

People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
University of Mustapha Stambouli- Mascara
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LECTURES ON
DICOURSE VARIATION IN PROFESSIONAL
COMMUNITIES

Master One

English for Specific Purposes

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Intitulé du Master : Anglais Langue de spécialité**Semestre : 02****Intitulé de l'UE : Fondamentales****Intitulé de la matière : Discours Variation en communautés Professionnelles****Crédits : 6****Coefficients : 3**

Objectifs de l'enseignement Le but de cette matière est de développer l'esprit critique visé à vis l'analyse des différents types de discours professionnelles chez nos étudiants et lui aider à développer l'auto réflexion.

Connaissances préalables recommandées :

Connaissances des bases de la linguistique générale et appliquée, science de l'éducation de l'analyse de discours.

Contenu de la matière :

- Grammar, text, and discourse: form and function in language use
- Functional variation in discourse: registers and genres
- Discourse practices in professional communities: genre analysis
- Genres in specific contexts: promotional, academic, legal, newspaper, & business.

Mode d'évaluation :

Examen final 50%

Control continu 50%

Références (*Livres et photocopiés, sites internet, etc*).

- Bhatia, Vijay K., (1993): *Analysing Genre --Language Use in Professional Settings*, London, Longman.
- Gee, James Paul., (2005): *An Introduction to Discourse Analysis: Theory and Method*, NY, Routledge.
- Cook, Guy, (1989): *Discourse*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
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Table of Contents

- List of Acronyms
 - Introduction
 - 1. Stages of ESP Development
 - 1.1. Introduction
 - 1.2. Register Analysis
 - 1.3. ‘Rhetorical’ or ‘Discourse Analysis’
 - 1.4. Target Situation Analysis
 - 1.5. Skills and Strategies Analysis
 - 1.6. Learners Centred Approach
 - 1.7. Stages of ESP Development Tasks
 - 1.8. References
 - 2. Genre Analysis
 - 2.1. Defining Genre
 - 2.2. Genre Analysis in ESP
 - 2.3. Approaches to Genre Analysis
 - 2.4. Steps in Analysing Genre
 - 2.5. Genre Analysis Tasks
 - 2.6. References
 - 3. Discourse Variations in Professional Communities
 - 3.1. Defining Discourse
 - 3.2. Types of Discourse
 - 3.3. Defining a Community
 - 3.4. Defining a Professional Community
 - 3.5. Types of Professional Communities
 - 3.6. Discourse Variations in Professional Communities Tasks
 - 3.7. References
 - 4. Legal English
 - 4.1. Defining Legal English
 - 4.2. Style of Legal English
 - 4.3. Self-Assessment Activities
 - 4.4. Features of Legal English
 - 4.4.1. Terms of Latin and French Origins
 - 4.4.2. Archaic Diction
 - 4.4.3. Archaic Use of the Modal ‘Shall’
 - 4.4.4. Lack of Punctuation
 - 4.4.5. Long and Complex Sentences
 - 4.4.6. Lexical Repetition or Redundancy
 - 4.4.7. Frequent Use of Doublets
 - 4.4.8. Unusual Word Order

- 4.4.9. Names Ending with -er, -or, and -ee
- 4.4.10. Legal Referencing
- 4.4.11. Phrasal Verbs
- 4.4.12. Lexical Repetition or Redundancy
- 4.4.13. Frequent Use of Doublets
- 4.4.14. Unusual Word Order
- 4.4.15. Names Ending with -er, -or, and -ee
- 4.4.16. Legal Referencing
- 4.4.17. Phrasal Verbs
- 4.5. Legal English Tasks
- 4.6. References
- 5. Business English
 - 5.1. Defining Business English
 - 5.2. Features of Business English
 - 5.2.1. At the Graphological Level
 - 5.2.1.1. Punctuation
 - 5.2.1.2. Paragraphing
 - 5.2.2. At the Lexical Level
 - 5.2.2.1. Frequent Use of Technical Terms
 - 5.2.2.2. The Use of BE Terminology Abbreviations and Acronyms
 - 5.2.2.3. Business English Terminology Standardisation
 - 5.2.2.4. Glossary
 - 5.2.3. At the Grammatical Level
 - 5.2.3.1. Frequent Use of the Present Tense
 - 5.2.3.2. Frequent Use of the Active Voice
 - 5.2.3.3. Short and Simple Sentences
 - 5.2.4. The Social Formula of Business English
 - 5.3. Business English Tasks
 - 5.4. References
- 6. English for Journalism
 - 6.1. Defining Journalism
 - 6.2. Style of English for Journalism
 - 6.3. Features of English for Journalism
 - 6.3.1. At the Graphological Level
 - 6.3.1.1. Punctuation
 - 6.3.1.2. Paragraphing
 - 6.3.2. At the Lexical Level
 - 6.3.2.1. The Use of Specialised Terminology
 - 6.3.2.2. The Use of Abbreviations and Acronyms
 - 6.3.2.3. Glossary
 - 6.3.3. At the Grammatical Level
 - 6.3.3.1. Frequent Use of the Present Tense
 - 6.3.3.2. Direct and Indirect Speech

- 6.3.3.3. Short and Simple Sentences
- 6.3.4. Headlines and Ledes in English for Journalism
 - 6.3.4.1. Headlines
 - 6.3.4.2. The lede/Lead
- 6.4. English for Journalism Tasks
- 6.5. References
- 7. English for Sciences and Technology “EST”
 - 7.1. Defining EST
 - 7.2. Style of EST
 - 7.3. Features of EST
 - 7.3.1. At the Graphological Level
 - 7.3.1.1. Punctuation
 - 7.3.1.2. Paragraphing
 - 7.3.2. At the Lexical Level
 - 7.3.2.1. Frequent Use of Technical Terms
 - 7.3.2.2. Use of Nominal Words
 - 7.3.2.3. Use of Prepositional Phrases
 - 7.3.3. At the Grammatical Level
 - 7.3.3.1. Frequent Use of the Present Tense
 - 7.3.3.2. Frequent Use of Declarative Sentences
 - 7.3.3.3. Frequent Use of the Passive Voice
 - 7.3.3.4. Frequent Use of Long and Complex Sentences
 - 7.4. English for Science and Technology Tasks
 - 7.5. References
- 8. References
- 9. Suggested List of Research Themes

List of Acronyms

BE Business English

EAP English for Academic Purposes

EBP English for Business Purposes

EFL English as a Foreign Language

EJ English for Journalism

ELT English language Teaching

EMP English for Medical Purposes

EMFE English for Management, Finance and Economics

ESP English for Specific Purposes

EOP English for Occupational Purposes

EPP English for Professional Purposes

EST English for Sciences and Technology

EVP English for Vocational Purposes

GE General English

LE Legal English

Introduction

In order to help learners understand the specialised nature of ESP and what to expect in various target settings, discourse variations in professional communities as a module will examine the meaning of genre, how to analyse genres and the specific characteristics of different professional communities. An analysis of certain sample of genres is also offered. ESP learners will be exposed to legal terminology, Business English, journalistic language, and English for Science and Technology. A combination of both theory and practise is mainly adopted.

Unit One

Stages of ESP Development

1.1. Introduction

ESP, the unplanned movement, has undergone five different phases of its development, as identified by Hutchinson and Waters (1987). In what follows, those phases are presented and discussed:

1.2. Register Analysis

The first stage of ESP development has been named 'register analysis' or as Swales (1988, p. 189) tends to label 'lexicostatistics' or 'frequency analysis' by Robinson (1991, p. 23). This latter has been associated with the grammar and vocabulary of English. According to Spolsky (1998, p. 34), register is:

A variety of language most likely to be used in a specific situation and with particular roles statuses involved. Examples might be a toast at a wedding, sports broadcast or talking to a baby. A register is marked by choices of vocabulary and other aspects of styles.

The analysis of register with a close reference to ESP revealed that materials' developers tend to examine the grammar and vocabulary of different registers, then put forward frameworks in the form of courses, syllabi, and curricula to be followed. A Course in Basic Scientific English compiled by Ewer and Latorre. (1969) is one of those courses.

In this regard, Ewer and Latorre (1969, p. 222) explain that: "In order to get a working idea of what this basic language is consisted of, a frequency analysis of English actually used by scientific writers was required." They also maintain that "In subject, it covered ten main areas of science and a large number of individual

disciplines from anatomy to volcanology.” At this level, materials’ writers focused on the words and sentence level.

Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) claim that, while there is no distinction between scientific and technical writing and GE, there is a strong emphasis on specific grammatical and lexical forms that are frequently employed. Basturkmen (2006, p. 35) extends this view by stating the example of:

Analysis of scientific and technical texts by Barber (1962/1985) which showed that the passive tense is used more frequently in such writing than in general English and identified a set of sub-technical vocabulary items that were more likely to occur.

As previously indicated, register analysis is limited to the word and sentence levels and does not extend beyond these limits. This paved the way for the emergence of a new approach known as ‘rhetorical’ or ‘discourse analysis’, which goes beyond the sentence level.

1.3. ‘Rhetorical’ or ‘Discourse Analysis’

In contrast to the preceding phase, which concentrates on the level of words and sentences, the rhetorical or discourse phase emphasises the level above the sentence. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), at this stage, ESP got closely linked with the growing area of discourse or rhetorical analysis, where the organisation of sentences to produce discourse is central to this approach. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 87), discourse analysis is defined as:

Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of the sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraph structure, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts –any texts- work.

Because “the focus was on the text rather than on the sentence, and on the writer’s purpose rather than on the form” (Robinson, 1991:24), therefore, discourse

analysis is the way in which sentences are joined to accomplish a communication act; the syllabus and the material are founded on their findings. Text-diagramming activities, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), are means for teaching students to identify textual patterns and discourse markers. The Focus Series (1977), edited by Mountford and Widdowson, and the Nucleus Series (as cited in Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998) are examples of the application of this approach.

1.4. Target Situation Analysis

In this third phase, attention is shifted to the communicative approach. It aims to enable learners to function adequately in their target situation. Hutchinson, and Waters (1987, p. 12) define target situation as: “the situation in which the learners will use the language they are learning.” At this stage, according to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP course design should identify the target situation, and conduct a rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation. These features will form the syllabus of the ESP course.

This analytical approach has been labelled ‘Target Situation Analysis’ by Chambers (1980, p. 25) who states that:

By the language I mean the language of the target situation. Thus, needs analysis should be concerned with the establishment of communicative needs and their realizations, resulting from an analysis of the communication in the target situation – what I will refer from now on as target situation analysis (TSA).

Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978) is an illustration of this approach. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Munby (1978) analysed learners' needs in terms of communication goals, the context in which a particular language would be used, oral or written means, and the learners' language skills, function, and structures.

1.5. Skills and Strategies Analysis

At its fourth phase of development, ESP underwent a radical shift as attention shifted from the surface forms of language to the cognitive processes that govern language usage; skills and strategies. Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 13) argue that: “No need to focus closely on the surface forms of the language the focus should rather be on the underlying interpretive strategies, which enable the learner to cope with the surface forms.”

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) went a step further when they linked the emphasis on skills to the concept of communicative language instruction. According to Dudley-Evans, these interests have grown and developed naturally from the ‘functional-notional material’ he has labelled. Thus, when evaluating this phase, it is noticed that: Strategy analysis aims to stress the learner's expectations for the manner in which they should learn rather than what they desire to learn.

Depending on the particular features of a particular context, there are skill priorities, i.e., a skill that is emphasised in one situation, such as reading, may be inappropriate in another situation, in this case another skill, such as writing, will be more appropriate.

In this regard, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 24) maintain that:

In many situations, especially when the medium of instruction was not English, for example in Latin America, this meant a focus on reading. In other situations it might involve a different skill, such as listening for international students embarking on academic courses in the UK.

The course titled ‘Skills for Learning’ at Malaya University, as an example focuses heavily on reading ability. At this stage, ESP has focused on the cognitive processes that involve the use of language to build learners' skills and strategies for acquiring a second or foreign language.

1.6. Learners-Centred Approach

In this last phase, ESP has shifted its attention to the learner, who is considered as the key-parameter in the ESP teaching/learning process, and whose needs, wants, and lacks are viewed as the starting point in the process of syllabus design. This latter should suit and fulfil precise purposes either for the learner's present situation or his future career.

A syllabus, in this vein, has been defined by Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 81) as: "what is to be learnt with some indication of the order in which the items should be learnt and the interpretation that is put to."

At this level, a syllabus should be designed according to the learners' needs wants and lacks. 'Needs Analysis' is a vital part in the process of materials' preparation and production in ESP.

Once materials designers and curriculum developers get a full idea about what learners want to learn, lack or need, as well as the related information including; the socio-economic and cultural context in which the language programme is designed and for whom it is implemented, it will be possible for them to set the course' objectives and determine its main content.

This process will not be achieved unless an evaluation of the learners' abilities have been taken place. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p. 26) argue that: "The concept of a learning-centred approach is outlined. This involves considering the process of learning and student motivation very fully and working out exactly what is needed to enable students to reach the end target." Therefore, the ESP learner alongside the process of needs analysis became the main core of this approach.

1.7.Stages of ESP Development Taks

Task One

The Focus Series (1977), edited by Mountford and Widdowson is an example of the application of discourse analysis as an approach. Examine the different features, including notably the grammatical and the rhetorical ones.

Task Two

Discuss the following quotation by Ewer and Latorre (1969, p. 95) who argue that:

In order to get a working idea of what this basic language consisted of, a frequency analysis of the English actually used by scientific writers was required. In subject, it covered ten main areas of science and a large number of individual disciplines from anatomy to volcanology.

Illustrate using examples.

1.8.References

- Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Chambers, F. (1980). A re-evaluation of needs analysis in ESP. *ESP Journal*, 25-33.
- Dudley-Evans, T & St John, M. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: a multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge University Press.
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Unit Two

Genre Analysis

In this unit, students will be able to:

- define genre;
- reflect upon genre analysis in ESP;
- outline the main advantages of analyzing genre;
- explain the methods of analysing genre.

Unit Two

Genre Analysis

2.1. Introduction

It is commonly known that ESP focuses on language in context. It is, therefore, essential to explore those contexts. According to Lorenzo (2005, p. 01), ESP “focuses more on teaching language in context than grammar and language structures”. It is crucial to know what people do with the language and the range of knowledge and skills that enables them to do so. (Hutchinson & Waters, 1981)

The evolution of ESP went through different stages as mentioned earlier, starting from register analysis to a learning-centred approach. Genre analysis, as it is known, rectified the shortcomings of both register and discourse analyses. This unit aims to define genre and genre analysis in preparation for the following units in which an analysis of various genres will be offered.

2.2. Defining Genre

In Latin, Genre means ‘kind’ or ‘class’. Later on, French borrowed the term. This concept has found common usage in linguistics, rhetoric, literary theory, media theory, etc. For much of its 2,000 years, genre studies have primarily had a nominological and typological purpose, as pointed out by Allen (1989). In other words, it has made it its primary mission to classify and name the various forms of literature.

According to Swales (1990, p. 58), “A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and

constrains choice of content and style". For him (Swales, 1990), a genre is a type of recognisable communication event in which language plays a substantial role in terms of its dominance and frequency. Then, it is not always easy to determine what a specific communication event is supposed to accomplish.

2.3. Genre Analysis in ESP

According to Hyland (2008, p. 4), genre is "a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations". Genre analysis, on the other hand refers to the the study of how contextual parameters, discourse structures and language interrelate. (Halliday, 1973) In this vein, genre analysis as an approach views the text as a total entity rather than a collection of unrelated units. It addressed the shortcomings of both register and discourse analysis.

In other words, genre analysis does neither seek to work at the level of the words, or sentences in isolation as in the case of register analysis nor that level above the sentence where they consider the text without taking into account the particularities of the context where it is produced in as the case of discourse analysis.

Swales (1990) introduced the term 'Genre Analysis' and related it to ESP. For him (1990, p. 7), Genre Analysis as 'a system of analysis that is able to reveal something of the patterns of organisation of a "genre" and the language used to express those patterns.'

In ESP genre analysis, according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), is concerned with the structural differences between various genres of texts. It can assist students in developing an understanding of the structure and linguistic forms common to various genres. It can also help them in recognising the significance of

works within their speech community. It is, in fact, the use of language in different professional situations.

In this case, genre analysis in ESP does not seek to prescribe as it has been done earlier but rather to describe and hence, clarify. To put it differently, an ESP learner does not learn the language in isolation from specific contexts. He needs to establish a relationship between the usage of the language and the main aim of communication. In this case, he is not only required to learn how to read and write but to go beyond and become active participant in his professional community. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), the significance of genre analysis in ESP teaching is revealed in the endeavour to combine the product, process, and communication intent into a meaningful context.

2.4. Steps in Analysing Genre

For a practical genre analysis of ESP teaching materials, the following elements should be focused on:

1. define the context;
2. outline the audience;
3. highlight the primary communicative purpose (s);
4. explore the graphological level;
5. analyse the grammatical/ syntactic level;
6. shedlight on the lexical level and outline the main features of

terminology; being purely technical, semi-technical or common one.

Adopting this framework will help ESP teachers and their learners contextualise their teaching/learning, communicate effectively in their target situation and develop an awareness of context-specific terminology.

2.5. Genre Analysis Tasks

Task One

Provide an eclectic definition of genre.

Task Two

Scholars agreed that genre analysis came to fix the main drawbacks of both register and discourse analysis. Explain.

Task Three

Outline and discuss the primary goals of studying various genres.

Task Four

Outline the main advantages and disadvantages of genre analysis in ESP.

Task Five

How does genre analysis contribute to the growth of ESP?

2.6. References

- Allen, R. (1989). *Bursting bubbles: Soap opera audiences and the limits of genre*. Routledge.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing genre: language use in professional settings*. London: Longman.
- Dudley-Evans, T., (Ed.), (1987). Genre analysis, *ELR Journal*, Vol.1, p.1.
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Unit Three

Discourse Variations in Professional Communities

In this unit, students will be able to:

- Define discourse;
- understand the types of discourse;
- define community;
- outline the types of professional communities;
- provide Examples professional communities.

3.1. Defining Discourse

The term 'Discourse' comes from Latin 'discursus'. According to Merriam-webster (2023), This term means 'exchange of ideas' and 'action of running in different directions (of the mind or a speaker). In linguistics, discourse means "the language forms that are produced and interpreted as people communicate with each other" (Celce- Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 2). According to them "A piece of discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning (e.g. words, structures, cohesion) that relate coherently to an external communicative function or purpose and a given-audience/interlocutor." (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 4).

3.2. Types of Discourse

As it has been mentioned above, discourse is regarded as a combination of all forms of communication, whether written or oral. Traditionally speaking, there are four distinct types of discourse: argumentation, narration, description, and exposition. Speakers and writers, often combine two or more types simultaneously. This is mainly done to suit different contexts and to fulfil specific communicative purposes. As a matter of fact, each specific type has its own features. The following table is offered to have insights on the different types alongside their main purposes.

Table1:

Types of Purposes of Discourse.

Types of Discourse	Purpose of the Type of Discourse
description	Describes the topic and assist the audience in visualising this topic.
Narration	Aims to communicate a story via a narrator, who typically describes an event.
Exposition	Provides the audience with background information in a reasonably unbiased and neutral manner.
Argumentation	Aims to persuade and convince the audience of an idea or a statement.

3.3. Defining a Community

The idea of community can be interpreted in a variety of different ways. Community as a concept can be found in different disciplines. It can be used to refer to organisations, institutions or simply a group of people belonging or sharing specific characteristics including language, religion, ethnicity, geography, work, interests, etc.

In Latin, community refers to ‘fellowship’ or a group of people with common characteristics or interests living together within a larger society. Joining this idea, Lee (1992, p. 13) defines community “as a group of people who have something in common”.

Patrick and Wickizer (1995) define the following three sorts of community: community as a location, as a social interaction, and as a political and social

responsibility. In the first category, community members reside in the same geographic region. In the second category, social support is essential for its members. In the third category, community groups are frequently formed in response to a political or social imperative.

Other types of communities can be summarized as follows:

- Communities of Interests where members share the same interest or passion.
- Communities of Actions where members attempt to effect change.
- Communities of Circumstances where members are brought together by external circumstances or events.
- Communities of Practices where members share the same profession or activities.

As far as this module is concerned, this last type is regarded as our main concern.

3.4. Defining Professional Community

According to Goode (1957, p. 01), “each profession is a community without physical locus and, like other communities with heavy in-migration, one whose founding fathers are linked only rarely by blood with the present generation”. Yet, he believes that it can still be considered a community on the basis of the characteristics listed below:

1. Its members are bound by a sense of identity.
2. Once in it, few leave, so that it is a terminal or continuing status for the most part.
3. Its members share values in common.
4. Its role definitions vis-a-vis both members and non-members are agreed upon and are the same for all members.
5. Within the areas of communal action there is a common language, which is understood only partially by outsiders.
6. The Community has power over its members.

7. Its limits are reasonably clear, though they are not physical and geographical, but social.

8. Though it does not produce the next generation biologically, it does so socially through its control over the selection of professional trainees, and through its training processes it sends these recruits through an adult socialization process. Of course, professions vary in the degree to which they are communities, and it is not novel to view them as such.

To sum up, it can be stated that members of the professional community often share the same values, beliefs and language that is partially understood by the outsiders. This latter is our main focus in this module, i.e., to explore the different characteristics of different types of language used in various professional communities.

3.4. Types of Professional Communities

Outline the different professional communities cited in the paper of Goode (1957). Discuss the main features of each professional community.

3.5. Discourse Variation in Professional Communities Tasks

Task One

Discourse analysis is the examination of language use by members of a speech community. Discuss

Task Two

Outline at least two different professional communities and discuss the similarities and differences, if any.

Task Three

Read again the paper entitled “Community within a Community: the Professions.” Provide your feedback.

3.6. References

- Celce- Murcia, M & Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: a guide for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Goode, W. J. (1957). Community within a community: the professions. *American Sociological Review*, 22(2), 194–200. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2088857>
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Unit Four

LEGAL ENGLISH

In this unit, students will be able to:

- Define Legal English;
- understand the specific characteristics of Legal English;
- provide Examples of the Legal terminology;
- read authentic documents;
- contextualise their understanding.

4. Legal English

4.1. Defining Legal English

Mellinkoff (1963, p. 3) defines legal language as “the customary language used by lawyers in those common law jurisdictions where English is the official language. It includes distinctive words, meanings, phrases, and modes of expression.” It is the language used in the legal context. Due to globalisation, both the English language and the legal language are regarded as global phenomena. English is considered today to be the key to knowledge, science, and international business. It also gains a vital role in the European Union as the legal language.

In other words, Legal English is the style of English that is used by lawyers and court members besides legal professionals. It has particular relevance when applied to legal writing and the drafting of written materials, such as:

- legal documents (contracts, licenses, etc.);
- court pleadings (summons, briefs, judgments, etc.);
- laws (Acts of Parliament and subordinate legislation, case reports);
- legal correspondence.

Legal English encompasses a number of uncommon features which are mainly related to linguistic structure, terminology, punctuation, etc. To meet this end, the style of legal English, besides its main features, are discussed below.

4.2. Style of Legal English

During the medieval era, and to avoid misunderstanding, lawyers used a combination of Latin, French and English. They often used a mixture of words from those different languages. According to Crystal (1969), the use of pairs of words is mainly done to avoid ambiguity. This latter becomes a stylistic habit that continues

to exist today. The table below offers a set of examples of doublets using different languages:

Table4.1.

Legal Doublets

English/ Latin	English/ French	English/ English
will and testament	fit and proper	let and hindrance
	breaking and entering	have and hold

According to scholars, Modern English vocabulary is mainly derived from different origins including primarily Germanic, French and Latin ones. Joining this idea, it has been noticed that the use of words from different languages has led to a very formal style of legal English.

4.3. Self-Assessment Activities

a. Discuss the contribution of Latin in the development of Legal English. Illustrate using examples.

b. To what extent do you agree with the following statement: “Both English language and Legal language are considered as global phenomena” ?

4.4. Features of Legal English

Legal English is a type of English that is relatively simple for those who are familiar with, but challenging for others. In other words, legal language is distinguished by distinct language features and, thus, distinct terminology. Among the characteristics are:

4.4.1. Terms of Latin and French Origins

The presence of Latinisms, i.e., Latin terms in the Legal English lexis, is one of the numerous distinguishing characteristics of this type of English. In this regard, Alcaraz and Hughes (2002) ascribe the prevalence of such phrases to a number of causes, which are discussed in the following lines.

In the first place, it was almost impossible for legal English to escape the influence of Latin, which was supported by the dominance of the Roman church over Europe at that time, as well as its widespread usage as a language of learning and literature. In addition to the enormous power of Roman law, which was a coherent written system, it also possessed the institutional strength to partly control Europe. Here are some frequent Latin phrases and words:

Table 4.2.

Latin Terms and their Meaning in Legal English adapted from Zariski (2014)

Latin Term	Meaning
ex parte	without notice
mandamus	required to act
mens rea	intent to do something
pro se	acting without a lawyer

Similarly to Latinisms, the existence of French legal terminology in the English legal language is evident. In this vein, scholars including Crystal and Davy (1969) explain that after the Norman Conquest of England in 1066, the conquerors' language assumed an unquestionable place in the English legal system, bringing with it a richness of legal French vocabulary. As an example, the terms displayed in the table below were originally French:

Table 4.3.

French Terms and their Meaning in Legal English adapted from Zariski (2014)

French Term	Meaning
estate	property left at death or type of landholding
mortgage	creditor's claim to land of the debtor
venue	place of trial of a legal case
voir dire	questioning someone before proceeding with a trial

4.4.2. Archaic Diction

Legal English terminology is primarily composed of archaic legal words. This sense of archaism is intentional and not accidental. There are causes for the dominance of archaic terminology. According to Tiersma (1999, p. 95), “legal language often strives toward great formality, it naturally gravitates towards archaic language”. To put it differently, archaisms impart a formal flavour to the language to which they belong. This fact explains why most lawyers insist on using archaic concepts while neglecting contemporary ones.

Table4.4.

Archaic Terms and their Meaning adapted from <https://www.pco.govt.nz/8.10>

Archaic Term	Its meaning
grievous	hurtful / serious
hither	here
latter-day	recent
nought	nothing

4.4.3. Archaic Use of the Modal ‘Shall’

In legal English, The modal shall cause a degree of difficulty in both the interpretation and translation of phrases including it. According to Tiersma (1999), the modal shall, in a legal context, does not express a future action, but it conveys an obligation or duty. Consider the following examples taken from a sample lease agreement (2023, p. 2) :

- UTILITIES. Tenant shall be responsible for arranging for and paying for all utility services required on the Premises.
- MODIFICATION. The parties agree that this document contains the entire agreement between the parties and this Agreement shall not be modified, changed, altered or amended in any way except through a written amendment signed by all of the parties hereto.

4.4.4. Lack of Punctuation

Another feature related mainly to archaisms is the total absence of punctuation. This latter is regarded as a characteristic of archaic legal writing. This results from a popular belief among legal professionals that punctuation is unclear and insignificant and that the meaning of legal papers should be determined solely by the words used and the context in which they are used. In contemporary legal writing, punctuation is utilised to clarify meaning. The following excerpt taken from Bruno-Lindner(2021: 23) is an illustration:

The Corporation shall keep as permanent records minutes of all meetings of its shareholders and directors a record of all action taken by the shareholders or the directors without a meeting, and a record of all actions taken by a committee of the directors in place of the Board of Directors on behalf of the Corporation.

4.4.5. Long and Complex Sentences

The lack of punctuation often leads to the use of very long and complex sentences. As it has been said earlier, punctuation in legal drafting is believed to be a second value and hence not crucial for the draftsmen to use. Yet, if needed, the full-stop remains more or less the only employed to mark the end of a sentence. (Mellinkoff, 1963) This could be perceived as the main reason for having very long sentences with complex structures. In the example offered by Bruno-Lindner (2021: 23), a four lines sentence is used, as follows:

The Corporation, or its agent, shall maintain a record of its shareholders in a form that permits preparation of a list of the names and addresses of all shareholders, in alphabetical order, by class of shares, showing the number and class of shares held by each.

4.4.6. Highly Impersonal Style of Writing

In legal drafting and especially in legislative one, objectivity and authority are the key concepts. Passive voice alongside third person singular and plural are mainly used to show the impersonal style of the legal documents besides the notion of objectivity and authority those documents carry. (Ridger, 2015)

- When expressing a duty, the sentence must start with ‘every person’, ‘everyone’, etc.,
- when expressing a prohibition, the sentence must start with ‘no person’, ‘no one’, etc.

E.g. -*No one* may be subjected to slavery, servitude or forced labour.

-*Everyone* has the right of access to – (a) any information held by the state; and (b) any information that is held by another person and that is required for the exercise or protection of any rights.

4.4.7. Lexical Repetition or Redundancy

In legal drafting, personal pronouns such as: he, she, it, etc., and demonstrative pronouns such as: this, that, etc., should not be used. Legal English, as a matter of fact, insists on repeating words and even whole clauses. This could be explained by the fact that LE is highly concerned with the precision and exactness of reference. These latter cannot be achieved without lexical repetition.

4.4.8. Frequent Use of Doublets

A common feature of legal English is the widespread use of collocations in which synonyms or near-synonyms are joined in pair 'doublets'. Alcaraz and Hughes (2004) argue that those doublets can be nouns, verbs, adjectives, or prepositions. As an example, we may state the following: 'Have and hold', 'Fit and proper', 'accord and satisfaction', etc.

Nevertheless, special attention should be given to those doublets, as sometimes the terms used signify exactly the same thing as in the case of the doublet 'null and void', and sometimes they do not; they carry different meanings or even the opposite, as in: 'dispute, controversy or claim'.

4.4.9. Unusual Word Order

Another common feature in legal drafting is the word order, that is viewed to be uncommon. In this regard, Ridger (2015, p. 5) explains that:

Some writers also started to use a Latin word order. This led to an ornate style, deliberately used to impress rather than inform. Even today, Latin grammar responsible for some of the ornateness and unusual word order of legal documents.

4.4.10. Names Ending with -er, -or, and -ee

The influence of Latin is not only limited to the use of Latin words but goes beyond to reach the use of names that end with er, or ee, that reflect the reciprocal and opposite nature of the relationship. In other words, Legal English comprises various names and titles, such as employer and employee or lessor and lessee. Ridger (2015) Those various ends determine the nature of the existing relationship. This latter is mainly originated from Latin.

4.4.11. Legal Referencing

In General English, adverbs such as: therein, thereof, herein, hereof, etc., are not often used. Yet, in legal English, they are often employed as a legal referencing. In this vein, Wyat (2006,p.46) maintains that:

Contracts, formal letters and other legal documents frequently contain 'reference' words that are not often used in other areas of English. These words refer to time, place, result, etc, in connection with the documents they appear in.

4.4.12. Phrasal Verbs

In legal English, Phrasal verbs serve a vital role. They are frequently employed to convey a semi-technical meaning. For further explanation, Ridger (2015, p. 6) argues that phrasal verbs: "these combinations must be learned individually because they involve using a verb with a preposition or adverb or both; and, prepositions do not follow clear grammatical rules". For example, you put down a deposit, and you enter into a contract.

4.4.13. Unfamiliar Pro-forms

Another interesting feature in legal English is the use of terms such as: 'the same, the said, the aforementioned, etc'. These latter are not used to replace the

noun but to modify the ‘noun’; they are infact considered ‘adjectives’. E.g. the said Tom Rodgers.

4.4.14. Unusual Use of the Words ‘the same’, ‘such’ and ‘said’

Words such as ‘the same, such and said’ differ in their meaning depending on the context used. Tiersma (1999) argues that using such terms in legal language differs significantly from their use in General English. In GE context, the term ‘same’ refers to a comparison to a similar thing or person; but in legal contexts, it relates to the sameness of reference.

e.g. The tenant shall pay all the taxes regularly levied and assessed against Premises and keep the same in repair.

In this instance, ‘the same’ refers to ‘Premises’. Similarly, Tiersma (1999, p. 91) believes that “the pronoun ‘it’ might be used in place of ‘the same’. Also, ‘such’ typically refers to ‘that kind’ or ‘this kind’.” Observe its use in a legal context:

e.g. We conclude that the trial court’s order constituted an abuse of discretion in the procedural posture of this case which compels us to set aside such order.

The phrase ‘such order’ refers to ‘this order.’ Thus, in this context, ‘Such’ serves the role of the demonstrative pronoun ‘this’.

According to Sabra (1995) and regarding its purpose in legal writing, the word ‘said’ serves as an article or demonstrative pronoun ‘this’. To explain this, consider the following example taken from (Tiersma, 1999, p. 91):

Lessee promises to pay a deposit. Said deposit shall accrue interest at a rate of five percent per annum.

After a careful examination, it can be noticed that there is no loss of meaning, if the word 'said' is replaced by the article 'the' or the demonstrative pronoun 'this'.

4.4.15. Legal English as a Technical Language

As It has already been mentioned, legal terminology is mainly borrowed from Latin and French. In addition, it is characterised by the use of archaic terms. To move further, one may say that besides those outlined features of legal terminology, we may also find the use of specific terms, either used exclusively in the legal context or shared with other contexts. In this vein, According to Tiersma (1999, p. 108)

if a word or a phrase is used exclusively by a particular trade or profession or if that profession uses it in a way that differs from its normal meaning and the term has a relatively well-defined sense, it should be considered a technical term.

In other words, a term is considered entirely technical if it is exclusive to a single subject and is not shared with other fields. Nonetheless, a term is considered to be semi-technical if it has several meanings depending on the context in which it is employed. Another division is mainly devoted to terms used in any situation and do not affect their meaning; these are known as common terms. This classification has been offered by Alcaraz and Hughes (2002).

Table 4.5.

Legal Terminology Classification. Adopted from Alcaraz and Hughes (2002)

Purely Technical Terms	Semi-Technical Terms	Common Terms
Decree	Consideration	the
Tenant	Construction	after
Lease	hold	exactness
Waiver	find	Frequently

To sum up, it can be stated that the most prominent features of written legal English have been highlighted, including notably the length and complexity of sentences, the dominance of Latinisms and archaisms besides those monosenic terms, and the tendency toward repetition (Bhatia, 1993). For ages, people have believed these aspects serve an exclusive purpose by solidifying the lawyers' privileged position in society and preserving their language, both spoken and written, from the outsiders.

4.5. Legal English Tasks

Task One Legal Latin (adopted from Wyat 2006, p. 45) Check your English Vocabulary for Law.

Latin words and expressions are still relatively common in the legal profession. How many of the meanings on the left can you match with the expressions on the right?

Meaning	Lgal Latin Term
1. By the operation of the law.	ab initio
2. Caught in the act of committing a crime.	actus reus
3. On the face of it, or as things seem at first.	ad litem
4. A gift (usually money) with no obligations attached.	bona fide(s)
5. Starting again.	bona vacantia
6. On its own, or all alone.	consensus ad idem
7. The right to be heard in a court.	corpus delicti
8. Among / In addition to other things.	de facto
9. A legal action or application pursued by one party only.	de jure
10. After the event.	de novo
11. Equally, or with no distinction.	doli capax
12. An act, such as murder, which is a crime in itself.	doli incapax
13. When a threat is implied in a contract, and as a result the contract is invalid.	ex gratia
14. A legal remedy against wrongful imprisonment.	ex parte
15. Taken as a matter of fact, even though the legal status may not be certain.	ex post facto
	habeas corpus
	in flagrante delicto

16. For a short time.	<i>in loco parentis</i>
17. Legal action against a person (for example, one party in a case claims that the other should do some act or pay damages).	<i>in personam</i> <i>in rem</i> <i>inter alia</i> <i>in terrorem</i>
18. By this fact, or the fact itself shows this to be true.	<i>ipso facto</i>
19. Acting in place of a parent.	<i>ipso jure</i>
20. A matter on which a judgement has been given.	<i>locus standi</i>
21. A decision correctly made by a court, which can be used as a precedent.	<i>mala in se</i> <i>mala prohibita</i>
22. Capable of committing a crime.	<i>mens rea</i>
23. The duty to prove that what has been alleged in court is true.	<i>non compos mentis</i> <i>onus probandi</i>
24. In total good faith, a state which should exist between parties to some types of legal relationship.	<i>pari passu</i> <i>per curiam</i>
25. A real agreement to a contract by both parties.	<i>per se</i>
26. A situation where the legal title is clear.	<i>prima facie</i>
27. Referring to the case at law.	<i>pro tempore</i>
28. Mad, or not completely sane.	<i>quid pro quo</i>
29. With no owner, or no obvious owner.	<i>res judicata</i>
30. The mental state required to be guilty of committing a crime.	<i>uberrimae fidei</i> <i>ultra vires</i>
31. An action done in return for something done or promised.	
32. From the beginning.	

<p>33. Legal action against a thing (for example, one party claims property or goods in the possession of another).</p> <p>34. An act forbidden by criminal law.</p> <p>35. Not capable of committing a crime.</p> <p>36. The real proof that a crime has been committed.</p> <p>37. An act which is not a crime, but is forbidden.</p> <p>38. In good faith.</p> <p>39. Acting in a way which exceeds your legal powers.</p>	
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Task Two: Legal English Terminology Adopted from Law Branches onestopenglish. Match the branches of law from Handout 1 to the definitions below. The first one is done for you.

<p>a. Civil law</p> <p>b. Constitutional law</p> <p>c. Criminal law</p> <p>d. Law of tort</p> <p>e. Law of contract</p> <p>f. Land law</p> <p>g. International law</p> <p>h. Family law</p> <p>i. Legal history</p> <p>j. Sentencing & the penal system</p>	<p>k. Criminal procedure & criminal evidence</p> <p>l. European Union law</p> <p>m. Commercial law</p> <p>n. Labour law</p> <p>o. Intellectual property</p> <p>p. Company law</p> <p>q. Conflict of laws</p> <p>r. Comparative law</p> <p>s. Jurisprudence</p>
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H The branch of law relating to family matters and domestic relations. It deals with areas such as marriage and divorce, child custody, child/spousal abuse, adoption and alimony.

_____ (US: corporate or corporations law). An area of law which concerns the creation and regulation of businesses organized as companies or corporations. It also deals with topics such as shareholders, directors and management, responsibilities and mergers.

_____ The study of the prosecution (punishment) of offenders (individuals who have committed illegal acts against other individuals or the state).

_____ The area of law which deals with civil wrongs which are independent of contract, such as negligence, defective products and libel. It deals with liability (i.e. who has committed the wrong) and the damages (money) that are paid to the person or people who have suffered as a result.

_____ The theory and philosophy of law; the consideration of themes such as natural law and theories of justice.

_____ Also known as penal law, this branch is distinguished from civil law. It relates to illegal acts committed against individuals and the state.

_____ The study of the differences and similarities between different legal systems (i.e. the law systems of different countries).

_____ This term is actually short for public international law (distinguished from private international law). It is the body of law that regulates the international activities of states, international organizations and multinational corporations. This branch of law covers areas such as territory, treaties and human rights.

_____ The area of law relating to the employment of workers. It encompasses issues such as contracts, conditions of work, trade unions, discrimination, redundancy and wrongful dismissal. This branch is sometimes called industrial law.

_____ The branch of civil law that relates to legally binding agreements.

_____ A branch of law which deals with issues such as copyright, patents, trademarks and the registration, ownership and protection of intangible but potentially lucrative ideas.

_____ Usually, the study of the origins of a particular legal system (for example the British legal system) and the constantly changing institutions, principles and ideas relating to it.

_____ Also called private international law or international private law. This is the branch of law that covers private international disputes in which it is often unclear who has jurisdiction (legal authority), where a trial should be held (the venue) and whose laws should be applied in order to reach a judgement.

_____ The study of the foundational laws that determine a state's constitution. This branch of law deals with the legal relationships between the various bodies of a government and also their relationship with the individual.

_____ This branch of law is distinguished from criminal law. It refers to the area of law that deals with relations between private individuals (for example wills, contractual disputes and torts such as negligence and libel).

_____ The study of the objectives and implementation of the system of internal laws between member states from the European continent. This subject also

examines the relevant institutions such as the European Council and the European Parliament.

_____ (Also called business law). This is not a distinct branch of law in the English legal system. It is a general term which includes various aspects of different branches of law such as the law of contract and of property, which are relevant to business and commerce.

_____ The area of law that deals with ownership of property.

_____ The area of law which regulates the way in which legal proceedings are conducted in criminal cases. It deals with issues such as police powers (interrogation of suspects, decision to prosecute, etc.), confessions, criminal rights, criminal trials, the function of judge and jury, witnesses, verdicts and appeals.

Task Three: Legal Referencing (adopted from Wyatt 2006: 46)

Complete sentences 1 – 14 with appropriate words from the box. To help you, each sentence is followed by an explanation in italics of the function of the missing word.

aforementioned	hereafter	hereby	herein	hereinafter	hereof	hereto
(x2) heretofore	hereunder	herewith	thereafter	therein	thereinafter	thereinbefore

1. We are somewhat confused, as the contract we received named the company as The Sophos Partnership in the first paragraph, but _____ as Sophos Ltd. (listed or mentioned afterwards in the document)

2. Could you explain why the interest rate is quoted as 17% on the final page of the agreement you sent us, but as 15% _____. (listed or mentioned earlier in a document)

3. He was present when the exchange took place, and has been summoned as witness _____. (of this event / fact)

4. For more information, see the documents listed _____. (below this heading or phrase)

5. All parties are expected to comply with the conditions stated _____, unless a formal application is made to do otherwise. (in this document)

6. Final delivery of the merchandise is to be made no later than the dates listed _____. (relating or belonging to this document)

7. The copyright for this book will _____ be in the name of the author, Archibald Thrupp. (from this time on)

8. According to the schedule of payments attached _____, invoices must be submitted at the end of each month. (to this document)

9. You are advised to refer to the previous contract, and the terms and conditions cited _____. (in that document)

10. The accused is to report to his probationer twice a week for the first month, and _____ once a week for the next five months. (after that)

11. The parties _____ acting as trustees are to be consulted regularly. (previously, earlier or before now)

12. Thank you for the prompt despatch of our goods. Please find a cheque enclosed _____. (together with this letter or document)

13. This agreement is made on 1 April 2007 between Blueberry Press (_____ called the PUBLISHER), and Michael Halmsworth (_____ called the AUTHOR). (stated later in this document: the same word should be used to complete both gaps)

14. Mr Harrison has failed to comply with the terms set out in his contract, and we _____ revoke the contract. (as a result or in this way)

15. The _____ company was awarded the contract under certain conditions. (mentioned earlier)

Task Four: Legal English Text Cambridge assesement (adopted from, Bruno-Lindner, 2021, p. 23)

Read the text carefully and discuss the different features of legal English.

The power to alter, amend or repeal the bylaws or to adopt new bylaws shall be vested in the Board of Directors; provided, however, that any bylaw or amendment thereto as adopted by the Board of Directors may be altered, amended or repealed by a vote of the shareholders entitled to vote for the election of directors, or a new bylaw in lieu thereof may be adopted by vote of such shareholders. No bylaw which has been altered, amended or adopted by such a vote of the shareholders may be altered, amended or repealed by vote of the directors until two years shall have expired since such action by vote of such shareholders. [...]

The Corporation shall keep as permanent records minutes of all meetings of its shareholders and directors, a record of all action taken by the shareholders or the

directors without a meeting, and a record of all actions taken by a committee of the directors in place of the Board of Directors on behalf of the Corporation. The Corporation shall also maintain appropriate accounting records.

The Corporation, or its agent, shall maintain a record of its shareholders in a form that permits preparation of a list of the names and addresses of all shareholders, in alphabetical order, by class of shares, showing the number and class of shares held by each.

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UNIT FIVE

Business English

In this unit, students will be able to:

- Define Business English;
- understand the specific characteristics of Business English;
- provide Examples of the Business terminology;
- read authentic documents;
- contextualise their understanding.

5. Business English

In the light of globalisation, Business English has established itself as the dominant tool of global business communication. Business English, in this case, can be found either at tertiary level institutions where it is perceived to belong to EAP a subdivision of ESP, or in different situations where business is mainly practised, then, it is believed to belong to EOP another subdivision of ESP. This latter is mainly related to the professional context where English is practised.

5.1. Defining Business English

In this unit, another genre of English related to business is tackled. This latter is mainly entitled Business English, or BE for short. Business English is not only related to the kind of terminology used for business purposes in trade, finance, commerce, etc., but it goes beyond to reach other dimensions, including notably communication skills used in negotiations, advertising, meetings, branding, and other contexts.

According to Pickett (1989, p. 05) “BE is a technical language defined by the activity, occupation subject and situation”. Even while most linguists would use the term ‘register’, he labels it ‘ergolect’. The new term he coined refers to the English language used in business, a work language. An ergolect, he says, “operates at the level of lexis and the level of transaction, hardly at all at the level of grammar” (1989, p. 11).

Business English is distinguished by several distinctive characteristics relating mainly to grammatical structure, terminology, etc. To achieve this objective, the style of business English, as well as its key characteristics, are explored below.

5.2. Features of Business English

The features of Business English will be discussed in the following lines. The first level of analysis is devoted to the graphological one.

5.2.1. At the Graphological Level

5.2.1.1. Punctuation

To ensure a better organisation of sentence structures and hence a better understanding of text meaning, punctuation is used. In Business documents, punctuation is highly beneficial for readers. The comma, the full stop, the question mark, besides the quotation marks, colon and parentheses are frequently used, according to Hogan (2023).

The overuse of punctuation is not a welcome idea in Business English. This latter may cause a misunderstanding rather than clarifying and organizing the meaning. In this case, punctuation marks such as the exclamation mark, the hyphen, the ellipses, slashes, and semicolons are less used.

Table 5.1.

Punctuation Use in Business Writing (adopted from CBIU, 2023)

PUNCTUATION MARK	WHEN TO USE IT	EXAMPLE(S)
Period	End of a sentence	The risk was minimal.
Comma	Between words in a list (with Oxford/serial comma) Before or after extra information	She thanked her auditors, her parents, and Oprah Winfrey. When used correctly,

	<p>Around additional, important information within a sentence</p>	<p>commas can help improve your writing and your reader's ability to understand your thoughts.</p> <p>George, who taught accounting for 30 years, delivered the keynote presentation.</p> <p>NOTE: no commas are needed if the information is necessary. Ex: The book that John borrowed is back on your bookshelf</p>
Question mark	End of sentence that is a question	How did you calculate the total sales loss?
<p>Quotation marks</p> <p>Always need two:</p> <p>“...”</p>	<p>To refer to a specific phrase.</p> <p>To cite specific information from a person or outside source.</p>	<p>At the company, we refer to this method as the “hands-on approach.”</p> <p>To cite specific information from a person or outside source.</p> <p>The professor asked, “Where is Jessica?”</p>
Brackets	To add information to quoted	“I graduated from the

<p>Always need two: [...]</p>	<p>material.</p>	<p>University of Illinois [in Urbana-Champaign] with a master's degree in accountancy.”</p>
<p>Parentheses Always need two: (...)</p>	<p>To add information that is not necessary to a sentence/statement; this information could clarify or Contrast.</p>	<p>Costs have increased 17% over the past five years (see Appendix C).</p>

5.2.1.2. Paragraphing

In Business English, sentences are often short, precise and concise. “Business documents, such as letters, emails, memorandums and reports, use paragraphs to separate different types of information, arguments and ideas. Paragraphs written in business format are structured in a formal, professional and well-organized manner.” Tingum (2023, p. 01). They are short, too. To help better structure the paragraphs, topic sentences are often used.

For effective paragraphs transitions and to ensure that the reader understands the connection between ideas, the following terms can be used:

Table 5.2.

Business Communication Transition Terms (adopted from Cruthers (2019: 79))

Chronology	before, next, earlier, later, during, after, meanwhile, while, until, then, first, second.
Comparison	also, similarly, likewise, in the same way, in the same manner.
Contrast	however, but, in contrast, still, yet, nevertheless, even though, although.
Clarity	for example, for instance, in other words.
Continuation	and, also, moreover, additionally, furthermore, another, too.
Consequence	as a result, therefore, for this reason, thus, consequently.
Conclusion	in conclusion, in summary, to sum up.

5.2.2. At the Lexical Level

5.2.2.1. Frequent Use of Technical Terms

Sharing the view of Sager et al. (1980, p. 230), as cited in Pierini (2015, p. 115), “the lexicon of special languages is their most obvious distinguishing characteristic”. Among the specific characteristics of Business English is the use of specific terminology related to business and commerce. In this regard, Aurner (1940, p. 15) defines BE vocabulary as “that wide, inclusive, vigorous, and sometimes technical group of English words used for the purpose of making business operations efficient and successful”

In this regard, understanding and using appropriately the Business English terminology is regarded as the first step in successful business communication. Understanding terms such as branding, interests, rates, liquid, etc are of paramount importance.

Purely Technical Terms: ‘Affiliate marketing’ reflects a retailer or service provider advertising its goods or services via a third party in return for a commission on any sales. ‘loan’ means an amount of money that a person borrows, especially from a bank.

Semi-Technical Terms: terms such as: ‘capital’ denotes money invested into a company or project by its owners, ‘move’ in Business English means ‘suggest’, ‘table the discussion’ means ‘to postpone the meeting’, etc.

5.2.2.2. The Use of BE Terminology Abbreviations and Acronyms

One of the specific features of business English terminology is the use of acronyms and abbreviations are. Terms such as: B2B: Business to Business, B2C: Business to Consumer, NI: National Income, CWO: Cash with Order, etc are frequently used.

5.2.2.3. Business English Terminology Standardisation

Another common feature of BE terminology is using more formal and standard terms than in the GE. According to Yanxin (2015, p. 30)

Simplistic prepositions and adverbs in spoken English, such as “because, about, if, like, for, etc” will be substituted by some more formal ones, such as: “on the grounds that, in the event/ case of, for the purpose of”. Verbs phrases are commonly used in spoken language, such as: “go on, add to” will be replaced by “ continue, supplement”. In the Business English writing, it usually uses more formal words, for example, we use “purchase” not “buy”; we usually use “commence”, not “begin”; we use “inform, not “tell”, etc.

Selecting formal terms is mainly because successful business communication can onmy be achieved with the use of more formal and standar terms. “Some formal and less common words are used in the commercial contracts in order that the contracts are more standardised. We usually use “expiry” but not “end”, use “certify” but not “prove”.” (Yanxin, 2015, p. 31)

5.2.2.4. Glossary

BE students need develop their glossaries to help them better memorise and later on practise Business Terms. To meet this end, the following glossary adopted from onestopenglish, related to terms needed while opening a bank account is suggested: <https://www.onestopenglish.com/download?ac=19996>

- residency (noun, uncountable) the legal right to live in a country that is not your own
- tenant (noun, countable) someone who rents a flat, house, etc from the person who owns it
- joint (adjective) involving two or more people, or done by them together
- bank statement (noun, countable) a document that shows all the money that went into or out of your bank account during a particular period of time

- tenancy agreement (noun, countable) a contract which shows the conditions under which someone rents a flat, house, etc from the person who owns it
- utility bill (noun, countable) a document which shows how much money a person owes for public services such as gas, electricity or water
- council tax (noun, uncountable, British English) a tax that you pay to your local council for services such as schools and libraries, based on the value of your house or flat
- rate (noun, countable) the percentage which the bank charges you for money that you borrow (or pays you for the money you save with them)
- loan (noun, countable) an amount of money that a person borrows, especially from a bank
- credit history (noun, countable) a record of how someone has paid back what they owed in the past, used as a way of deciding whether to lend them money

5.2.3. At the Grammatical Level

5.2.3.1. Frequent use of the present tense

In Business English, the present tense is regarded as the dominant tense. This latter could be explained by the fact that in business writing and hence, correspondence, the present tense is employed instead of the past to maintain freshness of ideas. It is also used to “make the statement as vivid as talking face to face”. (Yanxin, 2015, p. 33)

5.2.3.2. Frequent Use of the Active voice

According to scholars, the active voice dominates the Business English style. Nevertheless, if the passive voice is employed it seeks to maintain politeness. E.g.

The offer has to be made before next Friday instead of you have to make an offer before next Friday.

Another important remark is the use of the pronoun ‘they’ to refer to a ‘company’. E.g. They (a company) is well known for its fast shipment.

5.2.3.3. Short and Simple Sentences

Short and simple sentences are considered as the two prominent features of Business English. To avoid misunderstanding, the sentences should be short, clear, precise and concise. Avoiding the use of long sentences is considered as a strategy in Business documents. For the sake of exactness, time and place must be shown, especially in Business contracts. E.g. Goods will be received in Manchester, on May 20th, 2023.

5.2.4. The Social Formula of Business English

As it has already been mentioned and stressed on throughout this unit, Business English is used to facilitate communication between different members worldwide. To meet this end, a number of suggested expressions are used, including the following expressions adapted from (Yanxin, 2015, p. 35)

Table 5.3.

The Social Formula of Business English (Yanxin, 2015, p. 35)

To Express Appreciation	<p>Thank you for your order</p> <p>We shall appreciate you..</p> <p>It gives us a great pleasure to acknowledge receipt of..</p> <p>We should be grateful if you could...</p>
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	Thank you again on behalf of us all
To Express Apology	Please excuse It is with great regret that we learn... I owe you an apology . Please accept our many apologies for....
To Request an Appointment	Would you be free to meet at... Would it be convenient to you to... If it is not convenient to you, please suggest another time.
The invitation	We would like (cordially) invite. To come to... during... We have a great pleasure in extending our warmest invitation to... to visit..... during... It is our great pleasure to invite and warmly welcome a delegation from... to visit...
Others	Please quote us the lowest price. Be subject to one's confirmation. We arrange to open an L/C. Give sb. An offer for something.

To summarise, it can be said that the most notable characteristics of Business English have been emphasised. These characteristics include, most notably, the use of simple and short sentences, the dominance of the active voice, as well as the utilisation of a number of social formulas to facilitate communication between people from various parts of the world.

5.3. Business English Tasks

Task One

Describe the use of words in Business English. Illustrate using examples.

Task Two

Here are some words and expressions adopted from OnestopEnglish that were used in the dialogue. Match them to the definitions.

<https://www.onestopenglish.com/download?ac=7781>

1. to hold a meeting	a. to start to realize that a product exists
2. to sit in on a meeting	b. to have something in front of you that you have to react to or deal with
3. distinctive	c. where customers have a chance to try a product or buy it at a special price
4. at random	d. to organize a meeting at an arranged time
5. to become aware of (a product)	e. to attend a meeting to listen and learn from it, but not necessarily participate
6. to build awareness of (a product)	f. without a particular method, pattern or purpose
7. in-store promotion	g. not as good
8. impulse purchase	h. when you decide to buy something immediately without thinking about it previously
9. vital	
10. to be confronted with	
11. to stand out from	
12. inferior	

	<p>i. to be more noticeable and seem better than (other products)</p> <p>j. essential</p> <p>k. to help people notice that a product exists</p> <p>l. different and noticeable</p>
--	--

Task Three: Marketing vocabulary

Here are some of the branding concepts Carla describes in the conversation.

Match each marketing term she uses with its description below.

1. differentiation
2. building awareness
3. recall
4. recognition
5. protecting the brand
6. communicating brand values

a. when customers remember a product they have already tried and liked when they see it again.

b. stopping other companies and criminals from copying a product or making a bad version of a product.

c. informing customers about a product that they don't know about yet.

d. using the company or brand name to reassure customers that the product is safe, reliable and good quality.

e. making products distinctive, so that people make a deliberate decision to select them, rather than choosing them randomly.

f. when customers are able to find a product because it stands out visually in some way (e.g. on supermarket shelves where lots of similar products are displayed).

Task Four: Jobs, tasks and responsibilities

Match the words on the left with the activities on the right.(It is adopted from OnestopEnglish <https://www.onestopenglish.com/download?ac=2402>)

1. an accountant	a. gives expert advice to investors
2. an auditor	b. is responsible for a branch of a bank
3. a cashier	c. analyzes the financial performance of
4. a bank manager	companies
5. a financial consultant	d. invests money in the stock market
6. an investor	e. inspects a company's accounts once a year
7. a stockbroker	f. works at a cash desk in a bank
8. a customer	g. prepares financial records for a company
9. a financial analyst	h. deposits money in a bank to earn interest
10. a saver	i. buys and sells shares in companies
11. a creditor	j. owes money
12. a debtor	k. is a general word for a person who uses a bank
	l. is owed money by another person or company

Task Five: Key verbs (Adopted from Bowen, 2006, p. 05)

Fill the gaps with the correct form of a verb with the opposite meaning of the one in brackets. Choose from this list. The first one has been done for you.

simplify rise borrow spend withdraw refuse
 receive encourage distrust reduce prefer agree

1. She went to the bank to some money. [DEPOSIT]
2. He £100,000 from the bank. [LEND]
3. Interest rates by 1% last week. [FALL]
4. The bank has decided to its charges. [INCREASE]
5. She decided to all her money. [SAVE]
6. High interest rates usually small investors. [DISCOURAGE]
7. Electronic banking has banking transactions. [COMPLICATE]
8. Most experts that the stock market will rise again soon.
 [DISAGREE]
9. The bank manager her request for a loan. [ACCEPT]
10. Many customers internet banking. [TRUST]
11. Customers usually a bank statement every month. [SEND]
12. Most customers a personal interview with their bank manager.
 [DISLIKE]

Task Six Determine the set of business English characteristics in the following material adopted form: TELC (2016, p. 07)

Arthur Seebald

From: James Johnson <jjohnson@insped-international.co.uk>

To: Arthur Seebald <arthur.seebald@kh-koenig.de>

Cc: Anton Taunus <a.taunus@kh-koenig.de>

Sent: Friday, 3 March 20.. 20:59

Re: Figures

Dear Arthur,

I have just received the figures back for January UK-D and am very pleased to see that while there were a few loss-making trailers, all the trailers were loaded to capacity and there are some very good profits e.g. € 1306, €817, €1742, €1144, €1425, €1508 and even one for €2422 (it did have 29,470 chargeable kilos on it!)

However, I am very disappointed to see that once again you have reverted back to the old trick of changing prices without discussion.

Can we please agree for the future that if you are not happy with any revenue or costs we declare, we will adopt the previously agreed principle of a short e-mail, fax or phone call to discuss the matter.

If any of our staff are not happy with the response they receive, then it should be brought to the attention of Anton or myself.

By the way, I still need the express rates and also prices for the Frankfurt area. Please can I have these soon or I will have to publish our new European express tariff information without including Germany.

Rgrds James

The views expressed in this email message are the author's own and may not reflect the views and opinions of Insped International.

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Unit Six

English for Journalism

In this unit, students will be able to:

- Define English for Journalism;
- understand the specific characteristics of English for Journalism;
- provide Examples of the English for Journalism terminology;
- read authentic documents;
- contextualise their understanding.

6. English for Journalism

6.1. Defining English for Journalism

According to Grete (2021, p. 2), journalism means:

- a. the practice of investigating, collecting, verifying and/or preparing, or editing, for dissemination of information, commentary, opinion, or analysis, including but not limited to news or current affairs;
- b. for the purpose of making that information, commentary, opinion, or analysis available to the public, or a section of the public; and
- c. in respect of which a relevant person or persons abides by a journalists' code of practice, or the organisation for which they work is governed by, or submits to, a journalists' code of practice.

English is recognised as the appropriate language for worldwide news broadcasting. As a way of presenting and sharing news, most of journalists either use or learn to use English effectively. To achieve this objective, journalists and news reporters must be aware of various characteristics related to the language of journalism.

6.2. Style of English for Journalism

English for journalism is distinguished by several qualities mainly relating to style, grammatical structure, terminology, etc. To attain this purpose, the style of English for journalism and its defining qualities are examined in detail in the next section.

6.3. Features of English for Journalism

In the lines that follow, the main features of English for journalism will be presented. The graphological level of analysis is considered the starting point for this process.

6.3.1. At the Graphological Level

6.3.1.1. Punctuation

The Language of journalism is known as clear, and concise. Using correct punctuation helps in avoiding ambiguity. The following punctuation marks are often used, including, the full stop, the comma, the question mark, the hyphen, besides the quotation marks and the colon. These two latter help in quoting others' words. Quoting is a feature of this genre.

6.3.1.2. Paragraphing

In English for journalism, sentences are often short, simple, clear and concise. Paragraphs are used to present different types of arguments, ideas and statistics. They are in fact organized in a way that attracts the readers' attention. They are short, too. This is mainly done to better structure the journalistic text.

Journalistic texts should be written in a simple way that readers may comprehend the information from the first time without having to reread it. According to the Writing Centre of Arizona Univeristy (2023, p. 01), "The goal is to break down even the most complex concepts and write them in our own words so that everyone 'gets it'." For them (2023), viewers dislike lengthy paragraphs since they appear difficult to comprehend. Journalists attempt to keep sentences under 20 words and paragraphs to a maximum of two or three phrases. Some paragraphs consist just of a single sentence, which is acceptable.

6.3.2. At the Lexical Level

6.3.2.1. The Use of Specialised Terminology

Despite the fact that journalism tends to use clear and simple words that the majority of the target audience should understand, and as it has been stressed on

throughout this unit, journalism, like other disciplines, has its own specific terminology. This latter includes terms used while broadcasting the news in journalism and via media. Since journalism tends to cover different disciplines to share news, the terminology being employed differs from one discipline to another.

A last important element that needs to be highlighted is that terminology development goes hand in hand with the development of journalism, media, and technology. A suggested glossary of specific terms is offered below.

6.3.2.2. The Use of Abbreviations and Acronyms

English for Journalism is also known for its frequent use of acronyms, abbreviations and initials. To attract the readers' attention, journalists often use acronyms to refer to different organizations, professions and common things. Below, terms such as: WHO: World Health Organisation, PM: Prime Minister and others are presented alongside their full versions.

Table6.1.

Acronyms used in English for Journalism

	Acronym	
Organizations and Proper Names	WTO	World Trade Organisation
	UNESCO	UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
	IMF	International Monetary Fund
	WHO	World Health Organisation
Professions	MP	Member of Parliament
	PM	Prime Minister

	CEO	Chief Executive Officer
	AA	Administrative Assistant
Common Things	PIN	Personal Identification Number
	ME	Middle East
	GMT	Greenwich Mean Time
	PR	Public Relations

As it has been mentioned above, abbreviations are also used. In the following table, abbreviations besides their full forms are presented:

Table 6.2.

Abbreviations used in English for Journalism

	Abbreviation	Full Form
Abbreviations	ad	advertisement
	celeb	celebrity
	doc	doctor
	exam	examination
	gas gasoline	gasoline
	lab	laboratory
	memo	memorandum
	pix	pictures
	pro	professional
	rail	railway
	sub	sub Subway/ submarine

6.3.2.3. Glossary

According to Rogers (2021), Journalism, like any other profession, has its own terminology, which each reporter and newsbroadcaster must know to comprehend what is being said in a newsroom and assist in the production of a great news article. Below, a number of those terms adopted from Rogers (2021) are presented:

- The lede/ lead: is the first sentence of a hard-news story; a succinct summary of the story's main point. Ledes should typically be a single sentence or no more than 35 to 40 words. The best ledes are ones that highlight the most important, newsworthy and interesting aspects of a news story while leaving out secondary details that can be included later in the story.

- The inverted pyramid: is the model used to describe how a news story is structured. It means the heaviest or most important news goes at the top of the story, and the lightest, or least important, goes at the bottom. As you move from the top to the bottom of the story, the information presented should gradually become less important. That way, if an editor needs to cut the story to make it fit a particular space, she can cut from the bottom without losing any vital information.

- Copy: simply refers to the content of a news article. Think of it as another word for content. So when we refer to a copy editor, we're talking about someone who edits news stories.

- A beat: is a particular area or topic that a reporter covers. On a typical local newspaper, you'll have an array of reporters who cover such beats as the police, courts, city hall and school board. At larger papers, beats can become even

more specialized. Papers like The New York Times have reporters who cover national security, the Supreme Court, high-tech industries and health care.

- The byline: is the name of the reporter who writes a news story. Bylines are usually placed at the beginning of an article.

- The dateline: is the city from which a news story originates. This is usually placed at the start of the article, right after the byline. If a story has both a dateline and a byline, that generally indicates that the reporter who wrote the article was actually in the city named in the dateline. But if a reporter is in, say, New York, and is writing about an event in Chicago, he must choose between having a byline but no dateline, or vice versa.

- A source: is anyone you interview for a news story. In most cases, sources are on-the-record, which means they are fully identified, by name and position, in the article for which they have been interviewed.

- Anonymous source: this is a source who does not want to be identified in a news story. Editors generally frown upon using anonymous sources because they are less credible than on-the-record sources, but sometimes anonymous sources are necessary.

- Attribution: means telling readers where the information in a news story comes from. This is important because reporters don't always have firsthand access to all the information needed for a story; they must rely on sources, such as police, prosecutors or other officials for information.

- AP Style: This refers to Associated Press Style, which is the standardized format and usage for writing news copy. AP Style is followed by most U.S. newspapers and websites. You can learn AP Style for the AP Stylebook.

To sum up, it is important for EJ students to develop their own glossaries that will help them better understand, memorise and later on practise Journalism Terms.

6.3.3. At the Grammatical Level

6.3.3.1. Frequent use of the present tense

In English for Journalism, the present tense dominates this type of genre. This could be explained by the fact that broadcasting news needs to maintain freshness of news, events and even ideas. In presenting news, the present tense is employed instead of the past to sustain the idea of immediacy and freshness.

6.3.3.2. Direct and Indirect Speech

In news reporting, a combination of direct and indirect speech is often used. This latter is considered as a fundamental feature of the language of Journalism. Journalists use direct speech to give an exact citation of another's words, whereas indirect speech presents the journalist's interpretation of the cited words. In this regard, Waugh (1995, p. 01) explains that:

The major division of reported speech in journalism, as elsewhere, is into direct speech vs. indirect speech. By convention, direct speech is interpreted by the reader as being an authentic, accurate, verbatim replication of what was originally said, whereas indirect speech is interpreted as a paraphrase.

E.g. The Canadian Prime Minister announced today: "We have decided to allow Emirates Airlines ten more landing slots at Toronto International Airport. This, we hope, will help settle a three-year dispute over Canadian visas for Dubai."

6.3.3.3. Short and Simple Sentences

As it has already been mentioned, English for Journalism strives towards the use of direct and simple language. Writing concisely often contributes putting simplicity into real practice. Therefore, long and complex sentences should be avoided. This could be explained by the fact that the longer a sentence, the more challenging it is to comprehend.

Short and simple sentences are, then, regarded as the key-concepts in English for Journalism. To convey clear messages, the sentences should be short, clear, precise and concise. Avoiding the use of long sentences is believed to be a prerequisite.

6.3.4. Headlines and Ledes in English for Journalism

In English for journalism, it is commonly known that the headlines, besides the lede, hold the lion share in broadcasting the news to the readers. They have their own features that need to be highlighted.

6.3.4.1. Headlines

They aim to provide a quick hint on the content of the article. Readers often go through titles to select what to read. Those titles need to be written to attract the target audience's attention. In this case, the headlines come under different types. Among them, we may find the following types:

- Straight headlines: the most well-known type. They are often called direct headlines.

e.g. Fear, panic as new earthquakes hit Turkey-Syria border, killing 6

- Question Headlines: headlines in the form of a question.

e.g. Can Twitter Predict the Future?

- Double headlines: a headline that consists of two main parts.

e.g. Health care payers: Engage your members

- Quotation Headlines: that contains a quotation.

e.g. Sasquatch researcher claims an ‘unimaginable discovery’

- Feature headlines: used mainly for unusual stories.

e.g. Suicide of a Hacker.

Functions of Headlines

According to scholars, headlines are mainly used to achieve the following ends:

- attract the readers attention;
- guide the target audience;
- outline the news;
- beautify the language.

To meet these ends, headlines must: (Man, 2023)

- be correct in fact and implication;
- connect to ordinary readers be easily understood;
- attract attention using interesting, active words;
- set or match tone of the article.

As for the grammatical features of headlines, they can be summarised as follows:

The present tense is the dominant tense that gives freshness to the news. Verbs should be avoided in the headlines. Conjunctions such as ‘and’ should be

omitted in titles. Colon is often used to replace the conjunction ‘and’. The dash is mainly used to introduce the person who is saying the quote. Words should be kept simple and clear. As a final connotation, slang should be avoided.

6.3.4.2. The lede/Lead

The lead is often defined as the first paragraph of the article that summarises the content the reader is supposed to read. It provides the most crucial facts of a news item in a clear and concise manner, while sustaining the reader's interest. According to NMU Writing Centre (2023), If a reader reads only the opening paragraph, he or she should still have a general understanding of the topic and the most significant facts. Writing a lead for them is a difficult task difficult and time-consuming. While analysing such type of genre, it is found that different types of leads exist. Among them, six types have been highlighted by Bowman (2020).

Table 6.3.

Types of Leads (adapted from: Bowman, 2020)

Type of the Lead	Its function
SINGLE-ITEM LEADS	This structure focuses on a single element in a summary. The goal of this introduction is to create a strong hook that encourages the reader to follow.
SUMMARY LEADS	Most reporters use this option because it provides a quick summary of what to expect in the rest of the article. It uses as few words as possible while answering the six essential questions of journalism: who, what, where, when, why, and how.
CREATIVE LEADS	Most profile pieces use this lead option because it captures

	immediate interest in a person, organization, or community story. It focuses on the details of the subject matter to help the reader start building a relationship with the writing.
ANALOGY LEADS	Reporters use this lead when writing to create comparisons between news events and something else a reader might understand. “The explosion at the chemical factory was like a nuclear bomb exploding,” would be an example of this option.
SHORT-SENTENCE LEADS	The goal of this lead is to use a short phrase or a single work as a teaser. Journalists use the rest of the information later in the piece to keep the reader engaged. Although it seems gimmicky at times, this structure works well in print if the editor runs the story on two different pages.
DELAYED IDENTIFICATION LEADS	This option is used quite frequently by journalists because it identifies the critical elements of a story before identifying the participants involved. It sets up the reporting throughout the remainder of the piece by introducing the reader to what happened.

Leads like headlines are also known for their own specific features. In this vein, leads should be kept simple, direct and attractive. They should also be clear and concise. Questions such as: who, what, when, where, why and how should be answered in the leads. This is mainly done to introduce the reader to the content journalists are offer in their works.

The emphasis in this unit has been placed on the most crucial aspects of English for journalism, including the use of short, simple, clear, and concise sentences, as well as the use of paragraphs for the presentation of various arguments, ideas, and facts. They are short and designed to attract the reader's attention. As a final connotation, the inclusion of those characteristics among others is mainly done in a simple way that readers may understand the information from the first time without having to reread it.

6.4. English for Journalism Tasks

Task One: Discuss the grammatical features of a newspaper. Illustrate using examples.

Task Two: Look at the sample taken from the “BBC Magazine” and write a brief review. Focus your observation on the following elements:

1. The headline: Its function and type;
2. The lead;
3. Wording features, including the choice of words: technical, semi-technical and common terms;
4. Initials and acronyms;
5. The grammatical features;
6. Quotations.

USE EXAMPLES

New Zealand mosque shootings: What's happening in Christchurch?

Source: <https://www.bbc.co.uk/newsround/47580572>

Tributes are being paid after shootings at two mosques in the city of Christchurch in New Zealand. The country's Prime Minister, Jacinda Ardern, described the incidents on Friday as a terrorist attack, and one of New Zealand's "darkest days".

Fifty people have died and another 50 were hurt. A man has appeared in court charged with murder. This type of attack is extremely rare in New Zealand. Gun violence there is much lower than many other countries, including the United

States and Australia. The shootings, which came around the time people were attending the mosques for Friday prayers, were the deadliest in the nation's history.

Tributes have been paid across New Zealand and the world to the victims of the shooting. New Zealanders paid respects with a heart made of candles on Takapuna beach in Auckland at a gathering to remember those lost in the terror attack.

Many people have shown their love and support for those affected by leaving messages on the pavement outside the Botanic Gardens in Christchurch, where the attack happened. Flowers have been left outside the two mosques involved in the attack in respect of those who were caught in the attack.

What else do we know about the attack?

The shootings took place at two locations in Christchurch - the Al Noor mosque and the Linwood mosque.

Police earlier cleared the city's Cathedral Square, where thousands of children had been holding a rally for action on climate change. It's believed only one gunman was involved in the attack.

Many people around the world have been sending their messages of support to those affected in New Zealand. A statement from the Queen said: "I have been deeply saddened by the appalling events in Christchurch today. Prince Philip and I send our condolences to the families and friends of those who have lost their lives. "I also pay tribute to the emergency services and volunteers who are providing support to those who have been injured. "At this tragic time, my thoughts and prayers are with all New Zealanders."

Task Three: Discuss the grammatical besides lexical features of the following sample taken from “Aljazeera News” and write a brief review.

Brexit: Britain votes to leave EU in historic divorce

Source: <https://www.aljazeera.com/news/2016/6/24/brexit-britain-votes-to-leave-eu-in-historic-divorce>

PM David Cameron to resign after UK votes to leave the EU in referendum that could seal the fate of the union.

Britain has voted to leave the European Union in a referendum, with the result throwing into question the fate of the 28-nation bloc and Prime Minister David Cameron announcing that he will step down by October.

The official results were announced on Friday with the Leave campaign receiving 52 percent in Thursday's historic referendum.

Cameron, who had backed the campaign to remain in the EU, said the British people made "a very clear decision to take a different path.

"As such, I think the country requires fresh leadership to take it in this direction. I will do everything I can as PM to steady the ship in the coming weeks and months. But I do not think it would be right for me to try to be the captain that steers our country to its next destination.

Brexit: What will happen next?

"This is not a decision I've taken lightly, but I do believe it is in the national interest to have a period of stability and then the new leadership required.

"There is no need for a precise timetable today, but in my view, we should aim to have a new PM in place by the start of the Conservative Party Conference in October," a tearful Cameron said.

When asked whether Cameron should resign in case of a Brexit victory, Nigel Farage, leader of the UK Independence Party (UKIP), which had backed a vote to leave, said: "Immediately".

At least 72 percent of 46.5m voters turned out to cast their ballot.

Former London Mayor Boris Johnson said on Friday afternoon that he was saddened by Cameron's announcement but respected the prime minister's decision to step down.

"I believe he's been one of the most extraordinary politicians of our age," said Johnson, in reference to Cameron.

"It was his bravery that gave this country the first referendum on the European Union for 43 years."

'Dawn is breaking'

Farage declared victory in a speech in London as a Brexit victory looked increasingly likely.

"The dawn is breaking on an independent United Kingdom," he said to loud cheers at a Leave campaign party.

"I hope this victory brings down this failed project and leads us to a Europe of sovereign nation states, trading together, being friends together, cooperating

together, and let's get rid of the flag, the anthem, Brussels and all that has gone wrong.

"Let June 23 go down in history as our Independence Day."

Brexit worse on GBP than 2008 financial crisis

Farage went on to accuse Cameron and former Prime Ministers Gordon Brown and Tony Blair of "irresponsible, open-door mass-immigration that has damaged the quality of life of ordinary, decent people in this country".

Outside the UK parliament early on Friday morning, Al Jazeera's Barnaby Phillips said the outcome is "an enormous rejection of the political class".

"There is anger towards the political class. The message on immigration resonated in large parts of the country.

"People at the poorer end of society feel that the large number of EU migrants, and other migrants, that have come in has been to their disadvantage; that it has hurt access to schools, access to housing, pushed down wages at the bottom end of the wage scale.

"It is fair to relate it, in a wider context, to the support that Donald Trump has managed to get in the primary stages in the United States ... a distrust of the authorities, a distrust of the establishment that has governed western democracies all these decades."

Johnson, who is favourite to become the next prime minister, said the British people had chosen to leave a "European Union that has become too remote, too opaque, and not accountable enough to the people that it is meant to serve".

Diminished global voice

Britain's Foreign Secretary Philip Hammond told Al Jazeera the UK's exit would diminish Britain's global voice.

"We will be less influential on the world stage," he said, but argued that the clear result of the referendum was that Britons are much more focused on issues closer to home.

"We have to listen to that message and we have to respond accordingly, protecting as best we can Britain's interests and the interests of Britain's people."

Hammond said Farage, who emerged on Friday as the face of the Vote Leave victory, "must not be allowed to hijack the victory of the Brexit campaign".

World reacts: Britain votes to leave the EU

In moving forward, London must focus on "negotiating the best arrangements we can for Britain's future trading relationship with Europe, reassuring our friends and partners around the world that Britain is not retreating into a Little England, as perhaps Nigel Farage would like".

But it must "remain an engaged, internationally focused player, and that, if I may call them this, the middle of the road voices in the Brexit campaign will prevail in terms of setting the tone of where that group wants us to go in the future".

Financial turmoil

The pound plunged and world stock markets slumped on Friday after in the wake of the referendum result.

Sterling crashed 10 percent to a 31-year low at one point and the euro also plummeted against the dollar, as the Brexit result caught markets by surprise.

London's benchmark FTSE-100 index initially dived more than eight percent at the open, and was poised to post its sharpest one-day drop since the aftermath of the Lehman Brothers collapse.

The FTSE 100 clawed back ground to finish 3.2 percent lower at 6,138.69 points.

The European Central Bank said it was ready to provide additional liquidity for the markets if necessary, while the Bank of England said it would pump more than 250 billion pounds (\$370 billion, 326 billion euros) into the financial system if needed.

Oil prices fell sharply. Benchmark US crude lost \$1.93, or 3.8 percent, to \$48.18 a barrel in New York. Brent crude, the international benchmark, fell \$2.07, or 4.1 percent, to \$48.85 a barrel in London.

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Unit Seven

English for Sciences and Technology “EST”

In this unit, students will be able to:

- Define English for Sciences and Technology;
- understand the specific characteristics of EST;
- provide Examples of the EST terminology;
- read authentic documents;
- contextualise their understanding.

7. English for Sciences and Technology

7.1. Defining EST

According to Li and Li (2015, p. 161), English for Sciences and Technology generally refers to:

English used in scientific publications, papers, textbooks, technical reports and academic lectures, etc. It is used to describe the physical and natural phenomena, their processes, properties, characteristics, laws and application in productive activities.

In 1950s and the early 1960s EST emerged and became the language of knowledge. In this vein, EST has developed its own features that contribute to the formality, objectivity and precision of the EST style “due to its main functions of statement, description, exposition, definition, classification, instruction, comparison, exemplification, inference and reasoning.” (Li and Li, 2015, p. 161)

7.2. Style of EST

The English used in the sciences and technology is distinguished by a variety of characteristics, most of which relate to grammatical structure and terminology, among other elements. In the following section, we will analyse the English style that is used in scientific and technological fields, as well as the characteristics that define this style.

7.3. Features of EST

7.3.1. At the Graphological Level

Before dealing with the graphological level, it is crucial to define graphology. This latter is regarded as linguistic analysis level focusing on the graphic features of language. Graphology as a term was first introduced to linguistics in the late 1960s by McIntosh (1961), who stated that he had used

graphology "in a sense that is intended to correspond to 'phonology' in the realm of spoken language" (1961, p. 107).

Years later, Halliday, McIntosh, and Stevens (1964) extended this approach to include spelling, punctuation, and other graphic resources in language-related subjects. In 1969, Leech asserts that graphology is superior to orthography, which encompasses the full writing system, including punctuation, paragraphing, and space.

7.3.1.1. Punctuation

The primary function of punctuation is to assist readers in understanding sentence structures and the overall meanings of the texts. Therefore, the punctuation in EST is quite helpful for readers when reading authentic EST documents.

According to scholars, the comma is used more frequently than in other writing styles. In contrast, the question mark is never used. This illustrates that EST sentences are relatively lengthy. In addition, they are always declarative and never interrogative. These factors make EST's organisational structures and subject matter extremely specialised. In this case, it is employed to communicate scientific knowledge but not emotions, which are easily communicated through interrogative, exclamatory, and imperative words.

7.3.1.2. Paragraphing

As mentioned earlier, one of the most prominent characteristics of EST is the use of long sentences. In this case, each sentence has numerous words. This could be explained by the fact that EST aims to report scientific facts, explain scientific phenomena, and conclude scientific concepts. It requires a specific number of words

and sentences to convey the needed details effectively. Therefore, it has led to lengthy sentences alongside numerous paragraphs.

7.3.2. At the lexical level

7.3.2.1. Frequent Use of Technical Terms

One of the most important features of EST is the use of technical terms. Those latter can be either purely technical, i.e., context-specific and in this case they are not shared with other disciplines, or semi-technical, as they can be found in different contexts, yet they do not convey the same meaning.

7.3.2.2. Use of Nominal Words

Another prominent feature of EST is the use of nominalisation. Nouns such as ‘motion,’ ‘investigation,’ and ‘separation’ are often employed. These types of words reflect the formality of the text and ensure that a great deal of information is coherently and rationally combined.

Science and technology are rigorous and objective disciplines where confusing words and hence, language should be avoided. In General English, verbs, adjectives, and other words function as grammatical components, Yet, in EST, nominal terms are frequently substituted for verbs and adjectives. E.g ‘exploration’ instead of ‘to explore’, ‘examination’ in the place of ‘to examine’.

7.3.2.3. Use of Prepositional Phrases

To avoid ambiguity, facilitate understanding and improve sentences, paragraphs, and ideas organisation, including prepositional phrases in EST passages is a must. In this case, the preposition ‘of’ and other prepositional phrases are often used.

7.3.3. At the Grammatical Level

7.3.3.1. Frequent Use of the Present Tense

According to Swales (1985), the dominant tense in EST is the present tense, either in the active or the passive voice. He (1985, p. 08) moves further to mention that: “we seldom feel any need to use the past perfect progressive passive, or the future progressive passive (to take extreme cases); but they are at any rate possible”.

Importantly, ‘will’, in EST is not used to refer to a future event; rather, it implies ‘assumption’ or ‘evaluation’.

7.3.3.2. Frequent Use of Declarative Sentences

As it already has been mentioned, Science and technology are rigorous and objective disciplines. Then, coherence, clarity, and fluency can be maintained through declarative sentences in EST. In other words, EST attempts to eliminate subjective opinions, in this case, the author of EST is not allowed to express his own feelings. Moreover, the focus should not be on the individuals, but on objective facts and the information itself.

7.3.3.3. Frequent Use of the Passive Voice

According to statistics, in textbooks in sciences such as Physics, chemistry and engineering, 1/3 of the verbs used are in the passive voice. This can lead to the fact that there is a dominance of the passive voice in EST. In this case, passive voice becomes one of the most significant strategies for making the text objective and standard.

As it has been tackled above, science and technology are rigorous and objective disciplines that place greater emphasis on facts, phenomena, or processes

and are less concerned with the actors than with the outcomes. The passive voice is used to emphasise the objects and the contents of the sentences.

7.3.3.4. Frequent Use of Long and Complex Sentences

Another prominent feature of EST is the use of long sentences. This could be explained by the fact that EST, as a type of English, aims to communicate complex ideas alongside establishing logical connections between different ideas and elements. This latter can only be achieved if long sentences are effectively used.

According to statistics offered by Qian (1991), the average simple sentence in all English styles contains 17.8 words, however, the average word count per sentence in the majority of EST sections is 24.4, which may denote that the average sentence length in EST is significantly longer than in other English styles.

Another important impact of long sentences is the complexity of those sentences. As a matter of fact, EST sentences are not only long but also complex. Many instances of the relative pronouns ‘which’ and ‘that’ occur in the scientific and technical texts. In order to improve the objectivity and correctness of the information and avoid ambiguity and misunderstanding, those relative pronouns are frequently used.

In this last unit, English for Science and Technology has been explored and its different prominent features have been highlighted. to sum up, it can be said that EST is well-known for the use of purely technical terms that are not shared with other disciplines. It is also known for its complexity of sentences. Science and technology are rigorous and objective disciplines where confusing words and hence, language should be avoided.

7.4. English for Science and Technology Tasks

Task One: Words in context

A glossary is an alphabetical list of unusual or specialized words from a certain field of knowledge. Following are some important scientific and technical words that all educated people should know. (Adopted from Quinley, 2002)

- ❖ **atmosphere** the air (made of gases, fine dust, and water vapor) that surrounds the Earth
- ❖ **atoms** tiny parts into which all things on Earth can be broken down
- ❖ **bacteria** simple, one-celled organisms that are visible only through a microscope
- ❖ **bit** the smallest unit of information used by a computer; represented by a 0 or a 1
- ❖ **byte** a string of eight bits standing for a single character
- ❖ **carbohydrates** sugars and starches in food that give people energy
- ❖ **chemistry** the scientific study of what substances are made of and how they can change when combined with other substances
- ❖ **climate** a region's average weather over many years
- ❖ **crust** the outer layer of the Earth
- ❖ **diskettes** disks made of magnetic material and used to store data entered into a computer
- ❖ **ecology** the study of how all living things depend on one another
- ❖ **erosion** the wearing away of soil by wind and water
- ❖ **evolution** changes in a species over time

- ❖ **food chain** a group of organisms, each of which is dependent on another for food
- ❖ **fossils** the remains of organisms that lived long ago
- ❖ **organisms** living things

Complete each sentence with a word from the glossary. Use the other words in the sentence to help you decide which word to add. Check the dictionary definition if you're still not sure.

1. The devastating Dust Bowl of the 1930s was caused by the widespread _____ of America's farmland.
2. Life science is the study of all the _____ on Earth.
3. Fruits, vegetables, and grains are all good sources of _____.
4. Some _____ are useful for making foods such as cheese; other kinds can cause sickness and death.
5. There are two hydrogen _____ and one oxygen _____ in a water molecule.
6. Each _____ of information in a computer program stands for a letter, number, or symbol.

Task Two: Look at the sample entitled "ADSORPTION STUDY OF CATIONIC DYE METHYLENE BLUE FROM AQUEOUS SOLUTION USING COMPOSITE POLYVINYLPIRROLIDONE / BENTONITE" and REWRITE IT. Pay attention to the Features of EST Discourse, mainly at:

1. the Graphological Level;

2. the Grammatical Level.

**ADSORPTION STUDY OF CATIONIC DYE METHYLENE BLUE
FROM AQUEOUS SOLUTION USING COMPOSITE
POLYVINYLPIRROLIDONE / BENTONITE**

Mots-clés: Composite, bentonite, PVP, adsorption

Résumé

Dyes are organic compounds typically found in water effluent of many industry, such as textiles, leather, paper, printing and cosmetics [1]. Complex aromatic structures dyes makes them more stable and more difficult remove effluent discharged into water bodies. [2] The adsorption technique have proven to be effective and interesting method for the treatment of wastewater with dye. [3]

Four composites was prepared with bentonite and PVP (58 000 g/mol); with different concentration of polymer 60, 200 and 500 g/L named CPVP (60 g/L), CPVP (200g/L) and CPVP (500g/L) respectively.

The objective of this study is to determines the adsorption capacity of these composites, for removing cationic dye methylene blue (MB) in aqueous medium. The composites prepared were characterizing by different techniques ray diffraction (XRD) and infrared spectroscopy (FTIR)

The characterization showed that the composite CPVP (60 g/L) has an exfoliated larger structure those other composites that can be advantageously used for the treatment of wastewater.

The batch method has be employed at pH 4. A series of experiments were then conducted to study the influencing of some parameters on the adsorption capacity, such as pH, contact time, adsorbent mass, initial concentration of the dye and the isotherm of adsorption. The results of adsorption of methylene blue shown

that the composite BNa⁺/PVP (60 g/L) had effective a better capacity than those measured for other composites, attained 99.62 % at room temperature

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Task Three: Discuss the different characteristics of EST found in the following authentic document.

ENGLISH FOR PHYSICS

Work, Energy and Power

Source: https://www.edinformatics.com/math_science/work-energy-power.html

Work can be defined as transfer of energy. In physics we say that work is done on an object when you transfer energy to that object. If one object gives energy to a second object, then the first object does work on the second object. Work is the application of a force over a distance ($W = F \times d$). Lifting a weight from the ground and putting it on a shelf is a good example of work. The force is equal to the weight of the object, and the distance is equal to the height of the shelf. Work-Energy principle states that the change in the kinetic energy of an object is equal to the net work done on the object.

Energy (E) can be defined as the capacity for doing work. The simplest case of mechanical work is when an object is standing still and we force it to move. The energy of a moving object is called kinetic energy. For an object of mass m , moving with velocity of magnitude v , this energy can be calculated from the following formula $E = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$.

There are two types of energy. The first is Kinetic Energy or Energy of Motion, the second is Potential Energy or Stored Energy. The forms of energy are:

- Solar Radiation: infrared heat, radio waves, gamma rays, microwaves, ultraviolet light.
- Atomic/Nuclear Energy - energy released in nuclear reactions. When a neutron splits an atom's nucleus into smaller pieces it is called fission. When two nuclei are joined together under millions of degrees of heat it is called fusion.
- Electrical Energy is the generation or use of electric power over a period of time expressed in kilowatt-hours (kWh), megawatt-hours (MW) or gigawatt-hours (GWh).
- Chemical energy is a form of potential energy related to the breaking and forming of chemical bonds. It is stored in food, fuels and 24 batteries, and is released as other forms of energy during chemical reactions.
- Mechanical Energy - energy of the moving parts of a machine. Also refers to movements in humans.
- Heat Energy is a form of energy that is transferred by a difference in temperature.

Special attention should be paid at the definition of the word «power». Power is the work done in a unit of time. In other words, power is a measure of how quickly work can be done. The unit of power is the Watt = 1 Joule/ 1 second. One common unit of energy is the kilowatt-hour (kWh). If we are using one kW of power, a kWh of energy will last one hour.

To calculate Work, we use the equation $W=Fd$, where F - force, d - distance. Because energy is the capacity to do work, we measure energy and work in the same units (N*m or joules). Power (P) is the rate of energy generation (or absorption) over time: $P = E/t$, where E - energy, t - time. Power's SI unit of measurement is the Watt, representing the generation or absorption of energy at the rate of 1 Joule/sec. Power's unit of measurement in the English system is the horsepower, which is equivalent to 735.7 Watts.

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9. SUGGESTED LIST OF RESEARCH THEMES

1. Grammar, text, and discourse: form and function in language use
2. Functional variation in discourse: registers and genres
3. Discourse practices in professional communities: genre analysis
4. Genres in specific contexts: promotional, academic, legal, newspaper,
& business.
5. Disciplinary variation in academic and professional genres
6. Appropriation of generic resources,
7. Mixing and embedding of genres
8. Generic integrity and colonisation of professional genres
9. Accessibility, comprehension and participant perspectives
10. Intercultural and cross-cultural variation in genres
11. Discourses of unequal encounters
12. Multimodality in academic and professional genres