors, but they sometimes contain useful exercises for different topics also relevant for OTs (C: 228). Commonly, teachers do not use a whole book but chosen extracts (B: 390). When

doing so, Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 99f) suggest providing some accompanying information so students “know that it is an extract and [...] have one or two sentences (which probably have to be specifically written [by the teacher]) for orientation”. Teachers A, C and D say they use extracts from standard textbooks on foundations of OT from English-speaking countries (A: 150; 278; C: 232; D: 203).

The list below provides titles of several books that teachers consider useful in their courses¹³:

- Willard and Spackman’s *Occupational Therapy* (D: 200)
- *Occupational Therapy: Performance, Participation, and Well-Being* by Christiansen & Baum (D: 200)
- *Evidence-Based Practice for Occupational Therapists* (D: 211)
- *Clinical Decision Making: Case Studies for the Occupational Therapy Assistant* (C: 254)
- *Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe*¹⁴ (A: 148; C: 228; D: 196), especially useful for chapters on scientific reading, higher education vocabulary (A: 266), and occupational therapy process – collection of useful phrases (A: 266; D: 196)
- *English in Medicine* by Glendinning and Holmström (A: 270 & 577)
- *English for Nursing* (A: 577)
- *Hadfield communication games* (A: 360)

In many universities, the recommended books are available for students in the library and can be accessed for self-study.

Another written text type used by all teachers are **scientific articles** which are taken from different OT journals (A: 150 & 266; B: 60 & 382; C: 186 & 247; D: 204) as well as **abstracts** (B: 58; D: 204). When choosing scientific articles to work with teachers B and D state that qualitative studies are often easier to understand than quantitative ones (B: 60; D: 220 & 224). Like other source texts, articles provide a wealth of useful vocabulary (D: 220). Teacher B additionally mentions other texts, for example, position papers by the WFOT (B: 120), and different OT models originating in

¹³ See “course materials / course books” and “recommended reading” in the curriculum evaluation grid in the appendix for more details. An additional list of selected course books published on medical English is provided in the appendix.

¹⁴ This book is written for a German-speaking audience

different English-speaking countries (B: 356). Teacher A mentions texts on relevant topics taken from, for example, the *Guardian Special* (A: 144). Teacher C additionally uses **newspaper articles** (C: 232) and selected texts from Spotlight magazine which is a **magazine** published for German-speaking learners of English (C: 228).

Another text type typical for the target community are field-specific **case reports** or **patient case studies** because they are subject-specific, i.e. to the learners' subject of studies. In their article "Using Case Reports in Teaching Medical English" García Martínez and Cilveti (1998: 264) focus on this text type since they "consider it to be a simple and clearly structured genre within medical discourse". Case reports are concise and describe a patient, relevant details, his / her history as well as treatment and results. A case report has a clear structure with defined parts and is written in the register typical for the field. Another advantage is that case reports use a relatively simple and clear syntax (*ibid.*). The teachers interviewed consider case reports useful teaching material (A: 314; B: 397-398 & 402; C: 242; D: 238) because they are a very typical feature in medicine and can be found, for example, in books published about OT in different medical fields or can be written by the teachers themselves.

The purpose of case studies "is to present students with some aspect of a real-life scenario, through which they can apply and integrate knowledge, skills, theory and any experience" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 192). Case studies are very often worked with in groups and therefore encourage teamwork (*ibid.*). For teaching purposes, case reports can be used, on the one hand, for problem-based learning, on the other hand, they can serve as model texts demonstrating field-specific language in use (García Martínez & Cilveti 1998: 265). Problem-solving skills are needed since case studies usually include "studying the facts of a real-life case, discussing the issues involved and reaching some kind of decision and / or action plan" (Robinson 1991: 50). Robinson (*ibid.*) also emphasises that when using case reports "[a]ll the language skills are potentially involved: reading input documents, listening and speaking (discussing) and possibly writing some sort of summary or report". Teacher C also believes that case reports taken from English books on OT provide a model of language for the students. They include a wealth of vocabulary and phrases typical for the field and provide descriptions of symptoms, procedures,

etc. Texts can serve as models for when students later produce their own texts (C: 250).

Robinson (1991: 50) emphasises that for “students who are not yet fully qualified in their profession, the use of case studies helps to induct them into some aspects of the professional culture”. Using case studies in English courses for OT students can therefore support the development of language skills as well as clinical reasoning skills. If the development of field-specific clinical reasoning skills is part of the English course it can be an issue for ESP teachers who are not OTs because they have a different “degree of subject expertise” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 194).

Using **audio and video material** can enhance learning. Teacher C uses exercises from a book with an accompanying CD for practising listening comprehension (C: 212). Similar to reading materials it is good if audio and video material used include different spoken varieties of English (C: 442). Teachers use video material in class (C: 152; D: 230) which can be motivating for students. “[U]p-to-date information and authentic audio-visual materials, such as sit-coms from TV, songs or clips from YouTube, or DVDs, create an authentic English learning environment so that students will be immersed in the use of English” (Hwang 2011: 142). Teacher A uses short videos when working on movements and instructions (A: 244). Teacher B uses video not only in class but sometimes provides links for students to watch at home (B: 393). In addition teachers also emphasise the advantage of finding and accessing materials **online** (A: 138; B: 370). Examples are websites of OT associations (A: 278), WHO¹⁵ (B: 370), BBC (A: 278), youtube (D: 230), etc. In general, it is rewarding to use texts with various levels of difficulty (A: 301; B: 384; C: 242) because it is helpful for students to start with easier texts and then increase their level of difficulty (A: 301).

Teacher D emphasises that it is very difficult to recommend useful **dictionaries** because very specific vocabulary often cannot be found in regular dictionaries (D: 390). There have been attempts to publish therapeutic dictionaries, but teachers are not yet satisfied with them. Teacher B compensates this lack of useful dictionaries by working with terminology published in English by health organisations, OT

¹⁵ World Health Organization

associations, etc. She also mentions glossaries which are often provided as an appendix to different OT models (B: 416).

The following list compiles different dictionaries (general and specific) that teachers mentioned:

- *Fachwörterbuch Ergotherapie Deutsch-Englisch, Englisch-Deutsch* published by Deutscher Verband der Ergotherapeuten (DVE) (A: 339, B: 414; D: 214)
- *Fachwortschatz Medizin Englisch* by Friedbichler (A: 338)
- ENOTHE terminology (B: 120)
- WFOT terminology in four languages including English and German (C: 262)
- Terminology used in WFOT position papers (B: 120)
- AOTA¹⁶ framework (B: 356)
- Terminology of ICF (B: 100; 356) and ICD-10¹⁷ (B: 370)
- *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (A: 331)
- *Langenscheidt Wörterbuch Deutsch-Englisch, Englisch-Deutsch* (A: 340)
- *Leo* online dictionary (A: 332)
- *Beolingus* online dictionary (A: 336-337)
- *Hexal* (A: 338)

These dictionaries can be recommended to students in the course.

7.5.4 Use as reference materials

Materials are not only used in class but can also serve as reference material. The reason for this can be that in ESP classes there is “little time for class contact and [therefore one has to] rely on a mix of classes, self-study and reference material. For self-study or reference purposes, materials need to be complete, well laid out and self-explanatory” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 172). Teacher B emphasises the provision of materials as reference (B: 356) because not all of them are covered in depth in class, but accessing them at a later stage might be useful for students. Some additional texts and sources are available in the library (B: 360).

¹⁶ American Occupational Therapy Association

¹⁷ International classification of diseases used by the WHO

7.6 Teachers

The teachers of ESP courses have similar responsibilities as ESL teachers. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 13) refer to the ESP teacher as an ESP practitioner “to emphasise that ESP work involves much more than teaching”. As the five most important roles they consider the ESP practitioner to be teacher, course designer and materials provider, collaborator, researcher and evaluator (*ibid.*). Concerning the first role of **teacher**, it is possible in ESP that “the students may in many cases [...] know more about the content than the teacher” (*ibid.*) which is the case when a teacher who is not an occupational therapist teaches the course. As is clearly addressed by Robinson (1991: 84), there are different views on “how far the ESP teacher should be expert in the students’ specialism”. This topic was addressed especially by interviewee A who is not an occupational therapist (A: 206).

In all the courses considered for this study, students are acquiring knowledge in their speciality at the same time as conducting their English course. This also influences very much what the students might expect of their ESP teacher (Robinson 1991: 84). It seems to be helpful when teachers are OTs, or if not, when the ESP teacher is interested in OT and has acquired some knowledge about the field. Both then are able to design a course for this target audience. If the teacher is not an OT, the situation “provides the ESP teacher with the opportunity to draw on students’ knowledge of the content in order to generate genuine communication in the classroom” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 13). Teacher A shares this experience. She also likes to learn from her students and ask them about OT-specific topics (A: 391-392). She thinks being an outsider to the students’ speciality is helpful to have an open mind when teaching the course (A: 510). ESP literature states that ESP teachers need “to take an interest in the disciplines or professional activities the students are involved in” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 14). This ability is considered important by teacher A (A: 366) who is very interested in medicine and OT specifically. Reading about principles of OT in introductory books has been very valuable for her to prepare for the course (A: 380).

This overlaps largely with an example that Basturkmen (2010: 8) gives to demonstrate the difficulty ESP teachers face if they are not members of the students’ discipline:

in teaching English to a group of nurses, course content might involve items such as medical terminology, patterns of nurse-patient interaction, written genres such as patient records, items that are not in the communicative realm of those outside nursing fields.

On the other hand, when analysing a certain ESP course for medical doctors, Basturkmen (*ibid.*: 105) sees an advantage in not being an insider because teachers then are “in a far better position to notice features of language use as being distinctive to medical circles and [to be] better able to analyse the sources of any difficulties in the language use of the [learners]”. This is an advantage if the English teacher for OT students is an English teacher and not an occupational therapist. Teacher A holds an English teaching degree (A: 368) and thinks this is important for the job (A: 370).

Concerning the qualifications of the ESP teacher, an essential point of Hwang’s (2011: 143) analysis is that

[a]n experienced EFL teacher can exploit his/her professional experience and background in ESP teaching. If he or she has some knowledge of the special subject matter, he/she can choose appropriate learning materials that meet the needs of medical students.

Similar to other authors, Hwang states that “ESP teachers need to possess a great deal of flexibility and be interested in the disciplines or professional activities in which the students are involved” (*ibid.*). Robinson (1991: 96) emphasises that teaching in an ESP context requires flexibility in many areas.

Concerning the difference between EGP and ESP teachers, Robinson (1991: 94) describes that the “ESP teacher needs to develop the same knowledge and awareness of educational and pedagogical issues as any other teacher”. Using her recommendation, an occupational therapist who is teaching the course has to be interested in theory and practices of teaching. Supporting this, results from the interviews show that it is of advantage to be knowledgeable about teaching and didactics. Teachers B, C and D do not hold a teaching degree in English. Teacher B, however, has been teaching for many years and has completed a one-year training on principles of teaching in institutions of higher education at her university (B: 440). Additionally, she has completed workshops for teaching assistants when working at an English-speaking university abroad (B: 442). Teacher D has been working as a teacher at her university for several years. She has completed different seminars and

workshops on didactics and is a licensed problem-based-learning (PBL) tutor. The colleague she teaches the course with has also completed a one-year programme on teaching similar to teacher B (D: 286). Teacher C uses knowledge about teaching based on principles of learning which she applies in OT as well as from her own experience as student (C: 284). Gaining more experience over her years of teaching as well as collaboration with a colleague have supported her teaching development (C: 286). She would consider increased knowledge about teaching as an improvement (C: 308). She is the only one of the teachers interviewed who is hired as an external lecturer for teaching the English course (C: 405-406). All the other teachers are regular staff at and employed by their universities, i.e. they also teach other courses besides English. Ideally, an English teacher for OT students would have a background in OT as well as English language teaching, but this is very rare (A: 370).

Concerning the teacher's English proficiency level, various experiences can be contributing such as being a native speaker of English, having completed language programmes abroad, having a large knowledge about field-specific vocabulary, regularly reading in English about OT, science, evidence-based practice etc., regularly publishing papers in English, regular attendance and presentations at international conferences, having completed a placement abroad, having studied OT in English, having worked or taught abroad, and holding a degree in English. Teachers also describe that it is helpful to teach the course for several years because it continuously develops.

Concerning the second role of the ESP practitioner, that of **course designer and materials provider**, ESP literature states what the interviewees also identify, namely that "ESP practitioners often have to plan the course they teach and provide the materials for it" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 14). The authors also mention the problem that was addressed by all interviewees, namely that "[i]t is rarely possible to use a particular textbook without the need of supplementary material, and sometimes no really suitable published materials exists for certain of the identified needs" (*ibid.*). Not only is there a lack in materials, but also in information about syllabi. Therefore, "the teacher / course designer should be able to select, in a principled way, the language items, or discourse features, or elements of the disciplinary culture which

need to be taught” (Robinson 1991: 81). By all the interviewees this process is described as time-consuming and lengthy. In addition it is stated that “ESP teachers also need to assess the effectiveness of the teaching material used on the course, whether that material is published or self-produced” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 15). It is therefore helpful when teachers have experience providing materials and implementing courses.

The third role identified by Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*) of the ESP practitioner as **researcher** says that “ESP teachers generally need to be able to carry out research to understand the discourse of the texts that students use”. Teachers who do not have a background in linguistics or discourse analysis might find this challenging. The fourth role of the ESP practitioner as **collaborator** involves cooperating and collaborating with subject teachers, for example, by integrating “between specialist studies or activities and the language” (*ibid.*: 16) (see also subsection *cooperation with others*). It might, however, also be an advantage for the teacher to have a research background within OT.

Finally, the authors describe the role of **evaluator**, stressing the evaluation of students, courses in general and teaching materials (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 16). Achievement tests are applied by some of the interviewees in their courses. All interviewees describe carrying out “discussion and on-going needs analysis [to] adapt the syllabus” (*ibid.*: 17). Concerning assessment, Robinson (1991: 81f) says that “[d]uring the course, and certainly at the end, the ESP teacher is likely to be involved in evaluating and testing, quite often devising the tests as well as administering them. Finally, the teacher may write reports on the students and on the course as a whole”. Assessment, related thoughts and problems were also described by the interviewees (see section *assessment* in the *discussion*).

Coming back to the different roles of the ESP practitioner he or she “may constantly move between [being a] ‘provider of knowledge’ and [being a] ‘facilitator’ or ‘consultant’” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 150). Concerning a teacher profile recommended, already Robinson (1991: 79) noted that “there is no single, ideal role description” for the ESP teacher. “[V]iewpoints about the qualifications and capabilities needed by the ESP teacher and of the tasks which the teacher is

expected to perform” (*ibid.*) are diverse. The most controversial issue is to which degree “the teacher should be knowledgeable about the students’ specialism” (*ibid.*). A question which also arose from the interviews carried out. Especially “[f]or non-native speaking teachers of English, then, added to any doubts that they may have about their competence in the language, there is likely to be fear that they may not cope with their students’ areas of specialism” (*ibid.*). Robinson (*ibid.*: 80) says that “[f]irst and foremost, of course, the ESP teacher is a *teacher* and many writers agree that the qualities of good teaching generally, and of language teaching specifically, are also required for ESP”. Contradicting Robinson’s statement, however, three of the teachers interviewed do not hold a teaching degree in English. Their qualification to teach the English course for OT students is because they are OTs themselves and have either completed their master’s studies in English or are native speakers of English. The practice for hiring ESP teachers for OT students differs across universities.

It is interesting to keep in mind that some teachers also hold other positions at their universities which can be related to English in a way, such as being responsible for ENOTHE, international coordinator (responsible for international development, organisation of placements abroad, etc.), supervision of bachelor papers, etc. Teachers A, B and D also teach other courses for OT students besides English.

7.6.1 Cooperation with others

Robinson (1991: 84) poses some interesting questions which might help the ESP teacher in fulfilling their role:

Is the teacher working alone or is there an ESP team, able to share in the needs analysis, the syllabus design and the materials preparation? Are there helpful specialist informants around for the ESP teacher to consult? Has the teacher enough time to learn something of the students’ specialism?

Possible cooperation of the ESP teachers for different phases and parts of the course are highlighted here. Also Djurić (1998: 221) emphasises the importance of cooperation. She recommends that if an ESP teacher wants to set up a course and does not find published materials that are suitable, one should ask and write to teachers in a similar situation. They might provide information on texts and textbooks they use and on materials they might have written themselves already (*ibid.*). She addresses this lack of exchange and collaboration with other ESP teachers as

general problem because “teachers for specific purposes also need *more special training, more information, and more opportunity to pose and share their specific problems*” (*ibid.*: 221f). Exchanging ideas and experiences among other teachers and subject specialists could be very valuable for ESP practitioners in this field.

Robinson (1991: 88) stresses that “ESP teacher[s] must [...] collaborate in some way with content specialists”. One option is team teaching which “involves two teachers (the ESP teacher and the specialist lecturer)” (*ibid.*: 88) who are in the class together. The advantage of team teaching is that “the language teacher could help with linguistic and thematic structuring” (*ibid.*: 89), whereas the subject teacher can address issues of content (*ibid.*). Team teaching following this definition, however, is not applied in the selected universities. In university D peer-teaching was used once. In the first year with the new curriculum the English teachers (both are OTs) had the chance to teach all English sessions together. Teacher D considers this especially helpful when setting up a course because teachers can give each other feedback etc. (D: 536).

Apart from team teaching, teacher A finds it helpful to be in contact to the language centre¹⁸ at the university where she studied. They provide materials and offer occasional workshops (A: 539). All teachers value cooperation with subject teachers at their universities which is especially important for teacher A, who is not an occupational therapist (A: 380). Teachers C and D especially value direct cooperation with the colleagues who teach the English course with them (C: 288; D: 435-436 & 548). Teacher C also reports that there are annual meetings with the coordinating staff for English from the university which serves as reflection and evaluation and forms an important basis for changes in the course for the following year (C: 378). Teacher A would value cooperation in a network of English teachers from different OT universities (A: 607-609). Also teacher C is surprised that there is no cooperation between different universities. She thinks that maybe some sort of standard textbook for OT students could develop from such cooperation (C: 410).

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7.7 Students

After having identified different factors important for English teachers for OT students, the focus in this subsection is now on the learners. Robinson (1991: 95) emphasises the close relationship between methodology, students and learners' success. She stresses differences between EGP and ESP courses. Students are familiar with EGP classes taken in school. They are, however, usually older when attending ESP lessons and the teaching methods used in class might be different to what students were used to because they are strongly influenced by the students' specialism. Students might need to get used to errors not being corrected as strictly as in EGP classes (*ibid.*). For ESP courses it is important to keep in mind that "errors which do not impede successful communication must be tolerated" (*ibid.*: 48). All interviewees claim that they are more tolerant when correcting errors in order not to discourage students. They all stressed that for them it is of great importance that students are able to communicate confidently and effectively (also see section *assessment* in the *discussion*).

According to Dudley-Evans and St John's (2001: 152) categorisation the learners in the OT English courses are **homogeneous** groups because they are "from one discipline or profession". Teaching such a group can

undertake more specific work. The main question here is that of the motivation of learners [...]. Most will be enthusiastic about ESP work that relates directly to their needs, helps them with writing assignments or reports that they are actually having to write at the time of the ESP course, or helps them understand the lectures or meetings they are attending. (*ibid.*: 152f)

Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*: 153) generally recommend working with homogeneous groups because "the ESP teacher has much more flexibility and choice about whether to use more specific materials, or to incorporate some specific materials into an essentially common-core course". Using field-specific materials is done by all teachers (see section *materials* in the *discussion*). A problem already identified by Robinson (1991: 82) is that "classes may be of mixed ability. A particular problem for ESP course organisers may be deciding whether to group students by specialism, in which case classes may be exceedingly mixed in terms of linguistic level, or whether, at least at first, to group by language level". In all four universities analysed, the classes and groups consist of only one speciality, namely OT. As stated above, this enables teachers to cover topics relevant for this certain type of

AHPs. Concerning the second point made by Robinson, i.e. assigning students to groups based on language competence, this procedure for allocating groups is not taking place in any of the four universities.

Commenting on the different English **proficiency level** of students Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 153) say that “it may be very difficult to ensure that groups are also homogeneous in their language level. It is generally advantageous in language learning to divide groups by level – but in ESP homogeneity in the learners’ specific purposes is more important”. So even though the groups are homogeneous according to their AHP speciality in the selected universities, they are inhomogeneous concerning age, experience, level of English as well as personal motivation and goals for the course. These are challenges described by all interviewees. The difference in level of English also influences the needs and learning objectives of students and the course: “Even when students have identical job or study needs, however, they are still likely to be different in terms of the rate at which they learn English” (Robinson 1991: 4). Students’ motivation and goals might be very different. Some need English just to read scientific articles during training, while others want to go into research or work abroad. According to Kiely (2009: 113) these individual differences can be considered as an “influence of biography – what teachers and students bring to programmes – and how this can be both a stimulus for and brake on change and developments”. For example, teacher D states that the youngest students start their training straight after high school, but there are also older ones, at the moment up to 45 years of age (D: 460). The age of the learner might influence learning strategies. Teacher D also identifies the influence of students’ personality types. Someone who is rather shy in general will have to overcome bigger obstacles to speak in English in class (D: 318).

Different **learning strategies** might also be considered in this light. Learning strategies are most successful if they match the **learner type** of the student.

In language learning significant factors are also the extent to which an individual is visually, aurally or kinaesthetically oriented. Visually oriented learners need to see words to remember them and will read and write a lot; auditory oriented learners can recall pronunciation and meaning from hearing only. Kinaesthetic learners are stimulated by touch and movement and benefit from learning through games and drama. (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 191)

Different types of activities cater for different learner types (see section *materials – ideas for activities* in the *discussion*). Teachers can consider learner types for preparing their lessons in that they try, for example, to address the different senses (A: 217-218). Teacher C specifically mentions supporting visual learning through written materials, working with pictures, writing on the board, etc. (C: 152 & 424). Teacher D considers the use of power point helpful for visual learners (D: 160). Auditory learning is supported by listening to English throughout the course, on the one hand, the teacher's English, on the other hand, native speakers in audio and video materials (C: 152). Teacher B proposes that auditory learners would benefit from listening to lectures by native speakers (B: 270). According to teacher B learners are responsible for their own learning process based on their learner types (B: 274 & 278) as well as personal goals (B: 644). Visual learner types, for example, can look up words and pictures, and process these in their preferred system (B: 270). To sum up, mixing different media and materials can help to enhance learning for different learner types (C: 424).

7.7.1 Students' level of English

As mentioned before according to the teachers their students' proficiency level in English is very diverse (A: 102; B: 4; C: 46; D: 60). This fact strongly influences different aspects of course planning and implementation such as atmosphere, topics, personal goals, assessment, etc. "It is often assumed that ESP students will not be beginners but will have already studied EGP for some years." (Robinson 1991: 3). However, the level achieved through EGP courses is not necessarily the same. Djurić (1998: 226) describes that "many students *do not possess the prerequisite* knowledge of the language when they enter the tertiary level". So even though **CEFR B2** is a prerequisite for studying OT, teachers experience that not all students actually have this level of language proficiency (A: 102; B: 4; C: 10 & 46). On the other hand, individual students might also be better than B2 (A: 102) because they have travelled or lived abroad (B: 14; C: 46). It can therefore be said that in the eyes of the teachers the proficiency level among students is not even.

Teacher A recommends that teachers make themselves aware of this difference in language proficiency and consider it in their planning (A: 104). In the selected English courses teachers are, however, not responsible to provide English basic skills and it

can be helpful to communicate this to the students (A: 108). Since it is often assumed that the students master a certain basic level of English “syllabuses do not cover all the basic features of the language of science nor provide for teaching them in any systematic way” (Djurić 1998: 223). The English level also strongly influences the workload for individual students. For the English course, the workload might be very different for students who are more and less proficient (B: 44; C: 346; D: 82). Teacher C recommends that teachers get an impression of each students’ English level in the beginning (spoken and written) and take notes about the level the student starts from (C: 38 & 50). In comparison to this starting point teachers can observe individual progress of students throughout the course (C: 316) and, if necessary, adjust expectations they have for the course (C: 38). Despite the different levels in English teachers A and C emphasise that in their experience every student makes progress during the English course (A: 112; C: 110 & 416). Teacher C experiences that very often students with a lower level of English are especially hardworking and achieve a lot throughout the course (C: 56). Teacher B emphasises the need to newly observe English levels in every group since no two classes are ever the same (B: 536). Another difficulty is that students with a high level of English sometimes get bored in the lesson because progress is too slow for them (B: 58).

In contrast to general English courses where group allocation is based on language proficiency, ESP courses very often do not distinguish between proficiency level. There is a wide range of materials available for EGP courses for different proficiency levels (C: 412). In comparison to the situation in EGP, ESP courses often have inhomogeneous groups of learners regarding their English level. It can therefore be a challenge for the teacher to provide a course suitable for all students.

7.7.1.1 Teachers’ strategies for students’ different English level

One idea is to balance the different levels of English proficiency by building teams for pair work where one partner is better in English than the other. The more proficient students can support their partners in their learning process and together they can complete the set task (B: 44). Another supporting factor can be holding the English course in the computer lab where students have immediate access to online dictionaries etc. (B: 58). One of teacher B’s applied strategies is to upload materials two weeks before the respective session on *moodle* so students can take their own time reading and preparing a text (B: 58 & 60). Information on the difficulty and

content of texts, as provided by teacher B, enables students to make choices between different articles based on their proficiency level or field of interest (B: 58). Another option is to use texts about models or classifications that students are familiar with content-wise from other classes (B: 82) so that it is only the language which is new for them.

Teacher C reports that according to students' proficiency level, she tries to give more or less input or asks different types of questions when students speak in class (C: 50). When providing feedback about students' oral or written performance teacher C tries to consider their level of English (C: 51-52). Teacher D tries to support weaker students during class by creating a supportive atmosphere (D: 356). Another suggestion for improvement by teacher C would be to offer an optional preparatory seminar of English for the students who are insecure with their use of English as a basis for the mandatory English course in the curriculum (C: 356).

7.7.1.2 Influence of students' English level on assessment

According to the teachers students' different proficiency level influences assessment because one has to consider the starting point of each student. Teacher B describes the difficulty of how to assess students. She thinks it would be unfair to disregard the differences that students start with (B: 488-490). Teachers A and C try to compare students' level at the start of the course to their achievements at the end of the course, i.e. their individual progress (A: 113-114; C: 336). Individual progress might be very different among students (A: 132). One can always improve regardless of the basis one brings to class in the beginning (A: 132). So even though the course might be comparably easy for some students, they should still be motivated to improve and achieve a good grade (A: 120). (Also see section *assessment* in the *discussion*.)

7.7.2 Motivation

Robinson (1991: 82) describes the following problem: "university students, for example, may not see the value of their ESP course [...] because they know that they can in fact pass their subject examinations without a knowledge of English". This view is shared by teachers A and B who note that students do not consider English a very important course for their studies (A: 549; B: 590) and therefore might not be very motivated. Teacher C believes that somebody enrolling for a language course in their free time might be more motivated than a student who has to complete an

English course as part of their studies in the health care sector (C: 412). The aim therefore is to motivate students as best as possible in the time available (A: 549). Nevertheless, teacher C has the impression that students consider the English course useful (C: 346). Special things like project cooperation mentioned before can increase motivation for students (A: 168).

As has been described before students' motivation for the English course might be different in relation to their personal goals and English level. Basturkmen (2006: 105) supports this by noting that "sociocultural theorists claim that learners shape their own learning, and they do so because they have their own individual goals". If students have additional personal learning goals, they will value the course differently (B: 16 & 170; D: 378). Teacher D finds it helpful to learn about students' personal goals at the beginning of the course so she knows what will motivate students and put the focus accordingly (D: 466). Class atmosphere will be influenced by students' motivation to participate. Teacher B observed that motivated students are more active in class participation (B: 488).

Djurić (1998: 224) describes the correlation of class participation and motivation when reporting results from her own work:

students clearly are motivated to learn a foreign language. Their motivation reportedly grows with imaginative teachers who use a variety of teaching methods in highly active ways, and the students are then more cooperative [...]. Motivation also grows with challenging text content that is not necessarily relevant to the subject matter but is effective in enhancing the involvement of students in communication.

For teaching it can be helpful to keep this correlation of motivation and other factors in mind. One motivating factor for students can be to use texts they need for other courses to help them achieve a personal goal. Concerning the schedule for the course, it can be said that the course may follow "a more or less fixed design that also allows for the time to be spent on topics and issues that learners raise themselves" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 154). To encourage motivation it might be helpful to include class time for texts or topics students themselves raise.

7.7.3 Students' feedback on the English course

All four interviewees say that students give or have the opportunity to give feedback, i.e. evaluate the course (A: 462 & 480; B: 536; C: 368; D: 374). According to Kiely (2009: 108) "programmes typically end with a questionnaire where the students indicate their satisfaction with the programme". These "evaluations can provide an invaluable account of student concerns, wants, expectations, and investments" (*ibid.*) and can influence further planning of the course. Teachers usually get the results of evaluation after grading. Sometimes it might be useful to have additional personal feedback conversations with students at the end of the course (C: 310). Teacher C says that this is an opportunity to ask the students specific questions about the course that the evaluation form would not contain (C: 364). Teacher A states she used personal feedback rounds in the first years especially (A: 484). Teacher D supports this by saying that the students give more specific statements relevant for further course development (D: 398). Students can give feedback and make suggestions.

According to the teachers students overall give mainly positive feedback on the course (A: 462; C: 346; D: 374). Teacher C reports that students sometimes complain about the workload because weaker students need more time for tasks than others (C: 346). On the other hand, when she asks students which topics could be left out, they say that they think everything was important (C: 346). Teacher C states that students like using lecture notes for the course (C: 358). Students in university D sometimes say they would like more vocabulary lists, but this is something that they can continue working on actively by themselves when they continue working with English texts (D: 14). Relating to students' individual goals, they sometimes like certain topics more than others (D: 376). Teacher B reports that there are always different opinions, for some students the course is very demanding, others find it too easy (B: 510). This range of feedback that students give about the English course is special in comparison to other courses (B: 536) and according to the teacher is difficult to influence because increasing the pace and content for the ones that are not challenged enough would at the same time mean an overload for others (B: 540). Something that teacher A reports, for example, is that students sometimes come back after a placement abroad or after attending an ENOTHE

conference announcing that they were happy to use their English outside the classroom and that they were pleased with their performance (A: 454).

Teacher D reports that students' feedback is that they are happy that an insider to their speciality is teaching the course. When working with OT texts, teacher D is able to briefly explain unknown field-specific terminology and OT concepts and models. In other disciplines at her university where outsiders of the field teach the English class, students are sometimes dissatisfied because they expect both subject and language knowledge from their teacher (D: 531-532).

7.8 Language

Several aspects relating to language and language acquisition are addressed in this subsection of the *discussion*. According to teacher C the overall development towards more total hours and teaching in groups has been very beneficial for language acquisition in general in the English course (C: 441). One aspect contributing to successful language learning described by Basturkmen (2006: 90) is that “[s]ufficient quantity and quality of linguistics input and interaction are understood to be conditions favourable for language learning”. This supports the practice applied by all teachers to use English as the language of instruction for their English courses. By speaking to the students in English, they are exposed to the language and can “notice (but not necessarily be consciously aware of) language features in order for acquisition to occur” (*ibid.*: 91).

There are many more aspects related to language which are influential for course design and implementation. Basturkmen (2010: 60) emphasises that in the syllabus “units might be construed as areas of grammar and / or vocabulary, genres, language functions (speech acts), notions, skills or strategies”. The teacher decides which items should be covered and in what sequence (*ibid.*: 61). Language systems strongly influence ESP teaching. Considering certain grammatical structures and core vocabulary as the basis includes the idea that “particular grammatical structures and vocabulary items are used more frequently” (Basturkmen 2006: 35) than in general English. Grammar and vocabulary will be focused on in separate subsections. The next chapter will have a closer look at the four language skills.

7.8.1 Language Skills

In this section the role of teaching the four skills for OT students is briefly discussed. These are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 120) point out the importance of treating skills in ESP teaching and learning in an integrated way. They argue “that skills are generally learnt more effectively when taught with other skills in an integrated manner”. All four skills are considered by teachers for their courses, but to different degrees. Teacher A says she mixes the four skills across the course and also within each session (A: 208). Concerning the balance between the four skills, teachers make different statements. Teachers emphasise reading, speaking and listening as opposed to writing (B: 187-188). Teacher C thinks that listening is focused on the most, followed by reading. Speaking and writing are considered equally to smaller parts (C: 82-84). Teacher D similarly considers reading and speaking the most, and relates these closely to listening. Students, however, only have to write little (D: 122). Teacher B distinguishes between the two courses. In course one, speaking is more important, in course two so is writing. Whereas reading and listening are equally important in both courses (B: 322). Overall, for teacher B it is not only relevant that students are able to read and understand set texts, but also that they are able to communicate about them and maybe write abstracts (B: 126). The example given shows the close relationship between the skills. Before briefly focusing on the four skills individually, we need to be aware that activities and tasks very often include more than one language skill as can be seen in the list of *ideas for activities* in the *methods* section of the *discussion*.

7.8.1.1 Listening

ESP authors divide listening into different skills. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 101f), one listening skill is being able to follow a monologue (for example, a lecture) or to “attend conferences and listen to presentations” where students participate by “cop[ing] with phonological features of language” (*ibid.*: 103). Note-taking can be considered another part of listening where “[t]he student has to process the language, relate the new information to existing schemata and find a way to record that new, related information” (*ibid.*: 104). Teacher C believes that among the four skills, listening is focused on the most in her course (C: 82). All teachers choose English as the language of instruction for their course to increase students’ listening time (C: 80; D: 122). Teacher B describes that students practise listening

skills when listening to each other, the teacher or video material (B: 184). Similarly, teacher C feels that listening is practised when working with audio and video materials (C: 126). What is practised in listening comprehension is that “students initially listen for specific information [and] focus on extracting meaning from the listening text” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 104). Listening comprehension is used by several teachers.

7.8.1.2 Speaking

Teacher A states that speaking is one of the skills she focuses on most (A: 178). Concerning speaking skills, what seems to be relevant for this study is the ability to ask questions and active listening (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 107). OT students need to be able to ask questions in encounters with patients, colleagues, at conferences, etc. “Whatever the focus of an ESP course, there can be a good deal of listening and speaking going on” (*ibid.*: 111) which are very closely related skills. Teacher B observes that at the beginning of the course students are often shy to speak in English, but get more confident as the course proceeds (B: 610). Similarly, teacher D observes that students need some time at the beginning of each session before they get into speaking. Therefore each session contains several speaking exercises (D: 32).

For teacher C pronunciation is a very important aspect of speaking (C: 68). Robinson (1991: 32) mentions a crucial aspect for speaking in ESP, namely that language produced by native speakers can be used as a model for students. It is, however, not the aim. Very likely, students of an ESP course will communicate with other non-native speakers. So the language skills they acquire should be “good enough for the job” (*ibid.*). In our context, this can be seen, for example, when students communicate and take part in meetings such as ENOTHE. Communication therefore is a main focus in English courses for OT students.

Conducting presentations can also be seen as part of speaking. All interviewees mentioned the use of presentations given by the students in class. They also consider the students’ performance in these as part of assessment (see *assessment* in the *discussion* section).

7.8.1.3 Reading

The importance of reading has been emphasised repeatedly in many parts of this study. All teachers say that reading is one of the skills they focus on most (A: 178; B: 184; C: 82; D: 122). Concerning reading, Djurić (1998: 222) identifies one of the main policies in ESP is to “encourag[e] students to master a foreign language up to a level of reading professional literature”. For OT students it is important that they are able to read academic texts in English, including OT books and scientific articles.

7.8.1.4 Writing

As has been stated above interviewees agree that writing is the language skill they focus on the least in comparison to the other language skills (A: 78; B: 186; D: 122). For an ESP course, however, one has to keep in mind that “knowledge of genre is a key element in all communication and especially significant in writing academic or professional texts” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 115). The authors describe the awareness of genre as involving “an understanding of the expectations of the discourse community that reads the text and the conventions that have developed over time about the structure, the language and the rhetoric of the genre” (*ibid.*). This is important, for example, in relation to writing abstracts or case studies. Teachers’ objectives for writing are writing summaries and abstracts (A: 192; B: 126-128). Teacher C lets students prepare additional small written tasks as homework (C: 84).

Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 118) describe the synthesis of several approaches concerning teaching writing. They emphasise the importance to

- Develop *rhetorical awareness* by looking at model texts;
- Practise specific *genre features*, especially moves and writer stance;
- Carry out writing tasks showing awareness of the *needs of individual readers and the discourse community and the purpose of the writing*;
- Evaluate the writing (through *peer review* or *reformulation*).

Many of these points are addressed in the *discussion* (see section *assessment, materials, goals*, etc.). One has to remember the different aspects contributing to writing. Nevertheless, teachers consider writing as time-consuming on behalf of the students as well as for themselves when correcting all the written texts (A: 78).

7.8.2 Grammar

There are different practices among teachers concerning grammar. Teacher A says she puts a focus on grammar in the first two English courses where she chooses selected items to work on (A: 179). In general she observes that there is not much time for grammar (A: 108). One option for students to still practise is to do prepared exercises for self-study and checking answers themselves (A: 182). Teachers B, C and D in the interviews say that they do not teach much grammar explicitly (B: 190; C: 90; D: 128). They do not correct and assess grammar as such, but prefer giving feedback in order to not demotivate their students (B: 190; C: 90; D: 528). This strategy is supported by Djurić (1998: 224) who reports that “to encourage fluency in the language can evidently lead to ignoring many grammatical mistakes. We found that those students who were more aware of their poor grammatical knowledge felt reluctant to speak at all”. Instead of correcting students’ grammar and making them aware of their mistakes, the teachers’ strategy is to rephrase students’ utterances and thereby provide the correct model of language usage. For them it is important that students communicate successfully and fluently.

Also Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*: 74) discuss the “misconceptions about the role of grammar in ESP teaching [...] [as] it is often said that ESP teaching is not concerned with grammar”. They specify their claim by saying that

[w]here students have grammatical difficulties that interfere with the essentially productive skills of speaking and writing, or the essentially receptive skills of listening and reading, it is necessary to pay some attention to those difficulties. How much priority is paid to grammatical weakness depends on the learners’ level in English and whether priority needs to be given to grammatical accuracy or to fluency in using the language. (*ibid.*)

A possibility to identify grammar areas which are essential for OT students and are therefore important to be considered is to analyse common errors (A: 182). Examples of these are:

- Conditionals (A: 182)
- Connecting words (A: 182) for reading and writing
- Tenses, including continuous forms (A: 182)
- Adverbs and adjectives (A: 182)
- Reported speech (A: 328)

All these suggestions were uttered by teacher A and it is similar to what is identified in ESP literature. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 75) specifically emphasise the importance of

verb form, notably tense and voice; modals, particularly in relation to the expression of certainty and uncertainty; logical connectors such as `however`, `therefore` and `moreover`; noun compounds; and various expressions related to the notion of `cause and effect`.

Regarding tenses, Dudley-Evans and St John (*ibid.*) emphasise the teaching of “present simple, active and passive voice and the modal verbs”. They note that when students work with academic articles, they will be confronted with different tenses and voice used typically for different parts of the articles (*ibid.*: 75; see also Basturkmen 2006: 38). Concerning teaching of modal verbs, Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 77) specifically stress “*may, might, could, would* [...] [since they indicate] the degree of certainty of a writer’s commitment to a statement or claim”. Modals also are used for using polite instructions with patients (C: 60). Concerning the role of “logical connectors, such as *moreover, however, therefore*, [...] [it is important to note that they] are generally seen as a key to understanding the logical relationships in texts and therefore relevant to the teaching of reading, listening and writing in EAP” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 78). This is important when students read academic texts or listen to talks and presentations. ESP teachers therefore might decide to focus on grammar where mistakes prevent successful communication. If a course has less hours, however, teachers will not be able to focus on grammar specifically.

7.8.3 Vocabulary

In contrast to grammar, the teachers interviewed see vocabulary as a very fundamental part in their courses (C: 90). In the early 1990s Robinson (1991: 27) already emphasises that “specialist vocabulary (or terminology) is [often considered] a key element of ESP” and that “group specific variations and synonyms” (*ibid.*) are what can be problematic, for example, for translators and interpreters. Among others, Robinson (*ibid.*: 28) summarises different distinctions of vocabulary relating to three levels. Level one is “specialist vocabulary”, the second level is the so-called “semi-technical or general scientific” vocabulary. As a third level she mentions “general and non-academic” vocabulary. When teaching vocabulary in an ESP context it is important to focus on collocations as well as looking at words in context and not on their own (*ibid.*: 29). The texts teachers use for teaching and the different

communicative situations practised in class are likely to include words from all these three categories.

Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 81), like Robinson, distinguish between technical and semi-technical vocabulary which are both relevant for ESP teaching. They describe that “in certain specific contexts it may be the duty of the ESP teacher to check that learners have understood technical vocabulary appearing as carrier content for an exercise”. This might be somewhat easier for teachers who are also OTs because they are familiar with the technical vocabulary relevant for their field. Another distinction to be made is

between vocabulary needed for comprehension and that needed for production [because] [i]n comprehension, deducing the meaning of vocabulary from the context and from the structure of the actual word is the most important method of learning new vocabulary. [Whereas f]or production purposes, storage and retrieval are significant. (*ibid.*: 83)

Because of their subject knowledge, students will be able to deduce meaning from context in many situations. Whereas vocabulary used for language production will have to be acquired actively. It is important to keep in mind that “[d]ifferent learners favour different techniques, and it is important that teachers encourage learners to find out what works best for them” (*ibid.*: 84). This awareness is demonstrated by all four interviewees when relating to different learner types. They also emphasise students’ autonomy and responsibility in order to acquire and store vocabulary independently. All interviewees stated that students express the wish for more or longer lists of vocabulary which teachers do not consider beneficial and which is also seen as controversial by Dudley-Evans and St John. They say that learning vocabulary should be something active rather than “mechanical learning of lists” (*ibid.*).

Different text types that OT students might encounter during their studies can be used in ESP courses, for example, abstracts of or full-length scientific articles, patient case studies, etc. These texts follow specific moves and steps which the ESP teacher has to be aware of. Different text types will also include specific vocabulary and phrases. The more practice students get working with these texts, the easier it will become for them to read texts independently. Using case reports, for example, is also useful because they provide a wealth of vocabulary in context (B: 405-406).

Teacher D emphasises the importance of vocabulary in order to support choosing suitable key words and synonyms for literature search (D: 260)

There are certain areas of vocabulary relating to different topics that teachers include in their courses. These are listed here:

- Basic and specific OT terminology (A: 140; B: 190 & 196; C: 50 & 96; D: 132), for example, OT process (A: 266; C: 60 & 96; D: 132)
- General vocabulary from the field of medicine such as symptoms and diseases (A: 142; B: 196; C: 60 & 96)
- Human body and its functions (A: 142; C: 96)
- Hospital vocabulary (A: 186; C: 60)
- Assistive devices (C: 60)
- Higher education vocabulary (A: 266)
- Scientific English used in field-specific academic texts (B: 196; C: 98; D: 146 & 260)
- Communication with clients – collection of useful phrases (A: 266; C: 60; D: 132)

Apart from these specialist areas of vocabulary, there is also a lot of “general” English vocabulary (A: 188) which is used in the course and acquired by students.

Teachers use different strategies to support students in their vocabulary acquisition. For teacher D it is important that students are able to look up important words in dictionaries and other sources (D: 390). Teacher C provides small lists in individual units with useful words for students to look up (C: 236). Teacher A uses vocabulary lists. She takes, however, a more active approach by letting students look up useful words and share compiled lists with colleagues (A: 244-246). This way they practise dictionary use. Teacher B lets students collect vocabulary they are lacking during group tasks which will then be shared in a forum afterwards (B: 262). She also notes vocabulary coming up in discussion on the board for students to see (B: 428-430).

7.9 Assessment

Considerations of assessment criteria and procedures were a dominant issue during the interviews. Assessment in ESP courses is concentrated on what to assess and how. Like many other aspects of teaching, assessment in ESP courses is different

than in EGP courses. Robinson (1991: 73), for example, emphasises the influence of the course objectives on assessment by saying that

[t]he ESP challenge derives from the fact that the ESP student has a definite target, namely adequate performance in a study or work situation. Both at the start and at the end of an ESP course we need to know how near a student is to achieving adequate performance.

Since it is not possible to judge performance in a real-life situation, it “is more common [to simulate] real-life performance” (*ibid.*: 74). For OT students’ assessment in their English course this could mean, for example, that students act out a role play, write a patient report, etc. The most important aim of students performing successfully in their target community is difficult to assess during training. Nevertheless, “[t]he ultimate proof for an ESP course is how well the learners fare when using English in their target situation; after the course they should be more effective and more confident using English in their target situations” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 210). It can be said that students who are successful in using English texts for their bachelor papers and complete a placement in English, have reached the overall goals of the course. For both these goals students have to combine language and subject knowledge. In his book about assessing languages for specific purposes (LSP), Douglas (2000: 2) writes that

[t]he interaction between language knowledge and content, or background, knowledge is perhaps the clearest defining feature of LSP testing, for in more general purpose language testing, the factor of background knowledge is usually seen as a confounding variable, contributing to measurement error and to be minimized as much as possible. In LSP testing, on the other hand [...], background knowledge is a necessary, integral part of the concept of specific purpose language ability.

Both language and subject knowledge need to be taken into account for assessment. Douglas (*ibid.*: 6) says that “the materials the test is based on must engage test takers in a task in which both language ability and knowledge of the field interact with the test content in a way which is similar to the target language use situation”. Such a test will include the technical language specific for the respective field.

There are lexical, semantic, syntactic and even phonological characteristics of language peculiar to any field, and these characteristics allow for people in that field to speak and write more precisely about aspects of the field that outsiders sometimes find impenetrable. (*ibid.*: 7)

We therefore need special “tests which attempt to measure language ability for specific vocational, professional, and academic purposes” (*ibid.*: 9). Such tests are

very difficult to create. Since each ESP course is very specific, to date there are no standardised tests for OT students.

Teacher B says that assessment is a difficult process for this course because to separate between language competence and subject knowledge is almost impossible (B: 116 & 482). Since Douglas suggests that in ESP assessment we test both, maybe teachers should clearly assess both aspects for the students' grades. In order to do this, teachers have to keep in mind which year the students are studying in and what subject knowledge can be expected. When deciding to consider both language skills and background knowledge for assessment, this needs to be made clear to the students at the beginning of the course. Maybe this procedure would make the English course more relevant for the students in relation to their field of studies.

Teacher C thinks that the grading process might be easier for someone who is a qualified teacher (C: 450), and therefore recommends that if teachers do not hold a teaching degree, their knowledge about grading and assessment methods in general should be increased (C: 452). She would also like to have strategies to react to students' possible disagreement about grades (C: 450). Teacher A would be interested in new approaches to error analysis and correction (A: 422).

Three areas were especially well represented during the interviews. One focuses on comments about different parts of assessment, the second on assessment criteria. The third one is how students' different level of English influences the assessment process. These areas are focused on in the following subsections.

7.9.1 Different parts of assessment

Continuous assessment is popular in ESP courses. It means assessment is "based on work carried out over a period of time and is more flexible and formative" (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 211). Universities A, B and C use a continuous form of assessment for the course (A: 66; C: 311-312). This also has to do with the course type because seminar-like courses cannot use results from a final test as the overall grade (A: 64; C: 311-312). The grades therefore consist of different parts such as class participation, homework, written assignments, etc. (C: 312). For the teachers,

continuous assessment also includes active class participation. They therefore continuously note related observations and comments (A: 450; B: 516; C: 336).

To make continuous assessment clearer for students, teachers like using a **point system for grading** which means that students get points for several tasks throughout the course (A: 64; C: 311-312). Teacher A uses a system with 100 points total for each course of which a maximum of 50 points is attributed to two quizzes. The other points are made up by oral performance, e.g. a presentation or small oral exam (e.g. about certain texts or vocabulary, or acting out a role play) and some written task to be prepared at home (A: 64 & 442). Teacher C uses a similar system where each part of assessment equals a certain percentage. Students are aware what the grade consists of and how much the respective percentages count, e.g. homework makes up 10 %, presentation 20% (C: 190), active participation is worth 25 %, vocabulary test 15%, written case report assignment 20%, and the final quiz 10% (C: 326). Therefore all four language skills are relevant for the overall grade, or, as Robinson (1991: 74) states, “[a]ll four language skills are potentially tested”. The examples provided are two models for continuous assessment applied by teachers A and C.

In university D, continuous assessment is not used. Students do not get a grade for the English course as such, but they are awarded an overall grade for one assignment completed for the general module (D: 334 & 338). Nevertheless, class attendance during English class is compulsory (D: 347), i.e. students need to be present and participate in the English course to be able to take the final general module exam (D: 349-352). In the English course, teachers give students continuous feedback but it is not considered for the final grade (D: 364). Teacher D believes that her students are less stressed about their performance in class, for example, when giving presentations, because it does not form part of the grade.

There are different parts assessment typically consists of. The first one is participation. As has been stated before **active class participation** forms an important part of assessment (A: 64), namely between 10 and 20 % of the final grade in university A (A: 426) and 25 % in university C (C: 190). Another possibility to use for assessment purposes is **project** work. In university B students prepare a group

project where they have to work with some texts. They conduct an oral presentation of this project (B: 58 & 110). The projects show whether students are able to incorporate knowledge acquired in the course (B: 486).

Placement tests (Rea-Dickins & Germaine 1992: 47) prior to courses are not administered at the selected universities. In general, there are different types of **tests** which can be administered. Other types of tests, however, are used by the teachers.

Progress tests measure mastery of classwork and a desirable outcome would be for all students to get full marks. Achievement tests measure mastery of a syllabus and take a longer and wider perspective than progress tests. All students gaining full marks is theoretically possible but unlikely since individuals have particular strengths and weaknesses. (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 213)

Next to progress (sometimes also called attainment tests) and achievement tests, another option is a proficiency test which “aims to measure how well the students will perform in their target language tasks and so fits within ESP principles” (*ibid.*). Teachers A and C use quizzes as part of assessment which can be categorised as progress and achievement tests. When evaluating the learners’ outcomes there are certain aspects to consider, for example, “when to test, which type of test to use, and how we are going to mark this test” (Rea-Dickins & Germaine 1992: 43). It is also important “that the test be related to the aims of your particular syllabus, specifically to units of work that have been covered in class” (*ibid.*: 47).

There are some interesting points made by the teachers who use quizzes as part of assessment. Teachers A and C conduct one to two quizzes per term. Teacher A uses one as midterm test and one as final quiz (A: 426 & 442). Teacher C also conducts a final quiz (C: 326) and a vocabulary test after the first couple of weeks. This is a good option to motivate students to start learning and see how much they have achieved already (C: 186). The tests have a certain number of maximum points that students can reach (A: 430; C: 328) and cover different areas such as vocabulary and translations, using words in context, writing short texts (answer in about 100-200 words: what is OT, explain the muscular system, how does the digestive system work, etc.) (A: 439). Teacher A sometimes uses a common error quiz (A: 286). Teacher B does not use written quizzes (B: 519-529).

Teachers use some form of **written assignments** as part of overall assessment, for example, writing a text or summary, abstracts, short essays, CV, etc. (A: 64 & 442). Teacher B uses written work such as an abstract as part of assessment in the second English course (B: 456). Students have to read, integrate, process and summarise (B: 480). In university C written homework tasks make up 10 % of the final grade (C: 190). Additionally, students write a case report about a patient (C: 326). In university D the overall grade for the general module is given for a user-friendly summary that students write. To do this students research and process English texts to work on the topic, the summary, however, is typically written in German (D: 364).

7.9.2 Assessment criteria

For assessing students' work, Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 52) identify the following possible criteria which can be organised in two groups. As part of accuracy on language use they mention "grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation, and stress". Whereas "style, appropriateness, organization, ability to get message across, amount of communication, effort to communicate, fluency, relevance of content" (*ibid.*) belong to the group of communicative approaches to language teaching. Whichever criteria a teacher chooses for assessment, they need to be clear for students (A: 432; C: 300). Teacher C uses feedback sheets for evaluation of written assignments and presentations assessing different criteria. There is a zero to five point scale for each criterion. A sample evaluation sheet is provided for students to illustrate the criteria (C: 328). Students like the use of these assessment sheets because they provide specific feedback (C: 330).

For teacher C it is important that students conduct a well-prepared presentation elaborating on the main points of a chosen text using appropriate presentation skills, appearance and self-confidence (C: 106 & 148). Similarly, teacher A assesses defined criteria for each task (A: 430). The assessment for presentations, for example, is done according to rubrics (presented the main topics clearly, involves students in meaningful activity, pronunciation, fluency, etc.) (A: 430). When teacher B assesses students' presentation of the final project, she pays attention to the students' ability to communicate content and prepare it in an accessible way to the audience (B: 502). According to ESP literature "[a]n effective oral presentation is built

on language and skills and requires confidence. ESP courses are likely to look at: structuring, visuals, voice, and advanced signalling as well as language” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 112).

7.9.3 Influence of students’ different English level on assessment

As has been mentioned in the *student* section of the *discussion* students’ different English level strongly influences assessment procedures. Specific concerns and strategies of the teachers are illustrated here. Teacher B finds it very difficult to give fair and comparable grades because students enter the course with different levels of English (B: 488). In a content course students have more similar chances of achieving similar grades because content can be learnt rather easily, whereas acquiring a language takes longer (B: 496). She states that is very difficult to formulate learning objectives and assessment criteria so that each student has the same chance to get an A (B: 490).

As teacher A says, the course is easier for those students who already start with a good basis in English. Still, if someone has started with a lower level of English, she does not want to demotivate them by giving bad grades (A: 120). She says, someone whose English is good and who contributes a lot, gets ten points. Somebody else who is not as good but also engages actively, gets nine points or sometimes ten (A: 430). Teacher C tries to give students feedback on how much they have acquired individually, whether they are able to apply this acquired knowledge and how their skills have improved compared to the beginning of the course (C: 316). Providing fair assessment is of great importance for all teachers.

8 Guidelines for good practice

As has been demonstrated in the elaborate *discussion* section there are many factors relating to teaching and learning which influence planning and implementing an English course for OT students. Many of these aspects are closely related and difficult to distinguish. They form a complex system which has to be considered for course design. This section provides a very concise summary of the discussion. The list can be used as a quick reference when designing an English course for OT students.

General considerations:

- Findings from ESP literature¹⁹ can make planning and implementing the course easier.
- The higher the number of teaching units²⁰, the more language learning will take place²¹.
- Students should be made to realise the importance of English for OT (studies).
- The more the course concentrates on the students' speciality, the better (concerning content, learning objectives, materials, etc.).
- The use of subject-language integration across the curriculum should be encouraged as much as possible, for example, by motivating colleagues to use English texts as reading material in other classes.

Course and syllabus design

- Consider the general module English is part of, the available total number of teaching units and semester for planning the course.
- The higher the number of total teaching units, the more you can either elaborate on selected topics or cover a larger number of topics.
- If your course covers more semesters, guide your students through their OT studies by overlapping your content with other subject courses taking place at the same time.
- If you only have one course, position it in the second year of studies. This way, students already have some subject knowledge about OT and you can support them in reading scientific texts necessary for the bachelor papers.
- If organisation of time table allows it, try to combine three teaching units per session and hold sessions every week or every other week in order to provide beneficial learning conditions.

Course content and topics

- Depending on total number of teaching units and ECTS credits / workload, decide on selected content and related learning objectives for relevant target situations.

¹⁹ For recommendations, see *references*

²⁰ It is important, however, to keep the overall aim of the bachelor programme in mind which is for students to become practising occupational therapists.

²¹ Average of teaching units in the four selected universities: 42.75

- Define what the course will focus on and communicate this to your students. If possible, consider their personal goals.
- Work on all of the four language skills. If you have to narrow your focus, pay more attention to reading, speaking and listening as opposed to writing.
- Choose selected aspects of vocabulary and grammar for teaching.
- Possible content could centre around:
 - Field-specific terminology and vocabulary
 - Oral and written communication skills
 - Reading specialised literature
 - Scientific writing

Aims and learning objectives:

- Depending on chosen content, total number of teaching units and ECTS credits / workload, decide on related learning objectives for relevant target situations.
- One general aim is to help students feel as confident as possible using the English language for speaking, listening, reading and writing.
- Possible learning objectives could centre around:
 - Feeling confident when using the English language for study purposes
 - Understanding and discussing field-specific English texts
 - Applying field-specific English vocabulary to communicate with English-speaking colleagues and clients, as well as research findings
 - Conduct presentations in English

Teaching methodology:

- Use a combination of different teaching methods and class activities relevant for the purpose and in relation to the individual group of learners.
- Use TBL, CLT, CLIL and TPR where relevant.
- Use different options for language production such as presentations, discussions, role plays, project work, written assignments, etc.
- Use English as the language of instruction and communication to increase the learners' exposure to the language.
- Create a supporting atmosphere for learning.
- Encourage and support active learning and consider individual learner types.
- Work in pairs and groups to increase the learners' speaking time.

Materials:

- Select from useful sources that are available (for example, “Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe” or other course books specialising in medical English²²). Consider standard textbooks about OT published in English.
- Provide in-house materials such as lecture notes or handouts suitable for the context.
- Provide reference materials for learners, a list of recommended reading (e.g. medical English books) and dictionaries for students for further practice.
- Use authentic material as much as possible including different types of texts typical for the target community (for example, scientific articles, patient case reports, etc.).
- Consider using e-learning platforms for the distribution of materials and also other options such as discussion forums etc.

Teacher:

- Should either hold a teaching degree in English and be interested in OT; or be an occupational therapist with respective English qualifications and be interested in teaching English for specific purposes.
- If possible, cooperate with other ESP teachers.

Students:

- It is helpful to teach homogeneous groups in terms of speciality (only OT students).
- Remember that apart from their common field of study, groups might be rather inhomogeneous regarding age, work and language experience, personal goals, motivation, etc.
- If possible, teach classes of a maximum of 15 students for the course. In smaller groups you can better focus on individual learners and increase the amount of each student’s active learning time in class.
- Dividing groups by proficiency level could be difficult²³, but consider students’ individual level of English for feedback, corrections and teamwork in order not to demotivate them.
- Support autonomous learning.

²² Look for available medical English course books in the appendix

²³ The selected universities do not divide student groups according to English proficiency level

Assessment:

- Choose a course type with continuous assessment. This way you can make sure that students learn throughout the whole course.
- Include students' active participation in class as part of assessment.
- Due to students' different level of English it is helpful to use different types of performance for assessment (for example, quizzes, presentations, group discussion and projects, in-class activities, written assignments, etc.).
- Define assessment criteria and communicate these clearly.
- Give students constructive feedback on their performance considering their individual proficiency level.

This list can be used as a quick reference. For more in-depth information, the reader is advised to consider the relevant sections of the *discussion*.

9 Conclusion

As has been demonstrated in the *discussion* section, experiences made by the teachers interviewed are very similar to findings from ESP literature. Many teachers are, however, not aware of the field of ESP. Dudley-Evans and St John (2001: 169) emphasise the advantage that ESP literature and other examples of course design can have when planning and implementing a course. It is helpful to “[look] at the decisions other course designers made and at the materials they selected, and then adapt these other approaches to match the particular parameters in our own situation” (*ibid.*). This study therefore illustrates different factors relevant for planning and implementing an English course for OT students. By contrasting findings from ESP literature, results from curriculum evaluation and interview analysis, guidelines for good practice for teachers and course developers are formulated.

Some of the main problems for ESP teachers identified in this study are similar to findings from Djurić's (1998: 226) work in Slovenia: One problem is that it is hard to publish textbooks because it is such a specific field with only a very small target audience. Therefore suitable course books are often not available. Another problem is that the ESP teachers from different universities are not in contact with each other even though they share similar experiences and face similar problems. The third problem mentioned by Djurić is the language knowledge with which students enter

into university which does not match the prerequisites. This influences several aspects such as choice of methodology and assessment.

This study is the first project of its kind focusing on English courses for OT students and can therefore be only considered a starting point. There are many more options for evaluating ESP courses which were not applied for this study. One example is classroom observation. As suggested by Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1992: 87), observation “is an important tool in capturing the reality of classrooms”. Conducting classroom observations would be a valuable supplement to the qualitative data obtained from the interviews. Apart from observation Basturkmen (2006: 163) mentions other useful methods for data collection on ESP courses such as different types of documents, interviewing students, sample materials, lesson plans, etc. (see also Robinson 1991: 69). Norris (2009: 11) emphasises the importance to include different people such as students in order to obtain more information. Teachers, however, need to remain the main focus because they have the possibility to change and improve course design and implementation. It has to be kept in mind that for this study no data or feedback was obtained directly from students. Data used for analysis have been gathered exclusively from selected universities and teachers. Teacher A suggested involving students who have already graduated to obtain feedback about whether and to what degree the English course was useful for them in their academic and professional career (A: 496). In ESP literature this is defined as “assess[ing] whether the learners have been able to make use of what they learned and to find out what they were not prepared for” (Dudley-Evans & St John 2001: 17).

What students need influences the course and course design of the analysed universities. In this paper interviewees talk about these needs in relation to the importance of English for students and OTs in the workforce. It has been described “what tasks or activities people perform in their jobs” and “what level of language performance is required for these tasks” (Robinson 1991: 10). Conducting needs analysis by collecting data from students as well as OTs working in the field could prove to be a very interesting path to explore in order to see whether these findings match the needs teachers identify for their course.

Kvale (2007: 126) points out one general disadvantage in relation to qualitative research by saying “there are too few subjects for the findings to be generalized”. The findings of this study reflect the personal teaching experience of the four interviewees. Results, however, can be interesting for teachers setting up a similar course because “the knowledge produced in a specific interview situation may be transferred to other relevant situations” (*ibid.*: 126f). Further research is needed to explore whether the findings hold true for planning and implementing English courses for OT students in other universities in Austria as well as universities in other non-English-speaking countries. It would also be interesting to compare the results of this study with English courses for other AHPs such as physiotherapists. From a conversation I had with an English teacher for physiotherapy students, I learned that the teachers there face similar challenges in planning and implementing the English course. Cooperating with English teachers of other AHP students in the future could be valuable as well.

The findings of this study support the fact that there is a lot of thought behind planning an ESP course. What form the course takes when implemented is only the result of a long and intensive process of planning. The course develops initially from analysing relevant target situations and communities. ESP has become an increasingly important field in applied linguistics and teaching. I hope that this study is a helpful contribution in the broad area of teaching medical English. Above all, I hope that the discussion and results provided will form a useful basis from which teachers in Austria and other non-English-speaking countries can make decisions about designing and implementing their own English courses for OT students.

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Appendix

Evaluation Grid

Criteria for evaluation	Data on English course University of Applied Sciences A	Data on English course University of Applied Sciences B	Data on English course University of Applied Sciences C	Data on English course University of Applied Sciences D
<i>Title of course</i>	<u>“Medical English 1-5”</u> (part of general module “Research methodology” ²⁴)	<u>“English for specific purposes 1: Basics”</u> ²⁵ (semester 1, part of general module: “Foundations of occupational therapy 1” ²⁶) <u>“English for specific purposes 2: Data collection and literature search”</u> ²⁷ (semester 6, part of general module: “Research methodology 3” ²⁸)	<u>“English Seminar”</u> (part of general module “Scientific literature search” ²⁹ , section “Scientific competencies” ³⁰)	<u>“Medical English and Reading Scientific Papers”</u> (part of general module “Foundations of research methodology 1” ³¹)
<i>Number of English courses</i>	5 English courses (see “Title of course”)	2 English courses (see “Title of course”)	1 English course	1 English course
<i>Total of periods per</i>	5 periods per week ³² during the whole training (5 x 1)	<u>“English for specific purposes 1”</u> : 1 period per week ³³	2 periods per week ³⁴	1 period per week ³⁵

²⁴ “Wissenschaftliches Arbeiten”

²⁵ “Fachenglisch 1: Grundbegriffe“

²⁶ “Ergotherapeutische Grundlagen 1”

²⁷ “Fachenglisch 2: Datenrecherche für wissenschaftliche Arbeiten”

²⁸ “Wissenschaftliches Arbeiten 3“

²⁹ “Wissenschaftliche Literaturarbeit”

³⁰ “Wissenschaftliche Kompetenzen”

³¹ “Grundlagen wissenschaftlichen Arbeitens 1”

<i>week</i>		<i>“English for specific purposes 2”</i> : 1 period per week) = 2 periods per week during the whole training (2 x 1)		
<i>Total hours</i>	90 teaching units ³⁶	28 teaching units	36 teaching units	17 teaching units
<i>ECTS credits and workload</i>	Total: 5 ECTS ³⁷ (5 x 1) → workload total: 125 hours	<i>“English for specific purposes 1”</i> : 1 ECTS <i>“English for specific purposes 2”</i> : 0.5 ECTS Total: 1.5 ECTS (1.5 x 1) → workload total: 37.5 hours [<i>“English for specific purposes 1”</i> : Self study: max. 14.5h <i>“English for specific purposes 2”</i> : Self study: max. 2h]	2 ECTS → workload total: 50 hours [Teaching units: 36 Self study: 14h]	1 ECTS → workload total: 25 hours [Self study: 12h]
<i>Frequency in the</i>	Usually one session consists of 2-3 teaching units , depending on the	Usually one session consists of 3-4 teaching units , the whole course	Usually one session consists of 3 teaching units . Sessions take place every	Usually one session consists of 4-5 teaching units . Sessions take place once a

³² 1 semester consists of 18 weeks → 1 period per week equals 18 teaching units

³³ 1 semester consists of 14 weeks → 1 period per week = 14 teaching units

³⁴ 1 semester consists of 18 weeks → 2 periods per week = 36 teaching units

Offered periods per week: 4 (periods per week x groups: in this case 2 x 2). Offered hours: 72 (periods per week x groups x weeks per semester: in this case 2 x 2 x 18)

³⁵ 1 semester consists of 17 weeks → 1 period per week = 17 teaching units

³⁶ In universities A to D one teaching unit equals 45 minutes

³⁷ In universities A to D 1 ECTS point equals 25 hours workload

<i>students' time table</i>	time table it might also be more; planning of sessions is handled flexibly. Each English course lasts for several weeks each term – depending on the general time table.	therefore covers a time span of around 4-5 weeks ; depending on the teacher (external lecturer) the course may be blocked for two days total	one or two weeks , therefore the whole course runs for a time span of one semester	week . Usually there are four sessions in total .
<i>Course type</i>	seminar	Part 1: course ³⁸ Part 2: practical course ³⁹	seminar	course ⁴⁰
<i>Semester the course is scheduled for</i>	Semesters 1-5	Part 1: Semester 1 Part 2: Semester 6	Semester 3	Semester 2
<i>Group size and number of teachers</i>	Total number of students per year: 24 For the English course 2 groups are formed with 12 students per group The same person teaches both groups	20 students per class / year	Total number of students per year: 30 For the English course 2 groups are formed with 14-17 students per group 1 teacher per group, 2 teachers total	Total number of students per year: 32 1.28 teachers ⁴¹ : In the beginning of the course the whole class is taught by both teachers, other parts are only taught by one of the two teachers, 5 teaching units are taught in two separate groups by one teacher each
<i>Pre-requisites</i>	For all five English courses: There are no prerequisites from a general module. Admission requirements for entering the occupational	For both English courses: There are no prerequisites from a general module. Admission requirements for entering the occupational	For the English course: There are no prerequisites from a general module. Admission requirements for entering the occupational	For the English course: There are no prerequisites from a general module. Admission requirements for entering the occupational

³⁸ Integrierte Lehrveranstaltung

³⁹ Übung

⁴⁰ Integrierte Lehrveranstaltung

⁴¹ 1.28 means that only some parts of the course are taught by two teachers, but not the whole course (the number is what the finance department works with)

	<p>therapy programme are CEFR⁴² Level B2 for English.</p> <p>Difficulties in English sometimes appear in the case of the admission of students with a university entrance exam⁴³, therefore the course of the first semester (<i>“Medical English 1”</i>) aims to improve the general English level and to even English proficiency across the class. This then serves as a basis for the subsequent courses (<i>“Medical English 2-5”</i>).</p>	<p>therapy programme are CEFR Level B2 for English.</p> <p>There are, however, still individual differences in regard to students’ level of English (e.g. students who have lived in an English speaking country for a while etc.)</p>	<p>therapy programme are CEFR Level B2 for English or “basic knowledge of the English language”⁴⁴</p>	<p>therapy programme are CEFR Level B2 for English.</p>
<p><i>Aims and learning objectives</i></p>	<p>Competencies of general module <i>“Research methodology”</i>⁴⁵ including <i>specific aims of the English course (italics and bold)</i>:</p> <p>Students should be able to:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. research recent scientific findings on a national and international level 2. formulate relevant research questions 	<p>Competencies of the general module <i>“Foundations of occupational therapy 1”</i> including <i>specific aims of English course 1 (italics and bold)</i>:</p> <p>Students develop a basic understanding of the profession. They should be able to:</p>	<p>Competencies of the general module <i>“Scientific literature search”</i> including <i>specific aims of the English course (italics and bold)</i>:</p> <p>Students should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • investigate and research recent scientific findings on a national and international level • know criteria for 	<p>Students should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • consider and critically evaluate qualitative criteria for literature • know and understand definitions and synonyms in English useful for literature search • explain occupational therapy to different target audiences

⁴² Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. Level B2 is the level of English reached with the Austrian school leaving examination.

⁴³ Berufsreifeprüfung

⁴⁴ “Nachweis von Englischkenntnissen der Niveaustufe 1“. Unfortunately, it was not possible to obtain further information on this definition.

⁴⁵ “Wissenschaftliches Arbeiten”

	<p>related to OT</p> <p>3. select and apply relevant scientific research methods, and use elicited data to answer research questions</p> <p>4. make use of scientific findings and phenomena to support further professional and scientific development</p> <p>5. successfully communicate in English in the area of research methodology, with colleagues and in relation to therapeutic conduct</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> outline the historical development of the profession and the paradigms that form the basis for occupational therapy, they illustrate this by using examples describe the general framework and fields of occupation as well as the therapeutic attitude and roles, develop basic specialised, and systematic as well as social and communicative competence define the occupational therapy process, common terms relevant for occupational therapy deepen their knowledge by applying clinical reasoning skills to sample case studies understand and discuss English texts and articles <p>Competencies of the general module ("Research methodology 3") including specific aims of English</p>	<p>assessing the quality of scientific papers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> know qualitative and quantitative research methods know criteria for scientific writing and be able to apply these for writing a literature review know English vocabulary relevant to their field and understand specialised literature and take part in professional discussions in English <p><u>Extract from the course description:</u> To enable students to acquire English vocabulary relevant to their field in order to take part in professional discussions and read occupational therapy literature in English. To communicate successfully with clients and colleagues considering polite phrases as well as cultural awareness.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> illustrate selected diagnoses in English and explain these to different target audiences
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		<p><i>course 2 (italics and bold)</i>. Students should be able to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • present and discuss the most important results of their bachelor papers (using peer-coaching applying important guidelines for giving feedback) and draw implications from their findings for practical work • generalise and assess results and findings applying criteria of research methodology • give feedback on formal criteria concerning the line of argumentation (using correct citation, choice of specialised terms, comprehensibility of the text according to scientific guidelines) • communicate about specialised content and conduct short presentations in English on an advanced level 		
Topics / content	<p><u>"Medical English 1-5":</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acquisition of terminology using specialised topics and 	<p><u>"English for specific purposes 1":</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • specialised terminology in relation the 	<p><u>Extract from the curriculum description:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vocabulary relevant to working as an 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • general as well as field-specific vocabulary relating to assessment, treatment and

	<p>texts relating to the key areas of the occupational therapy training.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> improving oral and written communication skills in a foreign language for working in an international, multidisciplinary and scientific context. <p>Main focus <u>“Medical English 1”</u>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> higher education vocabulary describing professional areas, techniques, methods and trends in occupational therapy phrases and communicative strategies used in presentations and discussions general vocabulary describing the human body and diseases <p>Main focus <u>“Medical English 2”</u>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> the human body and its functions instructing patients (ADLs, motor skills, 	<p>occupational therapy and medicine in English</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reading, understanding and discussing specialist texts in English final project in English literature search on topics of occupational therapy basics (occupation, activity, occupational performance, models and theories, ethics, clinical reasoning) <p><u>“English for specific purposes 2”</u>:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> extracting specialist literature further acquisition of medical English presenting and discussing relevant specialised topics writing abstracts position papers WFOT 	<p>occupational therapist (occupational performance, therapeutic process, areas of daily living, human body, ...)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> reading and processing scientific texts in English <p><u>From the course information:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> introduction English vocabulary relating to the human body and movements diagnoses (English vocabulary relating to diseases and symptoms) assistive devices (English terms for assistive devices and their description) multidisciplinary team (English terms relating to the different personnel working in a hospital) communication with clients (polite phrases in English-speaking countries) initial interview, assessment (vocabulary and abbreviations relating to occupational therapy) documentation, reports, 	<p>documentation in the occupational therapy process</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> definitions and synonyms literature search in English reading and understanding of specialised literature in English
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fine motor skills) • reading complex specialised literature <p>Main focus "<u>Medical English 3</u>":</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • description of departments, personnel and procedures in the hospital • specialised vocabulary concerning common diseases, symptoms, therapy • communication with patients: anamnesis, therapy, consulting • writing of CV and filling out a job application form <p>Main focus "<u>Medical English 4</u>":</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading skills and basic vocabulary for scientific texts in English • discussion and presentation of complex specialised texts • documentation: assessment, reports 		<p>therapy situation (exercises for listening and reading comprehension; formulating goals, English patient case reports, speaking in English in therapy situations)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • working with academic texts, presentations, giving feedback (how to extract and work with important information in an academic text; preparing presentations; express feedback in English) • therapy: different specialisations (relevant vocabulary for different fields of occupational therapy) • occupational therapy in different countries 	
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	<p>Main focus „<i>Medical English 5</i>“:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • describing facts and figures, graph description • scientific writing: summaries, citation, abstracts • intercultural communication 			
<i>Teaching methods / didactics</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • communicative language teaching • content and language integrated learning • total physical response • communication-oriented lessons using partner and group work • simulation and role plays • short presentations • if possible, interdisciplinary projects • promoting learner autonomy • independently elaborating specialised literature and presentation in English 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • working with texts using: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ group work ➤ presenting elaborated results and findings • interactive course 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lecture • autonomous learning • pair and group work • discussions • practical exercise • role play • presentations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • input-lectures • group work • role plays • presentations
<i>Language of instruction</i>	English	German / English	English	English
<i>Course materials /</i>	See “ <i>Recommended reading for students</i> “	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • WFOT position papers • scientific articles in 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lecture notes / script • additional handouts 	understand and work with current abstracts and articles

<p><i>course books</i></p>		<p>English</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OT dictionary (ENOTHE terminology group) • text Adolph Meyer (1922) • films on occupational therapy: OT-assessment and OT-treatment • Graff et al. (2006) • Wilcock (2001): "Occupational science" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • specialised literature in English 	<p>covering different topics and terminology, as well as different methods and terms of methodology</p> <p>See also "Recommended reading for students"</p>
<p><i>Recommended reading for students</i></p>	<p><u>"Medical English 1":</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • journalistic and specialised texts relating to medicine, occupational therapy and caring professions • medical dictionary German-English, English-German • Friedbichler. 2007. <i>Fachwortschatz Medizin Englisch</i>. Stuttgart: Thieme. <p><u>"Medical English 2":</u> see "Medical English 1"</p> <p><u>"Medical English 3":</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • selected specialised literature • latest edition of: 	<p>See "Course materials / course books"</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Schiller. 2008. <i>Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe</i>. (2nd edition). Heidelberg: Springer Medizin Verlag. • McCullagh, Wright. 2008. <i>Good Practice: Communications Skills in English for the Medical Practitioner - Student's Book</i>. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. • Friedbichler, Friedbichler. 2007. <i>Fachwortschatz Medizin Englisch</i>. Stuttgart: Thieme. <p>These books are available for students in the university</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taylor. 2004. <i>Evidence-Based Practice for Occupational Therapists</i>. United Kingdom: Wiley Blackwell. • Schiller. 2008. <i>Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe</i>. (2nd edition). Heidelberg: Springer Medizin Verlag. • Christiansen; Baum. 2005. <i>Occupational Therapy – Performance, Participation, and Well-Being</i>. (4th edition). New Jersey: Slack incorporated. • Blesedell Crepeau, Cohn, Boyt Schell (eds.). 2008. <i>Willard & Speckman's</i>

	<p>Friedbichler. <i>Fachwortschatz Medizin Englisch</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Schiller. 2008. <i>Fachenglisch für Gesundheitsberufe</i>. (2nd edition). Heidelberg: Springer Medizin Verlag. • Glendinnig, Holmström. 2005. <i>English in Medicine</i>. (3rd edition). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. • Flaß. 2006. <i>Care For You. English for Health and Social Care</i>. Troisdorf: Bildungsverlag eins. <p><u>“Medical English 4“:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • see “Medical English 3” • medical databases • Hussey, Sabonis-Chafee, O’Brien. 2007. <i>Introduction to Occupational Therapy</i>. (3rd edition). St.Louis, Missouri: Mosby Elsevier. <p><u>“Medical English 5“:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • see “Medical English 3” 		library.	<p><i>Occupational Therapy</i>. (11th edition). Philadelphia: Lippincott, Williams and Wilkins.</p> <p>Because the course is part of the module “<i>Foundations of research methodology 1</i>”⁴⁶, different abstracts, articles and chapters from books are used in English. The texts are accessible through the university library.</p>
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⁴⁶ “Grundlagen wissenschaftlichen Arbeitens 1“

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lynch, Hanson. 2004. <i>Developing Cross-Cultural Competence</i>. Baltimore, Md.: Paul H. Brookes. • Bigby. 2003. <i>Cross-Cultural Medicine</i>. Philadelphia, Pa.: American College of Physicians. • Hofstede et al. 2007. <i>Exploring Culture</i>. Boston, MA [u.a.]: Intercultural Press. <p>The recommended books for reading are partly available for students in the university library. Numerous specialised books about different fields of occupational therapy in English have been purchased for the library.</p>			
<i>Qualification of teachers</i>	It is important that teachers hold a teaching degree in English. The University of Applied Sciences can require a teacher through the language centre of the university close by.	No specific guideline in course description / curriculum For the head of the department it is important that an occupational therapist with respective English skills conducts the English course	The following general guidelines apply for teachers of the bachelor programme occupational therapy ⁴⁷ : “Selection of part-time lecturers is completed by the head of the department in cooperation with the respective coordinators. The	The teacher’s background should be in the health-care sector. He / she should be able to work with occupational therapy literature in English, as well as be knowledgeable concerning evidence-based practice and research

⁴⁷ Cited from the application of accreditation for OT studies, translated into English by the author

			<p>same criteria as for full-time lecturers apply:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>specialist knowledge</i> • <i>if applicable, knowledge of specialised fields depending on type of lecture</i> • <i>didactic qualification</i> • <i>if applicable, specialised experience working abroad and / or</i> • <i>professional practice outside of university</i> <p>For part-time lecturers special qualifications relevant for the respective course are most important. Their expertise and recognition in the professional field relating to the respective course can replace formal scientific qualifications. In the case of lacking teaching experience, a pedagogic-didactic introductory course should be attended."</p>	methods etc.
<i>Who is teaching the course at the moment?</i>	<i>"Medical English 1":</i> English teacher (PhD, MA, BA), also teaches in a different bachelor degree programme (health sciences) at the same	<i>"English for specific purposes 1 and 2"</i> are taught by an occupational therapist (MSc OT, PhD)	2 occupational therapists One of them is bilingual (German-English) One is an English student	2 occupational therapists (MSc OT)

	<p>university. English teacher is not an occupational therapist.</p> <p><u>“Medical English 2- 5“:</u> English teacher (Mag., Teaching degree English / history) had previously been working at the University of Applied Sciences. Also teaches pedagogics for occupational therapy students, and teaches in a different bachelor degree programme (health sciences) at the same university. English teacher is not an occupational therapist; has read up on occupational therapy literature and the field of occupational therapy in detail.</p>			
<i>Assessment methods</i>	<p>Continuous assessment using points system. The overall grade of each course consists of several parts including active participation, written performance, written assignments, oral performance (varying each semester).</p>	<p><u>“English for specific purposes 1“:</u> continuous assessment: active class participation, presentation, group work (e.g. posters etc.) For group assignments the teacher gives one grade for all group members which forms part of the individual</p>	<p>Continuous assessment: attendance and active participation, in-class exercises and assignments, homework assignments, vocabulary test, patient case study assignment, presentations</p>	<p>Module exam for the general module <i>“Foundations of research methodology“</i>⁴⁹: search for scientific articles in data bases, structured search, develop research questions, read different articles, collect abstracts, write a summary for one of the articles. The achieved</p>

⁴⁹ “Grundlagen wissenschaftlichen Arbeitens“

		student's overall mark <i>"English for specific purposes 2"</i> (course ⁴⁸): presentations etc. If students are absent or have not completed assignments, they have to compensate by completing an additional task in order to complete the course.		grade is the overall mark for the whole module.
<i>Grades</i>	1-5	<i>Part 1</i> : grades 1-5 <i>Part 2</i> : "course successfully completed"	1-5	1-5
<i>Number of hours the course consisted of before bachelor degree programme</i> ⁵⁰	10 teaching units "Medical English"	10 teaching units in the third year of studies	20 teaching units	10 teaching units
<i>Other (subject) courses taught in English</i>	None. Guest lectures are occasionally held in English (e.g. elective subjects if the teacher is not a native German speaker)	None. To work on their bachelor papers, students use numerous sources in English	None. It is planned, however, to conduct parts of subject courses in English in the future. Guest lectures are usually held in English (for example, during the "international	None. At the moment no other courses are taught in English. Students, however, start reading literature in English at the beginning of their studies in different types of courses. Definitions are partly

⁴⁸ Übung

⁵⁰ Was English part of the curriculum? If yes, how many teaching units did it consist of?

			week”). Students work with literature in English throughout their training.	worked with in English when taken from original English texts. Already before students attend the English course, they are familiar with terminology in English (for example, in the course “ <i>Philosophy of occupational therapy</i> ”), this is meant to support gradual acquisition of terminology.
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Interview Guide

Diplomarbeit: (Medical) English for Occupational Therapy Students – Guidelines for good practice

Four individual interviews will be conducted with English teachers for OT students teaching at four Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria.

These are semi-structured qualitative interviews.

This interview guide is based on a scheme proposed by Richards (2009: 188) and follows this structure:

Topic

Subtopic

- Question (questions in brackets in font size 10 are prompts in case they are needed)

Checklist:

BEFORE THE INTERVIEW:

Bring along a **print version of data collection of their FH** concerning the course (number of hours, content, etc.). Use this as a basis for the interview (interview partners can look at the data gained in the evaluation).

Ask interviewees to bring along books, notes, etc. that they might find helpful or important for the interview.

BEFORE STARTING RECORDING: Clarify and repeat:

- The interview is going to be recorded to make transcription easier
- Position recorder and make a short recording to try if it works properly
- Transcript will be read only by supervisor, will not be included in the diploma thesis
- Repeat purpose: Guidelines derived from basic data about English course, interviews, and literature, comparison to other ESP courses
- It is a semi-structured interview, so I will have a set of questions but we will handle them flexibly in the course of the interview
- Every aspect that comes up during the interview might be interesting for the analysis
- Anonymity (codes for FHs and interview partners)
- Confidentiality
- Possible choice to not answer questions etc. before starting recording the interview

INTERVIEWLEITFADEN

Lehrveranstaltung: Basics:

Stundenanzahl und Aufteilung:

1. Gibt es an Ihrer FH eine oder mehrere Englisch-Lehrveranstaltungen (mehrere Teile)? Finden Sie dies sinnvoll?
2. Wieviele Unterrichtseinheiten hat die LV insgesamt? Erscheint Ihnen diese Anzahl sinnvoll? Warum? Warum nicht?
3. Ist genügend Zeit vorhanden um die geplanten Themen zu bearbeiten?
4. Ist Ihrer Meinung nach der Zeitpunkt der LV günstig (das Semester, in dem die LV stattfindet)? Warum / warum nicht? (z.B. in Bezug auf Vorwissen bzw. Vorerfahrung von Studierenden mit der englischen Sprache, Bearbeiten von englischsprachiger Fachliteratur, ergotherapeutisches Fachwissen, etc.)
5. In welcher Frequenz findet der Unterricht statt? (z.B. wöchentlich, monatlich, etc.) Sind Sie mit dieser Frequenz zufrieden? Bzw. was wäre Ihrer Meinung nach ideal?
6. Wieviele Unterrichtseinheiten werden jeweils pro LV-Termin am Stück gehalten? Erscheint Ihnen dies sinnvoll?
7. Wie kommen Studierende mit dem Workload der LV zurecht? Wie ist der Workload über die Dauer der LV verteilt? (z.B. semesterweise wenn relevant, etc.)

Organisation der Gruppe:

Gruppeneinteilung, und -größe:

8. Findet der Unterricht gruppenteilig oder im gesamten Jahrgang statt? Wieviele Studierende unterrichten Sie ca. auf einmal?
9. Wie sind Sie mit der Gruppengröße für die LV zufrieden? (z.B. passt, zu groß, zu klein, Vor- und Nachteile von größeren / kleineren Gruppen, etc.)
10. Nach welchen Kriterien werden eventuelle Gruppen eingeteilt? (z.B. alphabetisch, nach Englisch-Kenntnissen, aufgrund vorbestehender Gruppenzuteilung zu anderen LVs, etc.)

Englisch-Vorkenntnisse:

11. Wie schätzen Sie das Englisch-Niveau Ihrer Studierenden zu Beginn der LV ein? Gibt es hier individuelle Unterschiede? (z.B. Matura, Studienberechtigungsprüfung, Auslandserfahrungen, Altersunterschiede, Unterschied zwischen Sprachverständnis und -produktion, Aussprache, etc.)
12. In welchen Situationen während der LV können Sie auf das unterschiedliche Englisch-Niveau der Studierenden Rücksicht nehmen? (z.B. in welcher Phase der LV, bei welchen Aktivitäten / Assignments, etc.)
13. Sollten Ihrer Meinung nach die Studierenden gewisse Voraussetzungen für den Besuch der LV erfüllen? (z.B. Englisch-Kenntnisse, etc.)

Inhalte:

Auswahl der Inhalte:

14. Kommentieren Sie bitte diese Liste mit den Lehrinhalten Ihrer LV. (z.B. Welche sind Ihrer Meinung nach besonders wichtig, welche eher weniger? Auf welche Inhalte legen

Sie mehr Aufmerksamkeit, auf welche weniger? Welche finden bei den Studierenden gute Akzeptanz, welche weniger? etc.)

15. Wie zufrieden sind Sie mit den Inhalten, die in der LV abgedeckt werden?

Haben Sie Einfluss darauf, welche Inhalte bearbeitet werden? (z.B. Vorgabe der FH vs. Mitformulierung der Lehrinhalte, etc.)

16. Was sollen Ihrer Meinung nach die Studierenden durch die LV erreichen? (z.B. Lernziele, Fertigkeiten, Fähigkeiten, etc.)

Lernziele:

17. Wie wichtig ist für Sie die Formulierung von Lernzielen für die Studierenden?

(z.B. als Orientierungshilfe, als Leistungseinstufung, für die Selbsteinschätzung, etc.)

18. Besprechen Sie die Lernziele mit den Studierenden bzw. erhalten die

Studierenden diese in schriftlicher Form? (z.B. besprechen der Lernziele zu Beginn der LV; sind Lernziele für die Studierenden im Curriculum einsehbar; werden sie in einem schriftlichen Handout der LV aufgelistet, etc.)

Sprachfertigkeiten:

19. Wie ist die aktuelle Situation: Werden die folgenden Sprachfertigkeiten explizit in der LV behandelt: **Lesen, Schreiben, Hören, Sprechen**? Zu welchen Anteilen arbeiten Sie mit den Studierenden an diesen?

20. Wie behandeln Sie **Grammatik, Vokabular (allgemein und fachspezifisch), Kommunikationsfähigkeit**, etc. in der LV? (z.B. explizites Unterrichten von

Grammatik, Wortschatz? Wird am allgemeinen Englischsprachwortschatz gearbeitet oder vordergründig am medizinischen Englisch? Ist vorrangig wichtig, dass Studierende sich mit der englischen Sprache in einer Alltagssituation verständigen können? etc.)

21. Bezüglich Wortschatz: Welche Bereiche bewerten Sie als besonders wichtig für die Studierenden? (z.B. menschlicher Körper und Bewegungen, Spitalsalltag, Wissen um englisches Fachvokabular in wissenschaftlichen Artikeln, etc.)

22. Welche Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten sollen die Studierenden als angehende Ergotherapeuten Ihrer Meinung nach durch die LV erreichen? (z.B.

Literaturrecherche, Teilnahme an internationalen Meetings, Auslandspraktikum, etc.)

23. Wie schätzen Sie die Relation zwischen allgemeinem und medizinischem / ergotherapeutischem Englisch in Ihrer LV ein? (z.B. bezogen auf Wortschatz, Aktivitäten, Assignments, etc.)

Internationale Kontakte:

24. Ist die Vorbereitung auf die Teilnahme an Tagungen von ENOTHE, WFOT,

COTEC etc. Thema in Ihrer LV bzw. an Ihrer FH? In welcher Form? (z.B.

Aussprache üben, Projektideen verstehen und bearbeiten, Teilnahme an Vorträgen und Workshops, Kommunikation und Austausch mit anderen TeilnehmerInnen der Tagung, etc.)

Lehrmethoden:

Auswahl der Methoden:

25. Welche Lehrmethoden wenden Sie in der Englisch-LV an? (z.B. communicative language teaching, content-language integrated learning, lexical approach, task-based approach, total physical response, postmethod approach, problem-based learning, subject-based learning, etc.)

26. Wie häufig wenden Sie diese Lehrmethoden an?

27. Wie häufig wenden Sie die folgenden Methoden an: Frontalvortrag, interaktiver Vortrag, Arbeit in (Klein-)Gruppen, selbständiges Arbeiten, Präsentationen, Rollenspiel, etc.
28. Nehmen Sie Rücksicht auf verschiedene Lerntypen der Studierenden? (z.B. auditiv, visuell, kinästhetisch, etc.) Wie äußert sich dies in der LV?

Unterrichtssprache:

29. Unterrichtssprache: Wann nutzen Sie Englisch / wann Deutsch im Rahmen der LV?
30. In welcher Sprache kommunizieren Sie mit den Studierenden außerhalb der LV, z.B. in den Pausen? (z.B. Sprechstunde, Lernplattform, Email etc.)

Gruppenarbeit:

31. Arbeiten Sie in Paaren bzw. Gruppen? (z.B. bei Aktivitäten, Assignments, etc.)
32. Wie häufig setzen Sie Einzel-, Paar-, bzw. Gruppenarbeit in der LV ein?
33. Kommen Rollenspiele in der Lehrveranstaltung zur Anwendung? Wenn ja, zu welchen Themen? Wie organisieren Sie diese? Können Sie ein Beispiel für ein Rollenspiel beschreiben, das Sie in der LV verwenden?
34. Wie organisieren Sie die Zusammenarbeit von Studierenden für Paar- oder Gruppenarbeiten? (z.B. suchen sich Studierende selbst Partner, oder teilen Sie dies zu? Wenn ja, nach welchen Aspekten?)

Organisation von Unterrichtseinheiten:

35. Wie strukturieren Sie Ihre Unterrichtseinheiten? (z.B. Wechsel von Vortrag und Aktivitäten; Aufbau von strukturierter zu freier; Warm-up; um welche Eckpunkte werden die Unterrichtseinheiten aufgebaut? etc.)
36. Wie planen Sie die gesamte LV und die einzelnen Unterrichtseinheiten? (z.B. gibt es ein Gesamtkonzept hinter den einzelnen Terminen? Verwenden Sie Units zur Strukturierung der verschiedenen Inhalte? Wie bauen Sie diese Units auf? Gibt es Möglichkeiten die geplante Struktur bei Bedarf flexibel abzuändern etc.)
37. Wie bauen Sie Aktivitäten und Aufgaben auf? (z.B. Wie geben Sie Anweisungen – schriftlich / mündlich? Wie lange dauern unterschiedliche Aktivitäten? In welcher Form arbeiten die Studierenden zusammen und mit welchem Ziel? Was machen Sie, wenn die geplante Zeit überschritten wird? etc.)
38. Wie instruieren Sie Aufgaben bzw. Assignments? (z.B. Power Point, Handouts, schriftlich, mündlich, etc.)

Einsatz von Lernplattformen:

39. Nutzen Sie eine Lern-Plattformen für Ihre LV? (z.B. Moodle, etc.) Wenn ja, welche Funktion hat diese? (z.B. Hochladen von Unterlagen, Austausch, Abgabe von Assignments, etc.)

Unterrichtsmaterialien:

Unterlagen, die für die LV verwendet werden:

40. Beschreiben Sie bitte die Unterlagen, die Sie für die LV hauptsächlich verwenden.

41. Haben Sie ein Lehrbuch, das Sie verwenden? (z.B. für medizinisches Englisch, etc.)
Wenn ja, welches? Wieso haben Sie dieses Lehrbuch ausgewählt?
42. Verwenden Sie ein Textbuch und Workbook?
43. Verwenden Sie ein Skriptum, das Sie selbst zusammengestellt haben?
Verwenden Sie individuelle Handouts, die Sie zusammengestellt haben?
44. Ist in den Unterlagen ausreichend Platz für Notizen der Studierenden?

Verwendung von unterschiedlichen Texten:

45. Welche schriftlichen Textformen finden Sie sinnvoll im Unterricht einzusetzen?
(z.B. Bücher zu medizinischem Englisch, englischsprachige ergotherapeutische Fachliteratur, Texte mit Alltagsenglisch, etc.)
46. Wie adaptieren Sie diese Texte um sie in der LV zu verwenden? (z.B. Auszüge von Texten, Auswahl von relevanten Textpassagen, Aufgabenstellung, etc.)
47. Verwenden Sie Texte mit unterschiedlichem sprachlichem Niveau? Warum?
48. Arbeiten Sie mit englischsprachigen ergotherapeutischen Texten im Rahmen der LV? (z.B. Zeitschriften, Bücher, etc.)
49. Verwenden Sie auch Audio- bzw. Videomaterial in der LV?
50. Verwenden Sie „patient case studies / case reports“ für Ihren Unterricht?
Warum? Warum nicht? Wenn ja, in welcher Form? Woher beziehen Sie diese Texte? Welche Lernziele wollen Sie durch den Einsatz von „case reports“ erreichen?
51. Welche Wörterbücher verwenden Sie in der LV bzw. empfehlen Sie den Studierenden? (z.B. Bücher, online Wörterbücher etc.)

Materialien:

52. Nutzen Sie Poster, Papier, Power Point / Beamer, Whiteboard, Flip-Chart, CD, Video, etc. für Ihre LV?
53. Verwenden Sie anderes Material? (z.B. Lernspiele, etc.)
54. Mit welchen Unterrichtsmaterialien haben Sie besonders positive Erfahrungen gemacht? Welche würden Sie weiterempfehlen?

Qualifikation:

Persönliche / fachliche Qualifikation:

55. Beschreiben Sie bitte die Qualifikation(en), die Sie haben, um die Englisch-LV an Ihrer FH zu halten. (z.B. Ergotherapeutische Ausbildung – ev. Master, Universitätsstudium, fachdidaktische Fortbildungen, Auslandserfahrung, Englischstudium, etc.)
56. Welchen fachdidaktischen Hintergrund / Wissen haben Sie als Vortragende?
(z.B. erarbeitet im Rahmen der Ausbildung / Studium, Masterstudium, Universitätsstudium, Lehrerfahrung, fachdidaktische Fortbildungen, Interesse und Selbststudium, etc.)
57. Wo sehen Sie durch Ihre Qualifikation besondere Vorteile oder auch mögliches Verbesserungspotenzial?

Englischkenntnisse:

58. Wo und wie haben Sie Ihre Englisch-Kenntnisse erworben? (z.B. Auslandserfahrung, Zweisprachigkeit, Ergotherapie-Masterstudium, Englischstudium, etc.)

Erfahrung mit dieser LV:

59. Wie lange halten Sie diese LV bereits? (bzw. wie oft)
60. Beschreiben Sie bitte die größten Veränderungen, die Sie seit Sie unterrichten an der LV vorgenommen haben. (z.B. Aufbau, Auswahl von Aktivitäten, Unterrichtsmaterial, etc.)
61. Haben Sie an sich selbst auch Veränderungen bemerkt?

Andere Unterrichtserfahrung:

62. Unterrichten Sie auch andere LVs an dieser oder einer anderen FH bzw. einem anderen Studiengang? Unterrichten Sie andere LVs auch auf Englisch?
63. Wie eignen Sie sich Wissen über Fachdidaktik an? (z.B. Fortbildungen, Literaturrecherche, Selbststudium, Arbeitskreis, etc.)
64. Haben Sie schon einmal didaktische Fortbildungen besucht?

Beurteilung:

Prüfungsmodus und Gesamtbeurteilung:

65. Beschreiben Sie bitte den Prüfungsmodus für die Englisch-LV an Ihrer FH. (z.B. Endprüfung vs. Immanenter Prüfungscharakter, kontinuierliche Leistungserfassung, etc.)
66. Aus welchen Anteilen setzt sich die Beurteilung zusammen? Wie setzt sich die Gesamtnote zusammen? (z.B. Präsentation, Projektarbeit, Mitarbeit, Assignments, etc.)

Beurteilungskriterien:

67. Welche Beurteilungskriterien wenden Sie an um die Studierenden zu beurteilen? (z.B. Wortschatz, Grammatik, Aussprache, Erfüllen der Aufgabenstellung, etc.)
Wie wird Beurteilung gehandhabt?
68. In welcher Form berücksichtigen Sie das eventuell unterschiedliche sprachliche Ausgangsniveau der Studierenden bei der Beurteilung? (z.B. unterschiedliches Niveau Aussprache, Wortschatz, etc.)
69. Sind Ihrer Meinung nach die Studierenden mit der Art der Beurteilung zufrieden?

Dokumentation:

70. Wie dokumentieren Sie Lernfortschritte Ihrer Studierenden? (z.B. Eintrag in eigene Unterlagen, Beurteilung von schriftlichen bzw. mündlichen Aufgaben, Hausübungen, etc.)

Leistungsüberprüfung:

71. Welche Art von Tests / Leistungsüberprüfung wenden Sie an? (z.B. schriftliche Tests, mündliche Prüfungen, Quiz, Abschlusstest, schriftliche Arbeiten, Hausübungen, etc.)

Studierende:

Erwerb von Fertigkeiten:

72. Wieviel Prozent der Studierenden erreichen die angegebenen Lernziele bis zum Ende der LV?

Zufriedenheit:

- 73. Wie zufrieden sind Studierende Ihrer Meinung nach mit der LV?
- 74. Was finden die Studierenden sinnvoll? Was macht ihnen Spaß? (z.B. bestimmte Inhalte, Aktivitäten, etc.)
- 75. Was könnte verbessert werden?
- 76. Wie zufrieden sind Studierende mit den Unterrichtsmaterialien? (z.B. Bücher, Skripten, etc.)

Feedback:

- 77. Erheben Sie während bzw. am Ende der LV von Ihren Studierenden Feedback? (z.B. schriftlich oder mündlich etc.)
- 78. Wie gehen Sie mit Feedback um, das Sie von Ihren Studierenden erhalten? (z.B. Einfluss auf die Gestaltung der nächsten LV, etc.)
- 79. Wird von Seiten der FH Feedback über die Englisch-LV von den Studierenden erhoben? (z.B. schriftlich oder mündlich, etc.)
- 80. Werden diese Ergebnisse mit Ihnen besprochen?
- 81. Bleiben Sie mit den Studierenden der LV auch nach Abschluss der LV noch in Kontakt? (z.B. durch andere LVs, Feedback zu Bewerbungen, Abstracts, etc.)

FH:

Beteiligung an Planung und Entscheidungen:

- 82. Bezüglich Organisation und Durchführung des Unterrichts: Was wird durch die FH eingeteilt bzw. entschieden und wie weit sind Sie an Entscheidungen und bei der Planung der LV beteiligt?
- 83. In welchen Bereichen haben Sie Einfluss auf die Planung und Durchführung der Lehrveranstaltung? (z.B. Lehrinhalte, Termine, Prüfungsmodus, etc.)

Bedeutung der Englisch-LV im Curriculum:

- 84. Wie schätzen Sie die Wichtigkeit der Englisch-LV im Vergleich zu anderen LVs im Curriculum ein?
- 85. Wie wichtig ist Ihrer FH die Englisch-LV im Curriculum? (z.B. Basis für andere LVs, etc.)

Englisch im ergotherapeutischen Berufsalltag:

- 86. Wie wichtig schätzen Sie Englisch-Fertigkeiten und Fähigkeiten für die ergotherapeutische Berufspraxis ein? (z.B. Verständnis von aktuellen Forschungsergebnissen, Kommunikation mit englischsprachigen Patienten, Verfassen von Forschungsarbeiten, Absolvieren eines Masterstudiengangs, etc.)
- 87. Wie wichtig schätzen Sie, verglichen mit anderen LVs, die Englisch-LV aus Sicht der Ergotherapiestudierenden ein?

Zusammenarbeit an der FH:

Zusammenarbeit mit KollegInnen:

- 88. Wie eng arbeiten Sie mit den KollegInnen an Ihrer FH zusammen?
- 89. Wie eng ist Ihre Zusammenarbeit mit KollegInnen an anderen FHs?

Andere Bereiche / Aufgaben:

90. Haben Sie an Ihrer FH noch andere Aufgaben zusätzlich zur Englisch-LV?
(z.B. andere LVs, Praktikumskoordination, Betreuung von wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten, internationale Koordination, etc.)

Allgemeines:

Besondere Situation:

91. Mit welchen Besonderheiten sehen Sie sich im Rahmen der Planung und Durchführung der Englisch-LV konfrontiert? (z.B. Altersunterschied der Studierenden, unterschiedliche Englischvorkenntnisse, Wissensstand bezüglich Englisch aber auch Ergotherapie, Gruppengröße, etc.) – Wie gehen Sie mit diesen Besonderheiten um?
92. Mit welchen besonderen Herausforderungen sehen Sie Englisch-Vortragende für Ergotherapiestudierende konfrontiert?
93. Aus Ihrer Erfahrung, welche Art von Aktivitäten schätzen Sie am sinnvollsten ein in der LV?
94. Welche Faktoren erachten Sie als fördernd für den englischen Spracherwerb im Rahmen der LV? (z.B. Gruppengröße, Alter der Studierenden, Motivation, Atmosphäre im Unterricht, Freude, etc.)

Einschätzung der LV:

95. Mit welchen Aspekten der LV sind Sie besonders zufrieden?
96. Was könnte Ihrer Meinung nach noch besser ablaufen?
97. Welche Empfehlungen würden Sie jemand geben, der eine Englisch-LV für Ergotherapiestudierende aufbaut (in Österreich, oder auch in anderen Ländern)? Welche Ideen würden Sie diesen KollegInnen nahelegen?

➔ ZUSAMMENFASSEN DER WICHTIGSTEN ECKPUNKTE DER INTERVIEWS, WIEDERHOLEN DES ZIELES DER DIPLOMARBEIT (GUIDELINES) – GIBT ES DAZU KOMMENTARE VON SEITEN DER INTERVIEWPARTNER?

Abschluss:

98. Gibt es noch etwas, das Sie gerne besprechen würden?
99. Gibt es Themen, die wichtig sind, über die wir bis jetzt nicht gesprochen haben?

AFTER THE INTERVIEW:

- Possibility to read the transcription (be aware of style, etc.)
- Interested in outcomes? Provide a copy of the diploma thesis, if desired

Coding manual

Codes are very closely related to questions and terms from interview guide. Some of the codes assigned, of course, are already a certain interpretation of the statements given by the interview partners.

Some names of the codes are also influenced by the categories and information obtained about the English courses in the occupational therapy curriculum of the selected universities

The categories *topics* and *aims / learning objectives* are very closely related.

<i>Group of code</i>	NAME OF CODE	Comment	Abbreviations used	Definition of code / codegroup
<i>English (course(s))</i>	E/no/1 E/no/2 E/no/5	How many parts does the English course consist of? Does English take place once during students' training or does it cover more semesters? Teachers' comments related to this.	E = English course no = number 1 = one part 2 = two parts 5 = five parts	E = English
	E/p⁵¹	How many parts / hours did the course have in earlier times? (prior tertiary education)	p = past	
	E/+h⁵²	Comments about the increase of total hours of the English course in OT training – What has changed in the new curriculum?	+h = more hours	
	E/tot	Total hours of English course(s)	tot = total	
	E/ECTS	Comments about ECTS credits: how many ECTS does the course have? How many would be recommendable?	ECTS = European Credit Transfer System	
	E/ECTS/wl	Comments about the workload and distribution of the workload (including influence of workload from	wl = workload	

⁵¹ Closely related to code "E/+h"

⁵² Closely related to code "E/p"

		other subject courses if relevant)		
	E/fre/p E/fre/n	How often did / does the course take place? Frequency in the past? / Frequency now? (weekly, every two weeks, monthly, etc.) How many teaching units are held per session? Comments in relation to this frequency, breaks, etc.	fre = frequency p = past n = now	
	E/dist ⁵³	How is the distribution across the whole programme and also across the semester that the course is taught in? How does this distribution influence the teaching? Any comments related to this.	dist = distribution	
	E/size/p E/size/n	Group size for the course in the past and now: how many students were / are in one group? Comments on the influence of the group size on the course.	size = group size p = past n = now	
	E/gr	How are groups formed? Which criteria apply?	gr = groups	
	E/T/1 E/T/2 E/T/1-2 E/T/d	How many teachers are teaching (parts of) the English course? Any related comments.	T = teacher 1 = one teacher teaches the whole class or all groups 2 = two teachers teach English course, each teacher teaches one group 1-2 = two teachers teach different parts within one course, i.e. class divided into two groups only for certain parts of this	

⁵³ Closely related to code "Impr/dist"

			course, other than that the whole class is taught by one of the two teachers at a time d = different teachers teach different parts of the course	
	E/imp/OT ⁵⁴	Comments on the importance of English for occupational therapy in general as well as OTs and OT students. Comments on how to make students understand this importance.	OT = occupational therapists / therapy	
	E/imp/T E/imp/St E/imp/uni	Importance of the English class – how do teachers rate the importance of the English course? How do students rate it? How do colleagues at the University of Applied Sciences rate it?	imp = importance T = teacher St = student uni = university	
<i>Planning curriculum and sessions</i>	P/cur/p P/cur/n	What about planning the curriculum? What do interview partners say about setting up the curriculum? How did they go about it individually? What was there already? What is the situation like at present?	P = plan cur = curriculum p = past n = now	P = plan
	P/cur/mod	Which general module in the curriculum is the English course part of? How does this influence the teaching of the English course?	mod = module	
	P/sess	How are individual sessions planned? How are they set up? Which phases do they consist of? What is the overall plan for sessions across the course?	sess = session	
<i>Content /</i>	Top	Which topics are covered during the English	Top = topic	TOP = topic,

⁵⁴ Closely related to the code “Res/Eng”

<i>topics</i>		course? Reasoning concerning which topics to teach and which not. Sequence of these topics and their development (See also the subcodes of this category)		content
	Top/bakn	Are topics covered in class brought in relation to students' prior knowledge / background knowledge (about medical topics, OT in general, etc.)?	bakn =background knowledge	
	Top/gra	What do teachers say about grammar? Is teaching grammar part of their course? Which areas specifically? Any related comments.	gra = grammar	
	Top/voc	Is vocabulary taught? Which vocabulary (general and specific) is taught? How? Any related comments.	voc = vocabulary	
	Top/comm	Comments on the importance and relevance of communication skills in the course.	comm = communication	
	Top/dict ⁵⁵	Is dictionary use taught? Which other sources are students introduced to that can be used to look up relevant terms?	dict = dictionary	
	Top/proj	Are there any projects in relation to English course? Why is English important for these projects? How do teachers deal with these projects? What are their roles? What is positive about the project? What are possible problems? Are the projects international?	proj = project	
	Top/lit-sea	Is literature search covered in the English course? Why? How?	lit = literature sea = search	
	Top/-	Which topics would teachers like to cover but do not have enough time for?	- = missing	
<i>Aims /</i>	Aim	Which aims / learning objectives are worked on	Aim = aim(s)	AIM = aims and

⁵⁵ Closely related to the comment "Mat/dict/?"

<i>learning objectives</i>		during the English course? How are these communicated to the students?		learning objectives
	Aim/?	Any comments about working on and reaching the set aims	? = are the aims reached?	
	Aim/X	What is <u>not</u> primarily the aim of the English course?	X = not	
<i>Language skills</i>	Skil Skil/read Skil/writ Skil/spea Skil/list	Comments about the different language skills – are they worked on during the course / in individual sessions? Are they all taught to the same degree or are there differences?	Skil = skill read = reading writ = writing spea = speaking list = listening	SKILL = language skills
<i>Teaching methods</i>	TM	Which teaching methods are used? Which topics are they used for? (See also the subcodes of this category)	TM = teaching method	TM = teaching method
	TM/clil	Is CLIL used for teaching the English course?	clil = content-and-language-integrated learning	
	TM/clt	Is CLT used for teaching the English course?	clt = communicative language teaching	
	TM/tpr	Do teachers also use TPR?	tpr = total physical response	
	TM/pbl	What do teachers say about PBL?	pbl = problem-based learning	
	TM/mix	Do they mix and combine different teaching methods / try to vary teaching strategies?	mix = mixture of different teaching methods	
	TM/com/task ⁵⁶	Which tasks are used to enhance communication?	com = communication / communicative task = types of tasks	
	TM/input	Are there inputs / short lectures, etc. given by the	input = input	

⁵⁶ Closely related to the code “TM/rp” which is also a type of communication activity

		teacher?		
	TM/pres	Use of presentations in the English course	pres = presentation	
	TM/disc	Use of (group) discussions in the English course.	disc = discussion	
	TM/rp	Are role plays used in the English course? Is reflection on the task also considered?	rp = role play	
	TM/acts	Examples of types of activities used in class / sample activities	acts = activities	
	TM/e-l	Is e-learning used for the course? Are there specific learning platforms?	e-l = e-learning	
	TM/self	Is self-study used in the English course? Do students study outside of class time, work on different tasks by themselves or in groups, etc.	self = self-study	
	TM/mat	Which materials are used for teaching? (including use of white board, power point, etc.) (language games → see “TM/game”)	mat = materials used for teaching	
	TM/game	Do teachers make use of games in the classroom (language games, etc.)? How? Any related comments.	game = game	
	TM/inst	Comments on instruction of assignments, tasks, activities etc.	inst = instruction	
	TM/corr	How to handle correcting students and giving them feedback? What to correct? What not?	corr = correction	
	TM/group	Do students work in groups, pairs, etc.? Is there a special routine accompanying group activities – bring questions for the whole class together in the end, round things up, etc.	group = group work	
	TM/group/all	How are group(s) (members) allocated? Who works with whom?	all = allocation	
	TM/act	Is active learning emphasised?	act = active	
	TM/rep	Comments on the role of repetition during the course.	rep = repetition	

<i>Language of instruction</i>	TT/E TT/G TS/E TS/G	Do teachers talk in English or German during the session? For what purpose? For which parts of the sessions do they use English or German? In which situations do students speak or use English or German?	TT = teacher talk E = English G = German TS = student talk	LANG = language of instruction
<i>Materials / sources</i>	Mat ⁵⁷	Which materials are used for teaching? Comments on how to select suitable materials.	Mat = material	MAT = material
	Mat/book	Which books are used for teaching?	book = book	
	Mat/dict/?	Which dictionaries are recommended? Which other texts / sources do teachers use for students to look up words (certain terminology, framework projects, etc.)	dict = dictionary ? = which dictionaries	
	Mat/txt	Which types of texts are used? Which sources?	txt = text, type of texts	
	Mat/scri	Is there a script / lecture notes ready for the students to use?	scri = script, lecture notes	
	Mat/ho	Are handouts used for the English course?	ho = handout	
	Mat/cr	Are case reports / patient case studies used in the course? Why? What is the aim?	cr = case report	
	Mat/onl	Do teachers use online sources? What kind of online sources? For which topics?	onl = online	
	Mat/vid	Are there videos used in the lecture? If yes, how? Why?	vid = video	
	Mat/aud	Are audio materials used in the course? How are they selected?	aud = audio	
	Mat/lev	Comments on levels of difficulty of materials used (language-wise and content-wise). Why? How?	lev = level	
<i>Possible improvements / wishes</i>	Impr	Possible improvements mentioned by interviewees to support the acquisition of English during studying OT. Relating to experience teachers have been	Impr = improvement	IMPR = improvements

⁵⁷ Closely related to the codes “TM/Mat”, and “Impr/Mat” as well as “TM/game”

		making.		
	Impr/dist	Improvements concerning the distribution of the course(s): in which terms do the different parts take place? What would be better?	dist = distribution	
	Impr/fre	Improvements concerning the frequency of the sessions.	fre = frequency	
	Impr/+h	Having a higher number of total hours could help to improve the quality of the course, more hours would be recommendable.	+h = increase in hours	
	Impr/-cont	Reduce the overall content, but go into selected content in more detail.	-cont = less content	
	Impr/+cont	Content that teachers would like to cover additionally if they had more time (specific topics).	+cont = additional content	
	Impr/clil	Using CLIL for other subject courses and how this would increase exposure to the English language.	clil = content and language integrated learning	
	Impr/mat	Suggested improvements for use of materials.	mat = material	
	Impr/coop	Increase cooperation with, for example, other English teachers or international speakers.	coop = cooperation	
	Impr/nat	Inviting native speakers to the lecture / for different activities, listening to English native speakers, etc.	nat = native	
	Impr/ass	Improvements concerning assessment of students.	ass = assess(ment)	
	Impr/corr	Time for corrections and other related issues.	corr = correction	
	Impr/fb	Improvements concerning feedback and needs analysis, planning of curriculum, etc.	fb = feedback	
	Impr/Eng-txt	Use of English texts in other courses during OT training. Is this already done in some subject courses?	Eng-txt = English texts	
<i>OT research</i>	Res/Eng	Comments on the situation of OT research taking place mainly in English(-speaking countries).	Res = research Eng = English	RES = research
<i>Teaching</i>	Teach	Teachers' qualifications to teach the English	Teach = teaching /	TEACH = about

<i>experience and qualifications</i>		course / teaching experience.	teachers	the teacher
	Teach/E/a	How many years / since when have interviewees been teaching the English course? How often have they taught the English course? What has changed since then?	E = English a = years	
	Teach/OT	Are teachers OTs themselves? Related comments.	OT = Occupational therapist	
	Teach/nOT	Teacher is not an OT. Comments on how they go about it.	nOT = no occupational therapist	
	Teach/Etd	Do teachers hold a degree in English teaching?	Etd = English teaching degree	
	Teach/exp	Comments related to general teaching experience: when, where, whom, etc.	exp = experience	
	Teach/did	Knowledge about didactics? Experience? How do teachers stay up to date? Are they interested in the topic? What are they particularly interested in? etc.	did = didactics	
	Teach/oth	Which other courses do teachers teach? For OT students? For other students?	oth = other	
	Teach/role	Other responsibilities and roles that the teachers hold at their university.	role = role(s)	
	Teach/ext	Teachers for English as lecturers coming from outside the university (external lecturers), i.e. they are only hired for teaching the English course.	ext = external	
	Teach/E/lexp	What are the teachers' English qualifications? What is their experience with the English language? Are they native speakers of English?	lexp = language experience	
<i>Assessment (methods)</i>	Ass/fe Ass/cont	Assessment in the form of a final exam (including "module exam") or continuous assessment? Related description.	Ass = assessment fe = final exam cont = continuous	ASS = assessment

	Ass/parts	Which components make up the final grade? Which parts does the overall grade consist of?	parts = parts	
	Ass/crit	Which criteria are used for the assessment of different parts?	crit = criteria	
	Ass/parc	Comments on attendance and active (class) participation as part of assessment and related issues	parc = participation	
	Ass/quiz	Are quizzes / tests used as part of assessment? Related comments.	quiz = quiz	
	Ass/pres	Comments about presentations that are given by the students as part of assessment.	pre = presentation	
	Ass/wrass	Use of written assignments for assessment purposes.	wr = written ass = assignment	
	Ass/peer	Use of peer assessment / feedback for certain tasks and related comments.	peer = peer	
	Ass/progr	How do teachers document the students' learning process and progress? How does this influence the assessment?	progr = progress	
	Ass/diff	Possible difficulties assessing students and how teachers deal with them.	diff = difficulties	
<i>Students</i>	Stu/E/lev	Comments on students' English level: Are there differences? How do teachers deal with this situation? Which possibilities do they have to support students in their individual level of English?	Stu = students E = English lev = level	STU = related to students
	Stu/chang	Comments on changes in students since the training is held at university level?	chang = change(s)	
	Stu/pre	Which prerequisites do students have prior to English course? Related comments.	pre = prerequisites	
	Stu/l/strat	About students' learning strategies, also relating to learner types, etc.	l = learning strat = strategy/ies	
	Stu/mot	Influence of and on students' motivation related to	mot = motivation	

		the English course, might be also closely related to their personality and personal learning goals.		
	Stu/fb	What is the students' feedback about the course? Are they happy / not so happy with the English course? Why?	fb = feedback	
	Stu/cont	Do teachers stay in contact with students after the course is finished? How? When? Why?	cont = contact	
<i>International contacts</i>	Int/enothe Int/cont	Are students supported to form international contacts? Is this a topic in the English course or at the university in general? How? Are students participating at conferences? (e.g. ENOTHE, etc.)	Int = international enothe = European Network of OT in Higher Education cont = contacts	INT = international contacts
<i>Atmosphere</i>	Atm	About the atmosphere in the classroom. Factors that influence atmosphere in a certain way (also equipment etc.)	Atm = atmosphere	ATM = atmosphere
	Atm/fun	Importance of creating a good atmosphere for learning through fun in class.	fun = fun	
<i>Teamwork and cooperation</i>	Coop/team	Teachers' cooperation with team members, other teachers at the university, people from outside the university, etc.	Coop = cooperation team = team	COOP = cooperation
<i>Interest in results of the project</i>	Out	Do interview partners express interest in the outcomes of the present project? How? What are they particularly interested in?	Out = outcome	OUT = outcome

Examples of books on medical English

- Allum, Virginia; McGarr, Patricia. 2008. *Cambridge English for Nursing (Intermediate +)*. Cambridge Professional English series. Series editor: Day, Jeremy. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (The book includes two audio CDs)
- Berding, Jutta; Dehnhardt, Barbara; Fischer, Andreas; Marotzki, Ulrike; Mentrup, Christiane; Reichel, Kathrin; Rode, Andrea; Scheffler, Judith; Späth, Almut. 2010. *Fachwörterbuch Ergotherapie: Deutsch-Englisch, Englisch-Deutsch*. Neue Reihe Ergotherapie series. Idstein: Schulz-Kirchner Verlag.
- Fiand, Ruth. 2009. *Care for you: English for Health and Social Care*. (2nd edition). Troisdorf: Bildungsverlag EINS.
- Fitzgerald, Patrick; McCullagh, Marie; Wright, Ros. 2010. *English for Medicine in Higher Education Studies: Course Book*. Series editor: Phillips, Terry. Reading: Garnet Publishing Ltd. (The book includes two audio CDs)
- Fitzgerald, Patrick; McCullagh, Marie; Wright, Ros. 2010. *English for Medicine in Higher Education Studies: Teacher's Book*. Series editor: Phillips, Terry. Reading: Garnet Publishing Ltd.
- Friedbichler, Ingrid; Friedbichler, Michael. 2007. *Fachwortschatz Medizin Englisch: Sprachtrainer & Fachwörterbuch in einem*. (2nd edition). Stuttgart: Georg Thieme Verlag. (There is also a CD-ROM available)
- Glendinning, Eric H.; Holmström, Beverly A.S.. 2005. *English in Medicine: A course in communication skills*. (3rd edition). Cambridge Professional English series. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. (There is also a CD available accompanying the book: *Audio CD*)
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Abstract English

Occupational therapists are members of the allied health professions and, as in many other fields, they use English as a Lingua Franca for accessing and conducting research as well as attending conferences etc. Medical English is therefore an important part of occupational therapy studies. This study wants to tackle the lack of guidelines for curricula and suitable teaching materials by making available useful information about planning and implementing this type of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course for practising and potential teachers. The research questions relate to the aims of teaching English for occupational therapy students and how selected Universities of Applied Sciences in Austria set up this course.

The source of data is literature on curriculum evaluation and ESP in general as well as medical English in particular. Data on their English course(s) for occupational therapy students was obtained from four universities selected for this study and from interviews with the respective teachers. Literature review, curriculum evaluation regarding selected criteria and content analysis of qualitative interviews were applied as research methods in order to answer the set questions.

The curriculum evaluation illustrated some differences among the universities, for example, regarding total hours of teaching units, workload and teacher qualification. Some similarities were found concerning course type, content and learning objectives. The most important outcome of interview content analysis was that experiences teachers make when planning and implementing their courses are very similar to findings from general ESP literature. Teachers, however, are not always aware of the field of ESP as a possible source of information. They find it difficult to compile and provide useful materials for class because there are no ready-made course books suitable for the context. One of the major challenges that teachers face in the classroom is students' different level of English proficiency which influences teaching methods, choice of materials as well as assessment. The results of the study are collected as guidelines for good practice useful for teachers in this field. These concentrate on recommendations for curricula as well as practical aspects for the teacher in the classroom.

Abstract Deutsch

Ergotherapie ist Teil der gehobenen medizinisch technischen Dienste im österreichischen Gesundheitswesen. Wie in vielen anderen Bereichen gewinnt Englisch auch hier immer mehr an Bedeutung. Beispiel hierfür ist wissenschaftliches Arbeiten bzw. die Teilnahme an internationalen Kongressen. Aus diesem Grund ist die Englisch-Lehrveranstaltung ein wichtiger Bestandteil des Ergotherapiestudiums. Die vorliegende Studie beschäftigt sich mit Richtlinien für Lehrpläne sowie Lehrbüchern für diese Zielgruppe. Das Ziel der Studie ist, hilfreiche Informationen aus dem Bereich ESP (English for Specific Purposes) für Vortragende zugänglich zu machen, um die Planung und Durchführung der Lehrveranstaltung zu unterstützen. Die Forschungsfragen konzentrieren sich auf die Ziele der Englisch-Lehrveranstaltung für Ergotherapiestudierende sowie die Frage, wie unterschiedliche österreichische Fachhochschulen diese Lehrveranstaltung aufbauen.

Die Studie stützt sich auf Daten aus der Literatur bezüglich Lehrplanevaluierung, ESP im Allgemeinen und medizinischem Englisch. Ausgewählte Informationen zur Englisch-Lehrveranstaltung wurden von vier ausgewählten österreichischen FHs erhoben. Ergänzend dazu wurden qualitative Interviews mit den Vortragenden dieser FHs durchgeführt. Die angewandten Forschungsmethoden sind Literaturarbeit, Lehrplanevaluierung bezüglich ausgewählter Kriterien sowie Inhaltsanalyse der Interviews.

Die Evaluierung der Lehrpläne an den untersuchten FHs zeigte Unterschiede im Bereich der Anzahl der Lehreinheiten, Workload sowie Qualifikation der Vortragenden. Ähnlichkeiten zeigten sich im Bereich des Lehrveranstaltungstyps, der Inhalte sowie der Lernziele. Das wichtigste Ergebnis der Inhaltsanalyse ist, dass sich Erfahrungen bei der Planung und Durchführung der Lehrveranstaltung, die von den Vortragenden beschrieben werden, sehr stark mit Ergebnissen der allgemeinen ESP Literatur decken. Jedoch ist den Vortragenden das Vorhandensein dieser Literatur nicht immer bewusst. Vortragende finden es besonders schwierig brauchbare Unterrichtsmaterialien zusammenzustellen, da es keine passenden Lehrbücher für diesen Bereich gibt. Eine der größten Herausforderungen ist das unterschiedliche Englisch-Niveau der Studierenden, welches Auswirkungen auf die Lehrmethoden, Auswahl der Unterrichtsmaterialien sowie die Beurteilung hat. Das Ergebnis der

Studie sind Empfehlungen bezüglich des Lehrplans sowie praktische Aspekte des Unterrichtens für Vortragende.

Lebenslauf

Persönliche Daten

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Studium:

2007-2013 Diplomstudium der Anglistik und Amerikanistik, Universität Wien mit Schwerpunkt Linguistik, Fachdidaktik und ESP
02-07/2012 Erasmus: Auslandssemester Adam Mickiewicz Universität, Poznań, Polen
10/2006 Diplomierung zur Ergotherapeutin
Diplomarbeitsthema: *„Die Ergotherapieausbildung als Kompass im Dschungel der Therapie neurologischer Störungsbilder: Wie sich AbsolventInnen der Wiener Akademie für den ergotherapeutischen Dienst, Österreich, und der School of Health Care Studies Cardiff, Großbritannien, auf die Therapie neuropsychologischer Störungsbilder bei Schlaganfallpatienten vorbereitet fühlen“*
2003-2006 Studium an der Akademie für den ergotherapeutischen Dienst am AKH Wien
10/2002-02/2003 Studium Humanmedizin, Universität Wien, nicht abgeschlossen

Schulbildung:

06/2002 AHS-Matura mit Ausgezeichnetem Erfolg
1994-2002 Erich Fried Realgymnasium, BRG 9, Glasergasse 25
1990-1994 Volksschule Gilgegasse, 1090 Wien

Berufserfahrung: (Auszug)

Seit 09/2009 Tätigkeit als externe Lektorin für Englisch an der FH Campus Wien, Bachelor-Studiengang Ergotherapie; Gastvorträge im Rahmen des Masterlehrgangs Ergotherapie; Übersetzungstätigkeiten für den Studiengang Ergotherapie
Seit 08/2007 Ergotherapeutin am Rehabilitationszentrum Weisser Hof der AUVA in Klosterneuburg sowie freiberufliche Tätigkeit als Ergotherapeutin in freier Praxis, zahlreiche fachspezifische Fortbildungen
07/2007 Ergotherapeutin am Ferienlager für rheumakranke Kinder des Österreichischen Jugendrotkreuzes
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- ÖSKL 11/2012 (Österreichische Studierendenkonferenz der Linguistik) in Wien
- YLMP 05/2012 (Young Linguists Meeting) in Poznań, Polen
- ÖGSD-Tagung 05/2011 (Österreichische Gesellschaft für Sprachendidaktik) in Wien
- ENOTHE-Tagung 09/2005 (European Network of Occupational Therapy in Higher Education) in Wien (Mitglied des Studentenkomitees sowie Moderation von Programmpunkten)

Sprachen:

Deutsch	Muttersprache
Englisch	C2
Italienisch, Französisch, Polnisch	Grundkenntnisse

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