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Journal of Medical English Education, the official publication of The Japan Society for Medical English Education, was founded in 2000 for the purpose of international exchange of knowledge in the field of English education for medical purposes. For citation purposes, the registered name of the Journal replaced the dual name that had appeared on the cover before Vol. 6 No. 1. The *Journal of Medical English Education* is a continuation of Medical English, Journal of Medical English Education and is the registered name of the Journal.

The Japan Society for Medical English Education
c/o Medical View Co., Ltd.
2–30 Ichigaya–hommuracho, Shinjuku–ku, Tokyo 162–0845, Japan
TEL 03–5228–2274 (outside Japan: +81–3–5228–2274)
FAX 03–5228–2062 (outside Japan: +81–3–5228–2062)
E-MAIL jasmee@medicalview.co.jp
WEBSITE http://www.medicalview.co.jp/

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Journal of Medical English Education

The official journal of the Japan Society for Medical English Education

jasmee@medicalview.co.jp

Guidelines for Authors Submitting Manuscripts to the *Journal of Medical English Education*

1. Article categories and *Journal* aims

Journal of Medical English Education, the official publication of the Japan Society for Medical English Education (JASMEE), is interested in articles on English education for medical purposes, including *clinical* medicine, *nursing, rehabilitation, dentistry, laboratory technician work, research,* and *international* medical activities such as reading and writing medical papers, making oral presentations, participating in fora, seminars, symposia, workshops, international conferences, and continuing professional education. Categories are *Special Article, Original Article, Short Communication,* and *Letter*. The Special article is by invitation from the editor or an address by a guest speaker or symposium participant at the annual JASMEE conference. The original article is limited to a first publication of the results of research conducted by the authors which represented new information that relates to relevant and significant problems, issues or hypotheses posed within the field. Short communications are articles reporting teaching methods, questionnaire analyses and the like.

2. Preparing the manuscript

2.1. Articles may be submitted in either English or Japanese.

2.2. Manuscripts should be prepared on either Macintosh or Windows/DOS.

2.3. Use Page Layout *25-to-26 lines per A4 page, 12-point typeface* of a common font such as Times New Roman, Arial, Times, or Century. **Margins:**
Left 30 mm; **Right** 25 mm;
Top 30 mm; **Bottom** 25 mm.
Maximum length: about 20–24 pages, including the Title Page, text, figures, tables, and References.

2.4. *Number all pages consecutively,* beginning with the Title Page as p.1 and including each page that has a Table or Figure.

2.5. Submit the manuscript in normal Page Layout *without the tracking protection tool.*

2.6. Do not use footnotes, op cit, or Ibid.

3. Title Page

Order of information on the Title Page:

3.1. A concise, informative title, centered near the top of the page. The 1st line of the title ought to be slightly longer than the 2nd line. Avoid abbreviations and formulae where possible. For example, *instead of SLA, write Second-language Acquisition.* A *subtitle is seldom necessary,* as the key information can usually be included in the base title.

3.2. Author names and affiliations. In the order agreed upon by the authors, write the full names without academic degrees. Use asterisks to designate authors from more than one institution, as in 3.3 below; the asterisk goes AFTER the author's name and AFTER the comma. Example: Jun SUZUKI,* Arnold PALMER** and Helen KELLER*

3.3. Full names of the *institutions* and *departments* where the research was done, and City and Prefecture (State and Nation if outside Japan). If authors are from different institutions, put one or more asterisks BEFORE the institution name. Example:
* ABC Medical University, English Department, Nanai, Hokkaido
**XYZ Medical University, School of Nursing, Gunma

3.4. *Keywords*. A maximum of six keywords or short phrases that would help in indexing the article.

3.5. *Corresponding author.* Name of the author (with job title, e.g., Professor, M.D.) who will handle correspondence throughout the editorial process; name the university and department affiliation, full address, telephone and fax numbers, and e-mail address.

3.6. *For all authors,* give the e-mail address, telephone and fax number.

3.7. If part of the paper was presented orally or as a poster at a meeting, then at the bottom of the Title Page put *the title of the meeting, sponsoring organization, exact date(s), and the city where the meeting was held.*

4. Abstract

4.1. A maximum of 250 words (about one A4-size page). May be in 11-point typeface if necessary, to contain the Abstract on a single page.

4.2. State the **Background** in one or two sentences (see **6.3** below), **objective** of the investigation in one sentence, then describe the **Methods** (study design, study population, protocol) in the past tense; **Results** (main findings or major contributions) in the past tense; and finally the **Conclusion** (or recommendations) in the present tense. Be concrete and avoid saying merely, "… was investigated" or "This paper describes …."

5. Text

5.1. Use either American or British English, but do not mix the two in the same article.

5.2. *Indent* the first line of each new paragraph.

5.3. *Abbreviations* should be kept to a minimum and spelled out at first mention, giving the full term first, followed by the abbreviation in parentheses. *Example: English as a foreign language (EFL)*. In both humanities and natural science, *e.g. (for example)* and *i.e. (that is, namely)* are preceded and followed by a comma. Standard metric units (*mm, cm, μL, L, mg*) can be used without definition but must be accompanied by a numeral; symbols and metric units do NOT take a period. Common units such as *sec, min, h* (units of time do not use the plural form) are used only in combination with a numeral. *Example: The test was 80 min long. But NOT "The test took several min." NOT "For most students, an h was enough time."* Abbreviations requiring a period are those that could be confused with an existing word, such as **in.** for *inch*, were it not for the period.

5.4. ***Reference citation.*** Cite each reference as a superscript number matching the number in the References section of your paper. The superscript citations usually appear, without parentheses, at the **end** of the sentence, the **end** of the paragraph, or the **end** of a quotation after the punctuation mark. If more than one is used, the superscripts are separated by a comma but no space.

5.5. Author-and-date citation in parentheses, i.e., the Harvard system, known also as the American Psychological Association (APA) system, is **NOT** used in this *Journal* now.

6. Arrangement of the article

6.1. Divide your article into clearly defined and/or numbered sections. Subsections may be numbered 1.1 (then 1.1.1, 1.1.2) etc.

6.2. Each subsection should be given a short heading. Subsections are helpful for cross-referencing within the paper. Instead of just saying, "…as mentioned above," we try to guide the reader by saying *"…as shown in 1.1.3 above"* or *"as aforementioned (1.1.3)*," or *"as explained under Evaluation above."*

6.3. ***Introduction.*** First, give the general topic, or territory, of the research in one or two sentences. Example: *How to help students hone their English listening skills is a standing concern of teachers, and especially for those teaching medical students.* After that, explain your rationale and lead up to the problem the paper is addressing, then state *the objective of your research or of your classroom approach.* References are often cited in the Introduction.

6.4. ***Methods.*** In the past tense, briefly describe your study design or classroom trial. Tell explicitly what was done, how many students were involved, what academic year they were in, what materials were used, how much time the study took (from when to when, if appropriate). Subheads are helpful in lengthy Methods.

6.5. ***Results.*** (***Results and Discussion*** may be a single division of the paper, depending on the author's preference.) Although each result is stated in the past tense, the discussion and generalization of the results are in the present or present progressive tense.

6.6. ***Conclusion.*** The Conclusion is usually the last subdivision or final paragraph of the **Discussion**, but a separate Conclusion is permissible. The conclusion is NOT a repetition of the Results but a present-tense précis explaining the significance of the results.

6.7. ***Acknowledgments.*** If you wish to thank someone for help with the data collection, analysis, manuscript, or for a grant, a brief Acknowledgments section is appropriate between the main text of the paper and the References.

6.8. *Figure legends, tables, figures*—in that order—may be collated at the end of the article, provided the text is marked to indicate the approximate location where each figure and table is intended. At the TOP of each **table**, number the tables consecutively according to their order of mention in the text and make a short title for each. Place table footnotes immediately below the table. Vertical lines are not necessary inside the table except in special cases. For figures embedded in the text, put the figure number and legend BENEATH each **figure**.

7. References

7.1. Switch off any automated Reference Manager, such as EndNote, ProCite, or other software you may have used, thus allowing editors to make stylistic conformation of the References if necessary.

7.2. *Citation order (the Vancouver method, modified slightly)*. List the references according to *the order cited in your text,* putting the **family name** of the authors first, followed simply by the initial or initials of the person's name without punctuation (Examples **7.9** below).

7.3. **Journal article** (Example 1 below). **Author(s).→ Year.→Article title.→Journal Title→Volume (Issue number. optional)→page numbers.** The article title is written in *lowercase* except for the first word and proper nouns. In the ***Journal Title***, the first letter of each word is in *uppercase*, and the *Journal Title* is italicized. The full *Journal Title* is preferred. The word "Vol." does not appear but the volume number is in **boldface**, followed by a non-bold colon, then the page numbers Caution: **5**(1): 64–65 but NOT 64–5. Note: p. or pp. is NOT used in *Journal* entries.

7.4. **Book** (Example 2). **The Book Author(s) or Editor(s).→Year.→Book Title.→City:→Publisher Name,→p**. number (optional if many scattered portions were used).

7.5. **Book chapter** (Example 3). **Chapter Author(s). →Chapter title.→In:→Editor Names (Eds.) →Year.→Book Title.→City:→Publisher Name.→pp.** numbers. The chapter title is written in lowercase except for the first word and proper nouns, and is followed by <u>In</u>: *Book Title*. In the ***Book Title***, uppercase is given to the first letter of each word except prepositions and articles, and *the Book Title is italicized*. Page numbers for the full chapter are designated by **p.** or **pp.** followed by the numbers. Caution: pp. 128–136 but NOT pp. 128–36.

7.6. Journal *articles* or book *chapters* having 7 or more authors may list the first 4 authors followed by et al.

7.7. Japanese references. **Preferred:** If your article is in English, then in your References put the Japanese author names in Roman characters and paraphrase the title of the Article referred to. At the end, say *In Japanese* (Example 5). **Alternative:** Currently, the References may use either Japanese or Roman characters; even if you write the reference in Japanese characters (Example 6), enter it into the single list of References either by citation order or by alphabet and number.

7.8. Numbered references to personal communications, unpublished work, or manuscripts "in preparation" or "submitted" are unacceptable.

7.9. **Examples:**

1. Gledhill C. 2000. The discourse function of collocation in research article introductions. *English for Specific Purposes* **19**: 115–136.
2. Sinclair JM. 1991. *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. p. 78.
3. Nylenna M and Hagve TA. Small journals and non-English language journals. <u>In</u>: F. Godlee, T Jefferson (eds). 1999. *Peer Review in Health Sciences.* London: BMJ Books. pp. 112–121.
4. Sackett DL, Rosenberg WMC, Gray JAM, Haynes RB, and Richardson WS. 1999. Evidence-based medicine: What it is and what it isn't. <http.//www.cebm.net/ebm_is_isnt.asp> (Accessed December, 2004).
5. Hishida H and Hirano M. 2003. Teaching material using Web site information on nursing. *Medical English* **4**(2): 41–44. In Japanese.
6. 井上真紀，佐藤利哉，神田和幸．2004．コミュニケーションから見た看護事情の改善の必要性．*Medical English* **5**(1): 51–58.
7. SAS User's Guide. 1989. 4th edn. Vol. 1. Version 6. Gary, NC: SAS Institute.

8. Submission of the paper

8.1. A manuscript will be considered for publication with the understanding that it is being submitted solely to *Journal of Medical English Education* and that all pertinent sources of support and information have been acknowledged. Submission of an article implies that the work has not been published elsewhere (except perhaps as an Abstract in a conference Program or Proceedings) and that the work does, in fact, belong to the author(s) named on the Title Page.

8.2. Submit the manuscript by e-mail attachment to < **jasmee@medicalview.co.jp**>.

8.3. If the manuscript cannot be sent by e-mail attachment, then send the file on CD or floppy disk accompanied by three sets of the printed manuscript, to:

Editorial Section, J Med Eng Educ,
Medical View Co., Ld.
2-30 Ichigaya–honmuracho, Shinjuku-ku
Tokyo 162–0845, JAPAN
Phone +81-3-5228-2274 Fax +81-3-5228-2062
E-mail: jasmee@medicalview.co.jp

Submitted material will not be returned unless a return envelope and sufficient postage are provided by the author(s).

8.4. The "Transfer of Copyright" must be signed by all authors and sent to the JASMEE office (**8.3** above) by regular post. The *Consent of Submission* form appears at the end of each issue.

8.5. The authors are responsible for obtaining written permission to reproduce materials that have been published or that involve the property or privacy of anyone other than the authors. Infringement or violation of rights includes the use of copyrighted materials such as figures or tables, the use of photographs that may identify an individual, and quotation of unpublished results or private communications.

8.6. The studies presented in manuscripts must follow ethical considerations which should be disclosed. In addition, each author must reveal any financial support or relationships that may pose potential conflict of interest. Conflict of interest exists when an author (or the author's institution), reviewer, or editor has financial or personal relationships that inappropriately influence (bias) his or her actions (such relationships are also known as dual commitments, competing interests, or competing loyalties).

9. Japanese Articles

When writing an article in Japanese, follow the English Guidelines in addition to providing English in the following places: (**1**) Just beneath the Japanese title of the article, provide an **English Title**; (**2**) put the **Author's Name(s)** in Roman characters under the Japanese Name(s); (**3**) name the **Institution and Department** in Roman characters just below the same author affiliations in Japanese; (**4**) provide the **Abstract** in English only.

10. Student submissions

10.1. Articles prepared by students will be considered on a limited basis. All student manuscripts are subject to the Guidelines for Authors, and the Title Page must include the name of a teacher or tutor, possibly a co-author, who will serve as the contact person throughout the editorial process. Provide e-mail addresses and telephone and fax numbers where the Editors might reach someone for consultation even after the student author has graduated.

10.2. WJEMA articles, speeches, presentations, debates, and short communications must include a Title Page listing a teacher and/or other contact person with e-mail addresses and telephone and fax numbers where the Editors might reach someone for consultation even though the student author may have graduated.

11. Review of Manuscripts

All manuscripts except Special Articles will be evaluated by 1 or 2 reviewers assigned by the Editors.

12. Proofreading

Galley proofs of accepted manuscripts will be sent to the authors shortly before publication of the *Journal*. Typographical errors and errors in the data will be corrected upon return of the proofs, preferably by e-mail attachment or fax, within 48 hours, to the JASMEE Office.

13. Reprints

Reprints are available free of charge for 20 copies or fewer when ordered with the returning of the proofs. The cost of copies exceeding the first 20 will be charged to the author(s).

Guidelines for Authors (February 20, 2009)

Journal of Medical English Education 投稿規定

1. Article categories and Journal aims

日本医学英語教育学会（JASMEE）の公式出版物，*Journal of Medical English Education*，は医学関連領域における英語学習・英語教育に関する記事を広く掲載する。医学関連領域とは臨床医学，看護，リハビリテーション，歯科，臨床検査技師の分野，研究を含む。また，医学英語論文の読解，執筆，国際学会での口頭発表，フォーラム，セミナー，シンポジウム，ワークショップへの参加等の国際的活動も掲載する。

掲載する記事の分野としては特別講演，原著論文，short communication，および letter がある。特別講演（Special Article）は編集者からの依頼があったもの，あるいは JASMEE の年次総会での招待講演やシンポジウム参加者による講演である。原著は研究成果を発表する論文であり，新たな知見を含み，課題・問題・仮説に対する検証が行われた研究の成果に限る。教育実践事例，アンケート調査等は short communication である。

2. Preparing the manuscript

2.1. 投稿原稿は日本語でも英語でもよい。

2.2. 投稿原稿は Macintosh または Windows/Dos のいずれかで提出する。

2.3. 英語の場合，用紙の設定は A4 サイズに 25～26 行，英語の文字サイズは 12 ポイント，フォントは Times New Roman，Arial，Times，Century 等の一般的なものを使用。

マージンは左側は 30 mm，右側は 25 mm，上は 30 mm，下は 25 mm 空ける。総ページ数はタイトルページ，本文，図表，参考文献全てを含んで 20～24 ページまでとする。

2.4. タイトルページを1とし，図表を含む最後の参考文献のページまで，全てのページに一連のページ番号を振る。

2.5. 原稿は protection tool 等使用しないで通常のページレイアウトで投稿する。

2.6. Footnotes, op cit, Ibid 等は使用しない。

3. Title Page

タイトルページに記載する事項の順

3.1. 内容を明確に表す簡明なタイトルを最初のページの上，中央に記載する。英語のタイトルが2行にわたる時は1行目が2行目より少し長くなるようにする。省略，定式はできるだけ避ける。例えば，SLA と書かずに Second-language Acquisition と書く。副題は通常用いない。タイトルそのものに必要な情報を書き込む方がよい。

3.2. 著者名と所属機関。著者の合意のもとで，順にフルネームを記載。ただし学位（Dr./PhD 等）はここでは記載しない。著者が異なる機関に所属している場合は * の印を用いる。次の 3.3 に示すように * の印は著者名およびその後のカンマの後に付ける。例：Jun Suzuki,* Arnold Palmer** and Helen Keller*（Suzuki と Keller は同じ機関に所属，を示す）

3.3. 研究が行われた所属機関名および正式な所属部署名，都道府県名，都市名を記載する（国外の場合は State, Nation）。著者が異なる機関に所属する場合は，所属機関名の前に * の印を付ける。

例　*ABC Medical University, English Department, Nanai, Hokkaido

**XYZ Medical University, School of Nursing, Maebashi, Gunma

3.4. Keywords: 論文検索に役立つ keywords または short phrases を6つまで記載できる。

3.5. Corresponding author: 編集過程に連絡の窓口となる著者1名の名前，役職名，所属機関名，部署名，住所，電話/FAX 番号，e-mail address を記載。

3.6. 著者全員の電話/FAX 番号および e-mail address

3.7. 口頭あるいはポスター等で学会発表したもの（一部でも）に関しては，タイトルページの下に，学会名，主催団体名，開催日，場所を明記する。

4. Abstract

4.1. 250 English words（A4 サイズ，約1ページ）以内。1ページに収めるためには必要に応じて 11 point を使用。

4.2. 研究の Background（背景）を1～2文で述べる（6.3 参照）。次に研究の目的を1文で述べ，Methods（study design, study population, protocol）を過去形で書き，Results 結果（main findings or major contribution）も過去形で書く。最後に Conclusion（recommendations）を現在形で書く。単に「～を調査した」，とか「本稿は～を調べたものである」というような表現ではなく，具体的に述べること。

5. Text

5.1. American English でも British English でも構わないがどちらかに統一し，混ぜないこと。

5.2. パラグラフを改めるときは最初の行を下げる（indent

する）こと。

5.3. 略語の使用は最低限にとどめ，使用する場合には初出時に必ずfull termで表記し，その直後にカッコ書きで省略語を記載すること。

例：English as a foreign language (EFL)

文系，自然科学系の論文共に e.g. (for example)，i.e. (that is, namely) は前後にカンマを入れること。

mm，cm，μL，L，mgのような標準（SI）単位はそのまま使用可能だが，数字を伴って使うこと。記号およびメートル単位にはピリオドを付けない。Sec，min，hのような時間の単位は数字と共に使用するが複数形にはしない。文の中で単位の省略を使う時は必ず数字を伴って使うこと。Inchの省略in.のようにピリオドなしでは混乱を招くようなものにはピリオドを付ける。

例：The test was 80 min long. (acceptable)
The test took several min. (wrong)
For most students, an h was enough time. (wrong)

5.4. Reference citation. 本文中で引用文献を示すには，論文の文献（References）セクションと一致する番号を上付き数字で示す。文，段落または引用個所の最後に上付数字をカッコなしで表示すること。該当する参考文献が２つ以上ある場合は上付数字の間にカンマを付けるが，間はあけない。

5.5. 所謂Harvard system，別名American Psychological Association (APA) systemなどで使われるカッコ内に表示するauthor-and-dateの引用法は本誌では現在使用していない。

6. Arrangement of the article

6.1. 論文は明確にセクションに分けるか番号を付けて分ける。Subsectionsには1.1（さらには1.1.1，1.1.2）のように番号を付けていく。

6.2. 各subsectionには短いheadingがあると便利である。例えば論文の中で，「前述のように」というより，「前のセクション1.1.3で述べたように」とか「1.1.3で後述するように」あるいは「Evaluationのセクションで述べたように」という方が分かりやすい。

6.3. Introductionでは，まず一般的なテーマや分野について１～２文で述べる。例えば，「学生の聴解力をいかに向上させるかは教師，特に医学生の教育担当者にとって大きな関心事である。（How to help students hone their English listening skills is a standing concern of teachers, and especially for those teaching medical students.）」と述べ，その後，論理あるいは論文の問題提起を続け，論文の目的やアプローチを述べる。

6.4. Methodsでは，study designやclassroom trialについて過去形で簡潔に説明する。例えば，調査した学生の人数，学年，調査資料に何を使用したか（当てはまる場合は何年から何年まで），どのような調査を行なったのか，等をしっかり記載する。Methodsが長い場合は見出し（subheads）を付けて分ける。

6.5. ResultsとDiscussionは著者の好みで，同じセクションに書かれる場合と別立てで書かれる場合がある。各調査結果は過去形を用いて述べられるが，その結果についてのdiscussionや一般化して述べる場合は現在形か現在進行形で述べる。

6.6. Conclusionは通常，Discussionの中の最後のsubdivisionか段落であるが，論文本体の最後の独立したセクションになることもある。ConclusionはResultsセクションで述べられたことの繰り返しではなく，その結果の意義の概要を現在形で述べる。

6.7. Acknowledgmentsは，この研究に関してデータ収集，分析，原稿，助成金等でお世話になった方への感謝の気持ちを述べたい場合に，論文本体の最後とReferencesの間に挿入する。

6.8. Figure legends，tables，figuresは，それぞれのtable（表）やfigure（図）のおおよその位置が本文に示されていれば，この順で，論文の最後に順にまとめることができる。各tableには論文の本文に出てくる順に一連の番号を付し，一番上に番号とともにそれぞれに簡単なタイトルも付ける。表の注釈（table footnotes）は，最後の行のすぐ下に書く。特別な場合を除いてtableの中に縦の線は不要である。Figureが入っている場合，番号と説明はfigureの下に書く。

7. References（引用文献）

7.1. 必要に応じて編集者が形態を統一できるよう，EndNote，ProCite等のReferences用のソフトウェアは使用しない。

7.2. 引用順（the Vancouver Method を一部修正）。

論文本文中で引用した順にreferencesのリストを作る。まず著者の姓を，次に名前の頭文字をpunctuationなしで書く。（**7.9.**参照）

7.3. 雑誌論文（Journal article）の表記（Example 1）：

Author(s) → Year → Article title → *Journal Title* → **Volume**(Issue number, optional) → page numbersの順に記載する。

Article titleは最初の１文字と固有名詞以外は小文字。Journal Titleは各語の最初は大文字にし，イタリック体でフル表記する。「Vol.」という表記は入れな

いがvolume numberは太文字で書かれ，その後通常のコロン，そしてページ番号が続く。

5(1):64–65を**5**(1):64–5と略して表記しないこと。また，Journalの場合はページを示すp.とかpp. は表記せず，数字のみを表記する。

7.4. 単行本(Book)の表記(Example 2)： Book Author(s)またはEditor(s). →Year. →*Book Title.* → City: → Publisher Name → p. number（分散しているページからの引用の場合は任意）

7.5. 単行本中の一部の章(Book chapter)の表記(Example 3)： Chapter Author(s). →Chapter title. → In: → Editor Names (Eds.) → Year. → *Book Title.* → City: → Publisher Name → pp. numbers.

章(Chapter)のタイトルは最初の1文字と固有名詞以外は小文字で記載され, その後In: *Book Title*が続く。Book Titleは，前置詞と冠詞以外は各語の第1文字を大文字にし，イタリック体で書く。引用するchapterのページはp.またはpp.と，それに続く数字で表記する。ただしpp. 126–136をpp. 126–36と表記しないこと。

7.6. Journal articleやbook chapterで著者が7名以上いる場合は，最初の4名を記載し，その後et al.と書く。

7.7. 日本語の引用文献について．**好ましい方法：**投稿原稿が英語の場合，著者の名前はローマ字で表記し，引用文献のタイトルをわかりやすく言い換える(パラフレーズする)また，終わりにIn Japaneseと付ける(**7.9** 例5参照)。**その他の方法として：**現在，日本語の引用文献は日本語でもローマ字でもよい。その場合，引用文献が日本語で書かれていても英語のリストと日本語のリストに分けることはせず，一つのリストにすべてを引用順，あるいはアルファベットと番号順(**7.9** 例6参照)に並べる。

7.8. 私信，未発表のもの，準備中ないし投稿中の原稿は引用文献に含めない。

7.9. 引用文献の表記例：

1. Gledhill C. 2000. The discourse function of collocation in research article introductions. *English for Specific Purposes* **19**: 115–136.
2. Sinclair JM. 1991. *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation.* Oxford: Oxford University Press. p. 78.
3. Nylenna M and Hagve TA. Small journals and non-English language journals. In: F. Godlee, T Jefferson (eds). 1999. *Peer Review in Health Sciences.* London: BMJ Books. pp. 112–121.
4. Sackett DL, Rosenberg WMC, Gray JAM, Haynes RB, and Richardson WS. Evidence-based medicine: What it is and what it isn't. <http://www.cebm.net/ebm_is_isnt.asp> (Accessed December, 2004).
5. Hishida H and Hirano M. 2003. Teaching material using Web site information on nursing. *Medical English* **4**(2): 41–44. In Japanese.
6. 井上真紀，佐藤利哉，神田和幸．2005. コミュニケーションから見た看護事情の改善の必要性．*Medical English* **5**(1): 51–58.
7. SAS User's Guide. 1989. 4th edn. Vol. 1. Version 6. Gary, NC: SAS Institute.

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English Guidelinesに従うこと。

また，以下の4項目に英語を加筆する。
①日本語の論文題目のすぐ下に英語のタイトルを書く。
②日本語の著者名の下にローマ字表記の名前を書く。
③日本語の所属機関名の下にローマ字表記も書く。
④ 英語のAbstractを書く。

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* *Guidelines for Authors* in both English and Japanese can be downloaded from the following webpage（本ガイドラインならびに日本語投稿用のガイドラインは，下記のホームページでもご覧いただけます）：<http://www.medicalview.co.jp/jasmee/journal.shtml>

巻頭言
さらなる日本医学英語教育学会の発展のために

日本医学英語教育学会誌9巻2号をお届けできることを喜ばしく存じます。本誌の母体である日本医学英語教育学会は，今年度を期して大きく変容しようとしています。学会理事会で慎重に審議されてきた結果が，平成22年7月の議事総会で示されます。本誌購読者の多くは学会会員ですので，学会の変革は本誌にも大きな影響があります。

日本医学英語教育学会は1998年に創設されてから徐々に発展し，現在会員数が約450名の学会です。医療系高等教育で，教員と医療関係者が一般的な英語のみならず医療に係わる英語を如何に教育するかの悩みを分かち合うことが学会の原点であったかと思います。以来，本学会は医学英語教育という教育に係わる研究・実践の交流の場を提供してきました。会員の多くは，英語教育に係わる教員と医療系教育に係わる教員で，それに医学英語編集などに係わる教育者・研究者等が加わっています。現在では，学術集会・学会誌だけでなく医学英語検定制度など高い社会的貢献となる活動にも事業が拡がっています。

組織の発展には，会員の希望や社会の動向も反映しながら学会としての方針を打ち出し，計画・実行する体制が必要となります。運営には適切な財務管理も必要です。同じ興味を持った少人数の同志の集まりであった学会を，会員が増え多様化した現状に合わせた学会運営へと前進させる必要性が昨年度の理事会で提案されました。その後学会のあり方を検討する会議がもたれました。あり方委員会の提言書はそのまま本号に掲載されています。提言書をもとに理事会で学会の管理・運営・計画・執行体制について検討が行われました。その結果が平成22年度議事総会で会員に提示されます。本学会は拡大してきたとはいえ，まだ会員一人ひとりの参加が重要な意義を持つ組織です。新しい体制案には，多くの会員が学会に貢献することで学会を発展させてもらいたいという「願い」が込められています。7月の議事総会では「願い」を現実にするための構想と，構想を実現するための会則の修正案，新規程案などが提案され，会員の理解を得られることで新体制作りの第一歩が始まります。

本誌は学会機関誌として学会改革についての記録を文書として残さなくてはなりません。会員の皆様が平成22年7月4日の議事総会に参加され，学会が次の一歩を進むための決断に寄与していただき，その結果が次号に掲載されることを願って本号をお届けします。

日本医学英語教育学会
編集責任者
吉岡 俊正
（東京女子医科大学医学教育学）

Mutual Exchange of Papers between *the Journal of Medical English Education* and *The Write Stuff*

Starting with the present volume, *the Journal of Medical English Education* has entered into an agreement with *the Write Stuff*, journal of the European Medical Writers Association (EMWA). The arrangement will enable both journals to benefit from articles and papers published by each other and will, hopefully, help in widening the horizons of members of both societies.

This cooperation between our two journals, which have mutual interests in promoting high quality medical English but target different audiences, will strengthen JASMEE's standing outside Japan.

本号からヨーロッパの医学論文作成校閲者団体であるEMWAの会誌である*The Write Stuff*との，論文相互掲載を開始します。両雑誌編集委員が互いの最新の論文から選び，著者の了解のもとに掲載します。JASMEEとEMWAの目指すものは異なる部分もありますが，異文化との交流で新しい考えや知見に接することができると思います。一方で本誌の論文が国外で紹介される事を通じて，学会の国際化，論文投稿の活性化となることを願います。

Journal of Medical English Education
English Editor **Reuben M. Gerling**
日本語編集責任者　**吉岡 俊正**

About *The Write Stuff*

By Elise Langdon

European Medical Writers Association (EMWA) is the network of professionals that represents, supports and trains medical communicators in Europe. The association was created in 1992 and currently has almost 1000 members from 35 countries worldwide. EMWA's members include medical writers (regulatory, medical communications, medical education), medical journal editors, medical translators, researchers, clinical research personnel, and many other related professions.

The Write Stuff (*TWS*), which has been established for over 10 years, is EMWA's official journal. The journal is published quarterly and has seen an increase in size from an average of 32 pages per issue in 2006 to its current average of 70 pages. The electronic version of the journal is posted online in the Members Only section of EMWA's website (www.emwa.org) but archived volumes are publically accessible and fully searchable. The print version is delivered to members as a benefit of membership and is also available on subscription. Each issue has a theme. Those for 2009 were Regulatory writing, Scientific writing, Statistics and Medical Communications. Regular columns and sections include a Translation and a Freelance section, a Linguistics corner, a book review section, the Webscout highlighting useful websites, Journal watch reporting on articles of interest published in other journals, letters to the editor, a words and grammar section and a section reporting developments in biomedical publishing.

[Original Article]

"Convenience Editors" Face Significant Challenges in the Preparation of English-language Manuscripts

Ian Willey* and Kimie Tanimoto**

* Center for Research and Educational Development in Higher Education, Kagawa University

** School of Nursing, Faculty of Medicine, Kagawa University

Background and Objective. Japanese researchers often seek editorial help from colleagues who are native-English-speaking (NES) English instructors before submitting English-language manuscripts to academic journals. However, English instructors face many difficulties when editing manuscripts produced by researchers in scientific or medical fields. This study sought to identify approaches and attitudes towards editing held by NES English instructors at universities in Japan.

Methods. Five NES English instructors were asked to edit an English abstract written by a Japanese nursing researcher. Text-based interviews following a semi-structured protocol were then conducted with each participant. Major themes and sub-themes were identified in interview transcripts.

Results. Four major themes related to 1) the edited abstract; 2) the participant as editor; 3) the editing situation; and 4) editors and authors. Technical terminology as well as a lack of familiarity with nursing publications posed the greatest difficulty to participants. Participants approached the editing task with diverse goals, involving the language and organization of the abstract, and concerns for preserving the author's intended meaning and voice. Participants hold varying attitudes towards editing colleagues' writing; generally consider some form of interaction with authors to be necessary; are interested in authors' language development; and tend to want recognition for their editorial efforts.

Conclusion. Interaction between English instructors working as authors' editors and the authors themselves appears to be crucial. Japanese authors as well as universities should recognize the challenges faced by English instructors when editing medical or scientific manuscripts, and take steps to ensure that effective editing can occur.

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Keywords: authors' editors; English abstracts; proofreading; semi-structured interviews

1. Introduction

International academic journals, as well as English journals produced in Japan, often require authors whose first language is not English to have a native English speaker (NES) proofread their work before submission.[1,2] However, in English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) contexts such as Japan, procuring a reliable "native check" can be challenging. Editorial services are available, but expensive.[3] Moreover, authors may have difficulty communicating with editors and translators, causing uncertainty about the substantive and linguistic accuracy of the edited work.[4]

An alternative is for authors to consult a NES colleague, typically an English instructor who is not a professional editor or translator.[5] The authors of this paper call this practice "convenience editing." Research suggests that convenience editors face several challenges when editing. First, English instructors are likely to be unfamiliar with terminology and writing conventions in authors' fields.[6] Editors may thus unwittingly damage authors' English-language manuscripts in their revisions.[7] Busy schedules may also prevent editor and author from communicating, forcing the author to struggle alone, correcting with uncertainty.[3] Consultation between author and editor is considered crucial.[8] The editor's ability to provide feedback in an author's native

Corresponding author:
Ian Willey
Assistant Professor, M.A. (TESL)
Center for Research and Educational Development in Higher Education, Kagawa University
1-1 Saiwai-cho, Takamatsu, Kagawa 760-8521
Tel: 087-832-1578
Fax: 087-882-0684
E-mail: ianwill@cc.kagawa-u.ac.jp

language may also be important.[9] However, not all NES English instructors in Japan are able to provide feedback in Japanese. Furthermore, instructors who have lived in a foreign context for many years may have experienced attrition of their English skills, causing them to miss problems in authors' manuscripts.[10] Moreover, editors may only be able to make superficial changes, and fail to recognize deeper flaws in content and wording.[11] However, simple lexicogrammatical problems or other non-native features of a manuscript may not concern many journal editors or their reviewers, who focus on content more than expression.[12] Finally, some frustrated checkers may simply edit a manuscript quickly and without much attention simply to be free of it.[13]

English for specific purposes (ESP) researchers have begun to recognize the difficulties faced by authors' editors. A recent interview study has explored the practices and beliefs of proofreaders working at a university in the U.K.[14] However, that study centered on the proofreading of papers to be submitted for a grade, not for publication, and those proofreaders generally advertise and receive payment for their services, unlike many English instructors in Japan. To our knowledge, the methods and attitudes towards editing of authors' editors in an EFL context have not been substantially investigated. We were particularly interested in long-term English instructors in Japan who, like one of the authors of this paper, regularly edit manuscripts produced by researchers in medical and scientific fields, mainly because they happen to be positioned near these researchers.

To this end, we conducted an exploratory interview study with NES English instructors working at universities in Japan. It was hoped that this study would build towards an awareness in Japanese universities of the challenges faced by English teachers acting as editors, as well as their goals and attitudes towards editing.

2. Methods

2.1. Participants

Five NES English instructors working full-time at Japanese universities agreed to participate in this study. Selection of participants was based upon these English instructors' editing experience, the amount of time they had spent in Japan, and an apparent willingness to participate. All participants had lived in Japan for at least 10 years. To ensure confidentiality, participants will be referred to as C1, C2, C3, C4, and C5.

2.2. Editing Task

First, participants were asked to edit the first draft of an English abstract written by a Japanese nursing researcher, who consented to have the abstract used in this study. This abstract had been written as a presentation proposal for an international conference (Appendix 1). Participants made changes to this abstract directly on paper, and were asked to circle points where they considered consultation with the author necessary.

2.3. Interviews

After the completed editing task was returned, an interview was arranged with each participant. Interviews were text-based, focused on the edited abstract, and followed a semi-structured protocol (Appendix 2). The objective of the interviews was to identify difficulties participants experienced in the editing task, as well as to elucidate participants' editing goals and attitudes towards editing. After the purpose and procedures for this study were explained, all participants gave written consent to participate. Interviews were between 30 minutes to an hour in length, were audio-recorded and fully-transcribed. Transcripts were viewed by each participant to clarify points and check for accuracy of transcription.

2.4. Coding of Data

Transcripts were then analyzed, and passages were coded by the first author of this paper, a native English speaker, based upon themes expressed. Passages considered unrelated to the topic of editing English-language manuscripts (for instance, statements about teaching methods) were not coded. Both authors discussed and negotiated the emerging coding framework, and feedback was received from a NES professor with extensive experience in qualitative data analysis. One month after settling upon a coding framework the first author re-coded a randomly selected sample of passages (approximately 20% of the data) to test intra-rater reliability, and the results indicated strong agreement with the first coding (*kappa* = 0.87; Microsoft Excel 2007).

3. Results

3.1. Major Themes and Sub-themes

A total of 21 sub-themes were identified and grouped into four thematic categories: 1) the edited abstract; 2) the participant as editor; 3) the editing situation; and 4) editors and authors (Table 1). The following sections will highlight the most prominent sub-themes in each category.

3.2. The Edited Abstract

Most statements and questions that related to the abstract edited by all participants centered on the abstract's requirements, its language quality, its organizational quality and the design of the study described in the abstract.

3.2.1. Abstract requirements

Three participants stated that they found the editing task difficult because they did not know where the abstract would be sent, who would read it, and what guidelines it must follow (for instance, the maximum length). The directions for the editing task only stated that "[t]he abstract will be sent as a presentation proposal to a major international conference, and the author hopes for the abstract to be flawless, as though it were written by a native English speaker."

3.2.2. Language quality

Participants evaluated the language quality of the abstract both positively and negatively, with all participants mixing criticism and praise to varying degrees. Language problems noted included spelling and grammatical errors, inappropriate collocations, "Japanese English" usages, and inconsistent use of terms. C1, C2, and C4 were least critical of the abstract's language quality; C1 and C2 both called it "understandable," better than many they have read; C4 praised it as having been produced by a skilled English writer, though obviously not "native." C5 was more critical, giving up halfway through the task and writing a note to the author stating that "the abstract needs a complete rewrite" (though like C1 and C2, C5 stated that the abstract was understandable).

C3 was also critical of the English quality, stating that the discourse style differed from that expected of English writing:

> The conclusion struck me as a...typically Japanese ending, which is sort of this vague idea about how things concluded rather than clearly pointing out the steps that were taken, the result that was accomplished.

3.2.3. Organizational quality

Organizational problems noted included unclear and multiple objectives, redundancies, and information in the Results section that seemed to belong in Methods. C4 expressed confusion about the headings for each section (common in structured medical abstracts[15]), and wondered if the abstract should be written as one paragraph—though C4 admitted that the headings did make the abstract easier to follow, and that the author clearly understood the function of each section.

3.2.4. Study design

C3 and C5 stated that the study should have used multiple subjects rather than only one. C3 was perhaps most critical of the overall design of the study, stating that the study lacked novelty and could not be considered groundbreaking research.

3.3. The Participant as Editor

Statements related to participants' views of themselves as editors fell mainly into three sub-themes: familiarity with medical genres, attitudes towards editing, and editors' English skills.

Table 1. Major themes and sub-themes in interview transcripts

I. The edited abstract (3.2)	**III. The editing situation (3.4)**
1. abstract requirements (3.2.1)	11. language-related editing goals (3.4.1)
2. language quality (3.2.2)	12. ethical concerns (3.4.2)
3. organizational quality (3.2.3)	13. editing process (3.4.3)
4. study design	14. editing medium
5. abstract content	15. other editing goals
6. translation issues	16. evaluation of own editing skills
II. Participant as editor (3.3)	**IV. Editors and authors (3.5)**
7. familiarity with medical genre (3.3.1)	17. author-editor relationship (3.5.1)
8. attitude towards editing (3.3.2)	18. editing and language development (3.5.2)
9. editors' own English skills (3.3.3)	19. recognition for editing (3.5.3)
10. attitude towards language	20. general questions for authors
	21. thoughts about author/authors

3.3.1. Familiarity with medical genres

Four of the five participants mentioned a lack of familiarity with the form and vocabulary of medical abstracts as a significant obstacle in editing the abstract. C1 stated that seeing an already published example would have been helpful; C2 and C3 both expressed uncertainty about the meaning of words, and whether or not they were used correctly; C4 stated that some collocations that C4 would never use are commonly used in medical publications, making editing difficult.

3.3.2. Attitudes towards editing

Participants expressed diverse attitudes towards editing, which can change in different editing situations. C1 claimed to "absolutely despise" the editing of non-EFL manuscripts, stating that being "hopeless at accuracy" causes second-guessing and much frustration. C3 finds editing to be stimulating at times, but added that colleagues' requests for editorial help can cause irritation, even physical and mental pain when long manuscripts are involved. C2 stated that editing can be enjoyable, appealing to C2's methodical nature, but noted that editing requests often come at busy times, and authors sometimes give little time to get the work done properly. Also, lengthy manuscripts as well as a lack of familiarity with the topic can cause uncertainty and frustration. Both C4 and C5 stated that editing can be enjoyable because it makes them read about subjects they ordinarily would never read about, and in the process they learn interesting things. C4 also enjoys seeing what other people are researching, and what kind of writing problems they have. C5 added, however, that enjoyment of editing is limited to full-length papers:

> [With abstracts] you don't have any mental or emotional investment in the final product...but with a paper, especially if you've had to read about the subject to be able to do a good job, you've invested something in it and you have an interest in the outcome.

3.3.3. Editors' own English skills

The subject of the editors' own English skills emerged in three interviews. C5 stated half-jokingly that the abstract was understandable because C5 had been in Japan "for so long." C4 touched on the notion of language attrition indirectly, joking that C4 does not "speak English very well any more." C2 spoke with more gravity about this issue:

> For the language proficiency interview [of the TOEIC]...the top level is what they call a WENS, a well-educated native speaker...I would class myself as a former well-educated native speaker in the sense that I don't live in an English-speaking community so a few things will slip by me when I go back to [Country]...just the fact that a native speaker's checking it doesn't mean you're going to get a good check at all.

3.4. The Editing Situation

Statements related to the editing situation—how participants edited the abstract used in this study, and how they edit in general—fell largely into three sub-themes: language-related editing goals, ethical concerns, and the editing process.

3.4.1. Language-related editing goals

Four of the five interviewees stated that their attention to the language of a manuscript to be edited will depend on the manuscript's intended audience. For non-technical manuscripts, C1 aims to make the language clear and understandable to non-specialists, and C1 judged the abstract edited in this study to be non-technical. "Small grammatical errors" that an editor would probably catch can be overlooked. For technical manuscripts, however, C1 does aim for accuracy. Both C2 and C4 stated that they adjust the language with the audience in mind; if the manuscript will primarily be read by Japanese readers, for instance in an in-house journal produced by a Japanese university, minor errors can be overlooked. International journals, however, have stricter standards.

Setting native-like accuracy as a basic goal was expressed by two participants. For C3, a "native-speaker standard" is the primary goal when editing a manuscript. C5 also aims for native-speaker accuracy, adding that this is why authors come to C5 in the first place.

3.4.2. Ethical concerns

Related to the notion of native-speaker accuracy are ethical concerns that guide participants in their editing efforts. C1 attempts to preserve authors' writing style, personality and ideas, because "it's their paper." C1 does not want to impose C1's own writing style and voice upon the manuscript. Similarly, C2 is highly conscious of the power of editorial corrections, and tries to make corrections sparingly so as not to adversely affect the meaning.

C3 and C4 addressed the ethical implications of correcting manuscripts produced by Japanese students and researchers. C3 disagrees with colleagues who believe that altering students' manuscripts is a form of appropriation which should be avoided. C3 will make necessary corrections in order to bring a manuscript produced by a colleague, student or friend "up to a native-speaker standard." C4 also addressed this issue of appropriation:

> When I deal with native speakers who are writing in English, when I start re-writing a lot I start feeling like, be careful of ownership issues...it has to be their paper. I feel it's different between a non-native speaker and a native speaker...and for a Japanese person working in English, sometimes I'll just sit down and say, you should write it like this.

3.4.3. The editing process

Several statements revealed how editors individually go through the process of editing. C3 stated that, despite the errors in the abstract, years of editing experience enabled C3 to intuit the author's meaning and make necessary changes. C4 stated that usually several read-throughs are required when editing a manuscript, and that the "most obvious things" are usually edited first. The length of the manuscript, however, limits the number of times the manuscript can be read through.

C2 described the often intuitive thought-processes behind several revisions. For instance, "didn't fear" was changed to "wasn't afraid," because the former expression sounded "rather biblical" to C2. The use of "introvert" in describing a young girl also seemed inappropriate. When asked why "said" was changed to "commented" in two places, C2 responded that "commented" sounded better, and that sometimes it is difficult to explain the reason for making revisions.

3.5. Editors and Authors

All five interviewees referred to issues that come into play when editors and authors work together. Three prominent sub-themes were the author–editor relationship; editing and language development; and recognition for editing.

3.5.1. The author–editor relationship

Four of the five interviewees' statements touched upon the subject of a working relationship between authors and editors. For C3, editing is generally a one-step process, and C3 usually does not speak about manuscripts with their authors. C4 stated that sometimes there is some form of "back-and-forth" between C4 and an author. When time does not permit this, however, C4 will often write comments about the manuscript for the author to consider. C1 stated that while editing a manuscript C1 generally has contact with the author, through email, the telephone, or in person. C2 will often sit down with authors after C2 has edited a manuscript to check that the author understands the revisions and make sure that C2's changes have not introduced any errors. To do this C2 may paraphrase revised sentences in Japanese aloud to the author, or ask the author to paraphrase the original text in Japanese. After doing this, C2 will ask the author to send the second draft of the abstract back to C2, so that it can be given a final check.

C5 also considers it necessary to involve authors in the editing process. Working face-to-face, C5 said, helps prevent authors' feelings from being hurt by critical comments or suggestions. C5 tries to establish a positive relationship with the author, one which will continue into the future. C5 also spoke of the need for the author to treat C5 with "professional courtesy," by providing information that C5 needs to edit a manuscript. Providing a manuscript to be edited in MS-Word file form is part of this courtesy. Part of the reason that C5 stopped after editing the first half of the abstract was because C5 felt that the author had not extended professional courtesy, and in a real-life situation C5 would not have consented to edit such a manuscript.

3.5.2. Editing and authors' language development

Three of the five interviewees expressed concern over the language development of Japanese authors. C3 prefers using Microsoft Word when editing manuscripts because the "track changes" function enables authors to learn from corrections made. C5 stated that authors need to be "at least psychologically involved" in the editing process, a conviction that stems from the "teacher aspect" of C5. C4 views helping authors with their language development as a "professional obligation."

3.5.3. Recognition

Three interviewees mentioned the subject of recognition for editing work. Recognition here refers to some form of acknowledgment from authors or institutions, and not financial recognition. As the subject of receiving payment from colleagues for editorial work is a sensitive issue (some universities do not permit such work), this subject was avoided during the interviews.

C4 stated that authors and editors need to discuss the subject of recognition, and in some cases agree that the editor's name should be acknowledged in print. One reason that C5 prefers editing full-length papers over abstracts is because with papers the editors' names are acknowledged. C2 views such acknowledgments as being important to C2's career, and includes this information on a self-evaluation form that must be submitted annually at C2's university.

4. Discussion

Interview results indicate that the five participants in this study grapple with some of the same difficulties that confront English teachers editing colleagues' manuscripts for publication, as described in previous research.[4,14] A lack of familiarity with technical nursing terms, as well as discourse and organizational features in academic nursing publications, was one challenge. Three participants stated that they felt uncertainty when editing the abstract, and wanted to discuss features of the abstract with the author; one participant did not finish the task in part because of frustration resulting from a lack of information from the author. However, the other four participants completed the task, drawing from experience to guess the author's intent and to some extent draw from intuition to edit the abstract. Overall, a lack of discipline-specific knowledge in the participants did not appear to be an insurmountable obstacle.

Interestingly, editorial concerns extended beyond a language check, with three participants making critical statements about the abstract's organization, and two commenting on the design and methodology of the study described in the abstract. Participants appeared to take the task seriously. Even the participant who did not finish the task did so for principled reasons, and after having worked on the task for over an hour. It should be noted that participants whom the authors judged would take the task seriously were selected. However, if the amount of effort expended on this editing task is comparable to the amount of work these participants normally expend when editing, then editing is a task that participants approach with established principles and goals.

Also, participants appear to possess multiple approaches to editing, which for each editing situation are shaped by several variables, including how much time they have, how soon the author needs to have an edited manuscript returned, what kind of manuscript it is (and how long), and who will read the finished product. Though participants generally aim for a "native-speaker standard," for instance, they may be willing to allow some slightly "Japanesey" expressions, to use C2's term, when the text will primarily be read by Japanese readers. Also, for four of the five participants, the author's availability impacts how much effort participants are willing and/or able to expend on an editing task. If authors are unable or unwilling to engage in "back-and-forth" exchanges with the editors, either face-to-face or by email or telephone, then editors' questions and concerns will go unanswered, and the editors will only be able to do what they can and then let the edited manuscript go. C5's concern with authors' "professional courtesy," and with establishing positive relationships with authors that extend beyond the editing of one manuscript, indicates the importance of positive human relationships in editing situations. This study suggests that the effort that editors expend when editing may be determined less by editors' busy schedules or lack of discipline-specific knowledge, and more by a lack of availability or courtesy on the part of authors.

Moreover, statements made by three of the participants reveal the importance of editors receiving recognition for their work in an acknowledgment section or somewhere else attached to a paper or abstract. Two participants stated that they keep a record of edited manuscripts and include this when writing a self-evaluation for each year's work. These participants view editing as significant work which authors and Japanese universities should recognize.

Editors' attitudes towards editing are another matter demanding consideration. Two participants stated flatly that they "hate" editing, with one finding editing requests from colleagues to be an irritation. Three others were more positive, though their enjoyment of editing tasks is influenced by matters such as deadlines, their familiarity with the content, and authors' availability. Somewhat surprisingly, two participants spoke at length about what they learned by reading manuscripts in scientific and medical fields. Participants themselves seemed surprised by their own interest in topics completely outside their ordinary reading interests. Participants were also aware of their own strengths and weaknesses as editors, as well as the effect that life in Japan has had upon their English skills.

Last, as language professionals, participants expressed concern with the language development of authors. Two also stated that when possible they try to preserve authors' writing style and voice while editing. Editing is thus not simply a matter of correcting a manuscript and returning it to an author; editors hope that authors learn from their corrections and suggestions. This is a goal that has also been expressed by professional editors.[9,16] The role of editor and teacher thus merge in the editing process. In this matter, as well, a positive working relationship between editor and author appears to be essential.

Does convenience editing work? Can NES English teachers provide effective editorial support to colleagues in scientific or medical fields? This study was small in scope, and more extensive surveys involving randomly selected participants are required before generalizations can be made. However, our findings suggest that convenience editing can work, provided that Japanese authors recognize that their English teaching colleagues generally: 1) hold varying attitudes towards editing, some enjoying it and others finding it a burden; 2) need the author to provide them with information about a manuscript to be edited, including where it will be published and what requirements are imposed upon it; 3) hope to involve authors in the editing process, enabling the editor to ask questions and to check the accuracy of revisions; 4) are first and foremost language teachers. Ethical concerns such as appropriating authors' manuscripts may thus come into play in the act of editing; these teachers also have a natural interest in authors' language development; and 5) expect formal acknowledgment for their efforts.

5. Conclusion

The five participants in this study take editing seriously, and in general are willing to help colleagues shape up texts to be submitted for publication. In order for them to be able to do so, however, authors must provide editors with time and information, and become involved in the editing process—simple professional courtesy is the key. Japanese universities should also recognize the demands imposed upon English instructors by such extra work, and find ways to facilitate communication between authors and editors, as well as provide formal recognition for editors' efforts. English teachers may thus become better editors and authors' English writing skills may improve, resulting in better (and more publishable) English manuscripts.

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Appendix 1: Abstract used in the editing task

Effect of preparation for Pediatric Patient with the Anxiety about surgery

Background

Surgery can be anxious experience for everyone, especially for children. We, as pediatric care professionals, strive to reduce the negative impact of stressful situation and events that affect well-being of children..

Objectives

To clarify the effects of preoperative preparation on stress reduction in a school-aged child.

Method

The participant was a girl aged 7 years who was admitted for elective surgery. The design of this study was a single-case design. The data was obtained from the record of the preparation process, her words and behaviors and was analyzed. The consent was obtained from her and her mother after they were told about the purpose and the confidentiality.

Result

1. Before intervention (assessment): she had sleep disorder and a poor appetite and dependant on her mother badly. She had never spoken about the operation to the nurses.
2. Intervention:
   1) Assessment: Her anxiety were picked up from her behavior observation and her mother's information.
   2) Planning: The preparation was going to be performed on the day before the operation because she was 7 years old and an introvert. The preparation tool was Kiwanis Doll. She, her mother and the nurses played with the doll, drew the face and made the doll's hair and clothes. She said that the doll was she, regarded the doll as herself. It was taken good care (was fondled) with her transitional objects.
   3) She and her mother were invited to receive the preparation using Kiwanis doll with her transitional objects. It included a scenario that demonstrated how they would go through all of the perioperative procedures.
3. After intervention: It was like a fun drama and understandable. I would make my best, she said. She got good sleep and went to the operation-room without upsetting. I did it and didn't fear, she said after operation.

Conclusion

After intervention she commented affirmatively to the surgery and went to the operation with confidence. After surgery, she also obtained the achievement feeling. The preparation meets the cognitive development is effective in understanding and adaptation to operation in pediatric patients, and guides to produce the positive self-esteem.

Appendix 2: Interview protocol

1. Did you have any specific difficulties in editing this abstract? If so, please describe these difficulties.
2. If you could meet the author, what questions would you like to ask? (If any).
3. What are your impressions of the overall organization of this abstract?
4. What are your impressions of the language used in this abstract?
5. What were your goals in editing this abstract?
6. Do you enjoy this kind of editing work? Why or why not?
7. Is there anything else you would like to say about this abstract or the editing task?

[Original Article]
(Teaching Method)

Teaching the Question and Response Phase of Oral Presentations

Clive Langham
Nihon University School of Dentistry

Members of the medical profession need to master oral presentations to take an active role in the discourse community. Research on the genre has led to improvements in presentation skills' programs and teaching material. The question and response (Q&R) phase of the presentation remains, however, largely under-researched and represents a significant problem for novice members of the discourse community. This paper describes how changes were made to a standard presentation skills' program so that participants were given the opportunity to focus on the Q&R phase. The changes introduced were found to be effective in helping participants improve their performance in the Q&R phase and bring them closer to genre mastery.

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Keywords: English for Medical Purposes, oral presentations, question and response phase, discourse community, genre

1. Introduction

English for Medical Purposes (EMP) aims to provide instruction and practice in skills that novice members of discourse communities need to master to fit in professionally and socially. As investigation techniques have become more sophisticated, applied linguists have discovered more about the skills needed to function effectively in a particular discourse community. The skills required by members of the medical profession are various and include, among others, the following: writing papers and handling the correspondence involved in the submission process, such as replies to referees' comments, reading case reports and articles, giving and comprehending oral and poster presentations, taking part in formal and informal discussions at international conferences, acting as a chairperson, moderator or referee and so on. Some of these skills have come under very close scrutiny, resulting in improved knowledge of the genre, creation of teaching material that represents the genre more accurately and more effective programs. Others, however, because of their complexity and the difficulty involved in researching them have remained under-investigated, and are not adequately covered in EMP programs or standard teaching material. Accordingly, they represent significant challenges for novice members of the discourse community. One such genre is the Q&R phase of oral presentations.

Corresponding author:
Clive Langham
Professor, Nihon University School of Dentistry
Surugadai 1-8-13, Kanda, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 101-8310
Phone/Fax 03-3219-815
E-mail: langham@dent.nihon-u.ac.jp

2. Difficulties Presented by the Question and Response Phase

International conferences play a central role in communication among members of discourse communities with oral presentations being one of the main ways results are reported to the community.[1] This is particularly true for the medical profession.[2] For non-native speakers of English, the Q&R phase of oral presentations presents difficulties both for the presenter and the discussant—the member of the audience asking the question. The interaction can be unpredictable and displays linguistic and pragmatic features of spontaneous conversation unlike those of the preceding monologue, which can be considered a different genre.[3] The discussion relies on presenter and discussant jointly creating a meaningful discourse; however, underlying conflicts, group loyalty, and differences in stance may emerge, resulting in miscommunication, even between native or near-native speakers.

Another difficulty is presented by the range of questions that the presenter will need to answer. The audience will include people from the inner circle of specialists who know each other's work well and meet frequently on the conference circuit, and there will also be some attendees who are outside the inner circle and who cannot be classed as specialists in the field.[4] The reality is that the audience will be mixed, and this will account for the range of questions that typically occur in the discussion phase of the presentation, making it very difficult for novice presenters to both predict and handle questions. Additionally, discussants will try to relate the presented data to their own work and press for information that will benefit their own position. Presenters, meanwhile, will be reluctant to reveal complete data or too much information about their ongoing research work.[3] A certain proportion of questions will involve criticism or some kind of attack on the presenter's position, and these have been classified by a number of researchers as 'bashing.'[5] Questions directly critical of the presentation are reported to be in the region of 30 percent of all questions asked during the Q&R phase.[6] However, I would estimate that questions critical of the presentation are more in the region of 10 percent of the total number of questions, although this may vary depending on the field and participants. There is here, of course, the problem of classification of questions and the fact that seemingly innocuous questions may have an underlying critical agenda, the function of which may not be immediately obvious, particularly to researchers investigating the genre who do not have a scientific background. Other factors that create difficulties for novice presenters are the extensive use of hedging devices, such as shields and approximators, and discourse markers expressing modesty and uncertainty.[3] The various varieties of English used by participants may also be a cause of communication breakdown. All of the above factors present formidable barriers for novice presenters, and it is not surprising that even experienced presenters report problems in the Q&R phase of the presentation.

3. What Strategies do Presenters Use to Cope with the Question and Response Phase?

People involved in teaching presentation skills will have noted significant improvements in recent years in the quality of presentations given by Japanese presenters. These are due to improvements in presentation skills' programs and teaching material, and also reflect the fact that presenters have developed a variety of strategies for improving their presentations, such as: recording one's own voice and listening to it, having other people in the research group check the presenter's slides and script, trying out the presentation in front of a group of co-workers, and joining a presentation skills' class. In terms of the Q&R phase, however, most presenters report having no strategies for preparation, except for predicting questions and making back up slides to cover possible questions. This suggests that the Q&R phase presents a barrier that is extremely difficult to overcome. The lack of focus on this phase of oral presentations in EMP programs and the dearth of useful instructional material compounds the problem.

4. Standard Presentation Skills' Programs

At present, in standard presentation skills' programs, time constraints mean that participants usually give one or, at best, two full presentations over the course of the program which probably lasts for one semester. This would appear to meet the needs of novice presenters, as they can practice their presentation in a similar situation to that of an international conference and get feedback from the teacher, as well as other participants. The emphasis in such programs is on the monologue itself, and the Q&R phase is largely ignored by teachers or, at best, treated remedially. There is little or no meaningful practice scheduled into the program that will help novice presenters replicate the genre of the Q&R phase of the presentation. In terms of output, which we know to be essential in developing fluency in a foreign language, the standard approach to the teaching of presentation skills is not sufficient to significantly improve the performance of participants in the Q&R phase.[7] This means that EMP practitioners are not meeting the needs of novice members of the discourse community in a genre where there is a real need for instruction and support.

5. The Question and Response Phase Presents Challenges for Course Designers and Teachers

For course designers and teachers, one of the main challenges is creating the right kind of interaction and tasks so that acquisition takes place and fluency is developed. We know that when students interact amongst themselves, acquisition-rich discourse is more likely to ensue.[7] When a communication problem arises and participants are engaged in negotiation for meaning, acquisition will take place.[8] This means that unless students can be involved in discussion tasks of reasonable length on a regular basis they will not improve their skills. The question is, how can presentation skills' programs provide this kind of learning opportunity?

6. How to Change the Focus from the Monologue to the Question and Response Phase

The author has been involved in teaching a presentation skills' program to groups of researchers, consisting of between 10 to 15 people, from a variety of fields over a period of several years. In the initial stages, the program followed the standard presentation skills' program as outlined in 4 above, with participants giving one or two oral presentations in the course of a program. Several years ago, a micro-presentation component was introduced so that students could have more specific practice of microskills at a lower order to develop confidence and fluency.[9] Problems that occurred in the Q&R phase were treated remedially, and it was clear that with this method participants did not significantly improve their ability to handle this part of the presentation. In order to address the shortcomings in the program and put more focus on the Q&R phase, the following changes to the program were made.

1. The focus of the program was changed to achieve a better balance between the two genres of the oral presentation, the monologue and the Q&R phase. This was achieved by reducing the time allowed for the monologue and extending that of the Q&R phase. This is described in greater detail in 7 below.
2. To impress upon participants in the program the above change in emphasis, the program title was changed from 'Presentation Skills' to 'English for Scientific Discussion.'

7. New Teaching Method

In the new method, presenters were assigned two 10 minute presentations in which they were asked to focus on a single topic, application or aspect of their research work that was likely to generate discussion among participants. The point here is that the presented material should, wherever possible, create an information gap that will generate questions and promote discussion. The time allotted for the Q&R phase was extended to 20 minutes which clearly signaled to participants that the focus would be on this part of the presentation. A chairperson was appointed to take charge of the session. The teacher was not directly involved until after the session had finished, which sometimes consisted of three or four consecutive presentations. At the end of the session, feedback was given by the teacher. Techniques for handling questions were discussed and the following situations were considered: asking for clarification, fielding a question, giving a general answer, and avoiding a question.

This method was used with researchers from different fields who asked far more questions than before. Discussion among members of the audience increased and intervention by the chairperson was frequent, whereas in previous standard presentation skills' programs both had been limited and, in some cases, non-existent.

8. Advantages of the New Teaching Method

The following, in brief, are the main advantages of the teaching method.

1. The method provides extended practice in asking and responding to questions.
2. Increased interaction between participants promotes motivation, acquisition and fluency.
3. Since the focus is overtly on the discussion phase of the presentation, this gives participants increased motivation and increases the chances of reticent participants speaking.
4. As the presentation phase is only 10 minutes, presenters and the audience are less tired and more ready to enter into discussion.
5. As the presentation phase is only 10 minutes, less information is presented and the likelihood of members of the audience needing to ask a question is greater.
6. The presenter speaks from the front of the room, in the same way as in a regular presentation, and this ensures the formality and atmosphere of a real presentation is maintained. Additionally, with this level of formality,

participants have to take the event more seriously than if it was a simple pair or group work exercise.

7. The method replicates the situation of the discussion phase closely enough to provide relevant practice. At the same time, it also provides useful practice in the monologue phase of the oral presentation.

9. Participant Feedback on the New Program

At the end of a four week module of 8 two-hour classes where each participant gave two presentations, as described in 7 above, participants reported increased confidence in their ability to stay in control of the Q&R phase. Several participants who had taken both the standard and the new presentation skills' programs commented favorably on the increased opportunity for discussion and the willingness of participants to ask and answer questions and enter into discussion.

10. Teacher Feedback on the New Program

The new program, which was taught by two teachers, represented a significant departure from the previous presentation program and there was concern whether a 20 minute discussion phase was workable. Teachers were concerned there would be few questions and no discussion. However, from the first presentation, participants were involved in asking and responding to questions and extended discussion took place. Teachers noted a huge difference from the standard presentation skills' program with many more questions generated and greater participation.

11. Conclusion

The ability to give an oral presentation in English has become an essential skill for members of the medical profession. In recent years, presentation skills' classes have appeared on the curriculum at under-graduate and graduate levels, and some research institutes and universities have established in-house presentation skills' programs for their staff. Evidence suggests that the skills taught in such programs have resulted in more people who can give an adequate presentation in English. The Q&R phase, however, has remained a secondary goal and the skills needed to master this genre have been neither researched nor taught, with problems treated for the most part remedially. This new teaching method changes the focus from the monologue to the Q&R phase, providing increased time for participants to engage in extended scientific discussion, thus developing fluency. Teachers on the program noted significant differences in participants' behavior compared to that of standard presentation skills' classes, with more questions generated and increased discussion among members of the audience. The teaching method presented here may provide a partial solution to the problems novice presenters currently face in the Q&R phase, since it provides opportunities for output that exceed those of standard presentation skills' programs. Further research on the genre of the Q&R phase will aid teachers in designing both EMP programs and classroom tasks to bring novice members of the discourse community nearer to genre mastery.

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[Original Article]

Shortwave Radio? In the Internet Age?

Kenneth E. Nollet

Fukushima Medical University, Department of Blood Transfusion and Transplantation Immunology

Background. Extracurricular activities at Japanese medical universities take time that might otherwise be devoted to study. English, if perceived as irrelevant to medical practice, may be especially vulnerable to neglect. One approach to this problem is to introduce interesting extracurricular or co-curricular activities that, as a matter of course, use English.

Objective. This article introduces shortwave broadcast listening and Amateur Radio communications as language-learning activities that some students might enjoy.

Methods. The author investigated shortwave radio, especially in relation to education and health care. Cases drawn from nearly 40 years of experience have been included.

Results. English-language shortwave broadcasting originates in more than 40 countries. Major broadcasters also use the Internet, but competition for international shortwave listeners promotes quality programming. Shortwave Amateur Radio licensees operate from most countries of the world, and English is favored for international contacts. Even in the Internet age, Amateur Radio is a popular technical avocation enjoyed by students, healthcare professionals, and others. In addition, healthcare institutions benefit from Amateur Radio emergency communications when natural or man-made disasters disrupt other media.

Conclusion. English, in various accents and registers, can be heard in Japan on shortwave radio or over the Internet, and is suitable for improving receptive language skills. Shortwave Amateur Radio communication is conversational, and provides a basis for international friendships that make language learning and travel more interesting.

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Keywords: listening, conversation, shortwave broadcast, Amateur Radio*

1. Introduction

Great claims have been made for the educational potential of the Internet. Similar claims have been made for earlier technologies, including television and radio. Educators, especially those who have seen various innovations fall in and out of favor, are justifiably skeptical when advocates of a particular technology promise to revolutionize education. Technological revolutions are not intrinsically educational ones. Nevertheless, teachers of English for medical purposes (EMP) should remain open to any communications technology that might benefit their students. This article describes shortwave radio as a co-curricular and extra-curricular activity suitable for EMP learners.

2. Historical and Technical Background

In the early days of radio, regulations favoring commercial and military interests consigned hobbyist experimenters to the “useless” wavelengths of 200 meters and lower (frequencies of 1.5 MHz and higher).[1]

Hobbyists were soon outperforming professionals, reliably communicating over longer distances with lower output power. It was discovered that short wavelength radio signals traveled upward and were reflected back to

Corresponding author:
Kenneth E. Nollet, MD, PhD
Department of Blood Transfusion and Transplantation Immunology
Fukushima Medical University, Hikarigaoka 1, Fukushima 960-1295, Japan（〒 960-1295　福島県福島市光が丘 1 番地　福島県立医科大学 輸血・移植免疫学講座［特任教授］）
Phone: 024-547-1538/1536
Fax: 024-549-3126
E-mail: nollet@fmu.ac.jp, abo24x7@yahoo.com

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Meeting: 医師臨床研修指導医養成講習会
Sponsor: 福島県立医科大学の医療人育成・支援センター
Date, Place: 2009 年 2 月 7 ～ 8 日，福島県福島市

earth by the ionosphere, with less signal loss than long waves. As this was understood, radio services migrated to the short waves. Regulations and licensing standards developed for all services, including shortwave broadcasters and the Amateur Radio Service.[1]

3. Shortwave Broadcasting

Shortwave broadcasting reaches international audiences without an intervening infrastructure. Thus it was a tool for propaganda during World War II and the subsequent cold war, but in modern times, a listener's freedom to choose from a wide selection of broadcasts favorably influences the content and quality of contemporary shortwave programming.

4. Shortwave Amateur Radio

Although hobbyist experimenters were displaced from the long wavelengths favored in the early days of radio, and shortwave amateur operations were suspended during World War II, since then governments have restored, preserved and even expanded amateur access to the radio spectrum. As detailed in the United States Code of Federal Regulations 47CFR97.1,[2] this is because Amateur Radio is an educational, public service activity of special value in emergencies.

Health and welfare institutions around the world incorporate Amateur Radio into their disaster response plans, for example: (1) The Mayo Clinic, (2) The American Red Cross,[3] (3) The Sacramento Medical Foundation, d.b.a. BloodSource,[4,5] and (4) The California Blood Bank Society.[6] A textbook on hospital preparation for biological terrorism devotes an entire chapter to Amateur Radio.[7]

Amateur Radio, as a recreational activity for doctors at leisure, and a medical lifeline for patients in distress, has been described in the Journal of the American Medical Association.[8]

A Google search of "university amateur radio" yields about 2,700,000 results, including home pages for the Harvard Wireless Club[9] and the MIT Radio Society,[10] whose friendly rivalry has forged a compromise: the Massachusetts Institute of Technology claims to have America's oldest college Amateur Radio station, and Harvard, America's oldest Amateur Radio club, both going back to 1909.[9,10]

5. Case Reports, Shortwave Broadcast Listening

Professor Kenichi Uemura believes that Japanese medical students should demonstrate competence in listening to radio or television news in both American and British English.[11] The following broadcasters can be heard in Japan via shortwave radio and the Internet. Thus, their programming is easy to introduce in a classroom setting, and can be accessed outside of classroom hours as an assignment or as a recreational activity.

5.1. Radio Japan

Radio Japan is part of NHK World, the international service of the Japan Broadcasting Corporation. As a medical student in the United States, this author listened regularly to Radio Japan, especially Japanese language lessons, because native Japanese speakers were not readily available for practice. This parallels the situation of many Japanese medical students who are eager to learn English. Fortunately for them, English language shortwave broadcasts originate in more than 40 countries,[12] including Japan.

5.2. VOA (Voice of America), including Special English Broadcasts

In 1959, the Voice of America (VOA) broadcast the first Special English program as an experiment. It remains a popular learning tool for people around the world. Special English is read at about two-thirds the speed of regular broadcast English, with simple sentences in the active voice, using a core vocabulary of about 1,500 words.[13]

Thirty-minute-long Special English broadcasts include fresh content seven days a week, including news, science, health and English education.[14] Special English broadcasts targeting Japan and other east Asian countries can be tuned in every morning from 9:30 to 10:00 Japan Standard Time. This broadcast schedule could be the basis of a group learning activity, in or out of class.

Uemura's caution that native teachers of English should speak at natural speed should be acknowledged here. Listening exclusively to Special English could foster an English speech area in the brain only able to process slowly spoken English.[11] Most VOA English broadcasts, however, are spoken in the speed, accent, and register of American Broadcast English. VOA programming of all sorts continues to earn recognition for its value to Japanese students of the English language.[15]

5.3. BBC World Service

The World Service webpage of the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), replete with streaming audio and downloadable program files, still brands itself as "The BBC's International Radio Station."[16] BBC announcers, especially those stationed outside England, can be heard speaking in many accents and registers. Thus, modern "BBC English" reflects what medical professionals might hear at an international conference. BBC shortwave broadcasts do not specifically target Japan, but can be easily received here.

5.4. Radio Australia

Radio Australia is the external service of the Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC). "Learn English" programming exists under five headings: Learn English (1) from Australia, (2) for Study in Australia, (3) for Business, (4) for Finance and (5) for Tourism and Hospitality.[17] Both Radio Australia international broadcasts and ABC domestic shortwave broadcasts intended for reception only within Australia can be heard in Japan. For EMP learners, these English-language broadcasts introduce an English accent and register that is distinct from British Received Pronunciation and American Broadcast English.

5.5. Why Bother?

Teachers of EMP can, and should, wonder if shortwave radio might be just another distraction from the real business of learning. As with any technology, this is possible. On the other hand, it could be argued that a computer or portable music player offers more distraction than a shortwave radio receiver. Imagine a student going online for an English-language program. The "always on" nature of Internet websites, and the ability to download audio for later listening, make it a simple matter to postpone a learning activity in order to check email, visit a social networking site, watch an educationally vacuous video or click on an advertisement. On the other hand, a particular station's on-the-air broadcast schedule enforces a certain amount of discipline. "Channel surfing" before and after a particular program may also expand the intellectual horizons of the listener, especially in relation to foreign language study.

In a classroom or library with Internet access, a shortwave receiver may be superfluous, but elsewhere, shortwave listening requires no infrastructure and no subscription fees. As a recreational activity, shortwave radio listening can be enjoyed even in remote areas.

Shortwave listening is also a gateway to a more interactive experience: English conversation with people from around the world who are licensed in the Amateur Radio Service.

6. Case Reports, Amateur Radio Activity

Most Amateur Radio station and operator licenses are issued to individuals, but for students without the means of maintaining their own fixed-location stations, club, portable, or mobile operations—especially in conjunction with foreign travel—may be appropriate for conversational English immersion.

Case reports 6.1 and 6.2, below, were selected from the author's own experience as a traveling Amateur Radio operator, licensed since 1970 in the United States and subsequently accredited to operate in Bhutan, Europe, and Japan. A Japanese colleague, first licensed as a teenager, contributed case 6.3. From his parents' home, he mastered English through Amateur Radio.

6.1. Bhutan, 2001 Amateur Radio and Medical Goodwill Visit

Seven Amateur Radio enthusiasts (and one spouse) traveled to Bhutan from various parts of the United States. They included three technical professionals and four medical doctors, one of whom was also a space shuttle astronaut. This trip coincided with an international exercise of Amateur Radio shortwave capabilities, structured as a contest between stations and operators around the world.[18] During the contest, most of our conversations were brief, to accommodate the number of people who wanted a contact with Bhutan. Every major accent and register of English was represented among the people with whom we spoke.

We were also invited to two high schools, where NASA astronaut Dr. Charles Brady spoke in general assembly and to senior science students. All of the high school students were fluent in both Dzongkha, the national language, and English.

Imagine a Japanese EMP learner in this situation. Radio credentials provided the opportunity to meet local operators face-to-face and distant operators on the air. Medical credentials enabled us to visit Bhutan's National Hospital as well, affording a special opportunity to use medical English in an international setting.

6.2. Guam, 2010 "TIGER II" Expedition

The author traveled with three Japanese Radio Amateurs specifically to consider the English educational potential of a radio-related trip to Guam, just a four-hour flight from Tokyo. As with Bhutan in 2001, a nicely equipped Amateur Radio station was available for rent. We also brought portable equipment, which allowed us to demonstrate Amateur Radio in parks as we drove around the island.

Morning propagation favored the Americas and the Asia-Pacific region, places for which Guam is not such a rare contact, so conversations tended to be leisurely, with ample exposure to American, Canadian, Australian, and second-language English. Evening propagation favored Russia and Europe, including many people and places for which a contact with Guam is rare, providing an extensive exposure to many accents and registers.

6.3. Tokyo, 1970s–Present—a Japanese Perspective

This is the story of dentist Kei Andoh, who credits his mastery of English to being active in Amateur Radio since his teen years in Tokyo.

> ***Unforgettable experience: Urushi lacquer ware returned to owner after more than 30 years.***
>
> *I have enjoyed Amateur Radio for nearly 40 years and started when I was in junior high school, mainly for a chance to speak English. One day an Australian station called me, VK3AL. He kindly offered to make a schedule every weekend to help me practice my English. I tried to use all my newly learned words and phrases in conversation with him on the air. We also exchanged letters and this helped me learn to write in English. Several years later I received a letter saying that he was coming to Japan. During his trip, he gave me some souvenirs of Aboriginal handicrafts. My parents gave him a present of Japanese traditional Urushi lacquer bowls.*
>
> *Last week, quite unexpectedly, I received a parcel. The parcel contained the Urushi lacquer ware from VK3AL. Also enclosed was a letter, which said, "I have treasured these bowls for many years. They have given me, my wife, Shirley, and our family much pleasure. Today I am 88 years old. I must think about the future. I have decided that these bowls are your family's heirlooms and should be returned to your family. All these years they have given us much pleasure, and I now feel happy that they are back in your family's care."*
>
> *My on-the-air meeting with VK3AL and long relationship is the one of the most memorable in my Amateur Radio life – JR1NNV/Kei Andoh*

7. Radio is Dead. Long Live Radio!

Is shortwave radio still useful in the Internet age? Broadcasters, for whom the Internet is a less costly outlet, seem to think so.

Radio requires no human infrastructure between transmitter and receiver, and receiving equipment can be relatively simple. These facts are of everyday value in the developing world, and critical in the developed world when infrastructure fails. Governments around the world know that Radio Amateurs can protect life and property by communicating on behalf of essential service providers. Those essential service providers include blood banks, clinics, and hospitals.

Apart from emergencies, and emergency preparedness exercises, shortwave radio can be educational and recreational. Broadcasters that have embraced Internet technologies have not abandoned shortwave; they still enjoy a substantial international radio audience. Amateur Radio on the shortwave bands is also recreational, but with important educational angles. Dr. Andoh—and many others like him—could be described as hobbyists. But the hobby Kei Andoh started as a teenager required a license, which required an examination. He learned some electronics, some math and some physics, as well as rules and regulations, all within the capability of a motivated student. *Then he mastered English.* The story might otherwise end, but Dr. Andoh is one of many healthcare professionals who continue to use and enjoy Amateur Radio in their everyday lives.

Teachers can introduce shortwave broadcast listening as a classroom activity that exposes students to various accents and registers of English. Although major shortwave broadcasters also put their programs on the Internet, the novelty of using shortwave technology may be an incentive to students and, in that way, a motivating factor. As an extracurricular activity, there will always be something to listen to. Portable shortwave receivers are in the same price range as medical textbooks. More elaborate shortwave receivers are in the same price range as personal computers.

Amateur Radio is a club activity in many universities around the world, including Japan. Some language teachers themselves might enjoy Amateur Radio. Others can at least make students aware of this recreational, educational and public service activity. More information can be found through the Japan Amateur Radio League (www.jarl.or.jp) or its American counterpart (www.arrl.org).

To some students, learning English for medical purposes may seem to be little more than memorizing a list of specialized words. As teachers, we know better. English is not only the predominant written language of world medicine. It is also the spoken language of international conferences, expressed in all its accents and registers. No single speaker of English can fully convey this, but as teachers we can embrace technologies that can put students on their own pathways of learning. Shortwave radio is not a new communications technology, but it is an enduring one: across borders, across cultures, and across generations, including children of the Internet age.

Acknowledgements

Among many licensed Radio Amateurs to whom this author is indebted, some deserve special mention in the context of a medically oriented article. Those who concurrently trained and/or worked at the Mayo Clinic (1985–1998) include Dr. Paul Belau, WB0BXJ; Mr. Pat Cahill, W0BM; Dr. Peter Cross, W0SA; Dr. Glenn Johnson, W0GJ; Dr. Andrew Reeves, KB0FCR; and Dr. Scott Wright, K0MD. The 2001 goodwill trip to Bhutan included the aforementioned W0BM and W0GJ, as well as Mr. David Anderson, K4SV; Dr. Charles Brady, N4BQW (NASA astronaut, b. 1951, d. 2006); Mr. Ray Novak, N9JA; and Dr. Steven Towle, W0HT.

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Early on, Dr. Ray Martinson, W0AME, shared his enthusiasm for medicine, and Mr. Ed Martinson, W0GYH, (b. 1912, d. 2006) shared his enthusiasm for the electromagnetic spectrum; this led the author first to Amateur Radio, and then to biochemistry research using fluorescence spectroscopy. The adventure continues.

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From *The Write Stuff*

Whose Citations Are They?

John Rodgers

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Citations play a critical role in scientic communication, but authors, readers and reviewers seem to discern their functions poorly. I propose a theoretical framework for discussing these functions and address the question of how authors can take responsibility for their own citations.

Confronting the frequent occurrence of plagiarism in graduate student writing in the biological sciences, I began, about a decade ago, to think that teaching graduate students not to plagiarise was not the critical issue. In my experience, almost all cases of plagiarism by students and post-doctoral fellows occurred in the Introduction or Discussion sections and were due to lack of training in the arts and skills of writing. My students had a poorly developed sense of how to cite. They had learned that citation is a means of 'giving credit' to avoid plagiary. Students related to their citations awkwardly, often 'borrowing' them from their source text. Citations were dragged into the text in much the same way that words, phrasing and ideas in the source text were loosely paraphrased or patch-written into their own texts. The students had little sense of what citations might do for them as elements of writing itself. I wanted to teach them how to cite skilfully. It was time for them to take ownership of the citations. It was time to ask of them, and of myself, "Whose citations are they?"

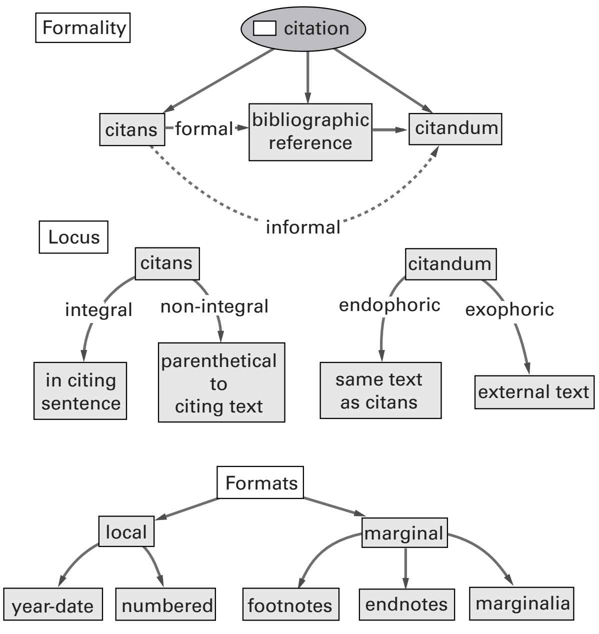

Figure 1. Citation forms. An unconventional nomenclature differentiates the appearance of the citation as a metatextual element in the citing text (the 'citans', plural 'citantia') and in the cited text (the 'citandum', plural 'citanda'). In conventional usage the terms 'citation', 'reference' and often 'footnote' are interchangeable. 'Citation' refers to the non-textual conceptual relationship that is manifested by the textual elements citans, reference and citandum, but also the set of textual elements that manifest the citation. The reference is missing or allusory in informal citations. 'Locus' refers to the textual positions of citantia and citanda, 'format' to the stylistic conventions used to express them.

Citations

In analyzing this question with respect to texts, I consider the nature of three types of citation function and sever-

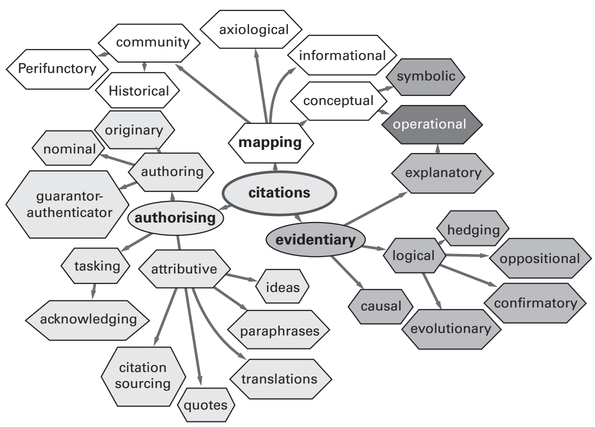

Figure 2. Typology of citation functions. Most citation functions can be classified in one of three broad groups; a particular citation might exert more than one function. Authorising functions handle the authority and credibility of and credit due to authors; they authorise the text as trustworthy in the commons. Evidentiary functions handle the relationship of citations to particular arguments. Mapping functions orient the writer and reader within the commons.

al meanings of ownership. Let me first set out some terminology, chosen to avoid the imprecision of the common terms in English. By 'citation' I mean a functional relationship between a referring text and a source text (Figure 1). The citation is a thread with two termini: the citans (commonly referred to as a reference, a citation, a cite, an in-text reference and a variety of other terms) in the text and the citandum (often referred to as the referent) in the source. The citation helps weave together (plexis) texts and their sources. Skilful citation produces a seamless and effective text (euplexis), but failure to cite skilfully produces a fabric of patches, crude mends and plagiarisms (dysplexis).

The citation may be formal, such as one using the Vancouver citation styles, or informal, such an allusion. Formal citations have as intermediary text elements the bibliographic references found in footnotes, endnotes or reference lists. Informal citations lack (formal) references; allusive citantia fail to connect with their citanda for readers outside the 'intellectual commons' or 'disciplinary community' assumed by the author.

Citations can be characterised in terms of their form (format, formality, locus) (Figure 1) and function (Figure 2). Format refers to the stylistic structures used to render textually the citans and its reference. In print media the citans is meta-textual; it is itself a text participating in the physical structure of the text [1]. Formality refers to whether the citation uses an explicit reference or relies on the reader's familiarity with the field to identify the citandum. In electronic media, citantia or references may be replaced with hypertext links directly to the citanda, bypassing both the need for and the value of the reference. With respect to locus, the citandum may be endophoric, found elsewhere in the citing text, (e.g. "see below"), or exophoric, found in an external source. The following three sentences illustrate formality and locus, as well as other features discussed below:

a. *Within a sentence, a citans may be integral or non-integral.*

b. *Swales classified the citans as integral or non-integral [2].*

c. *A citans may be classified as integral or non-integral [2].*

In sentence (a) the citation to John Swales is both informal (lacking a reference) and allusive (opaque to most biomedical scientists but perhaps not to many readers of *TWS*). The same citans is integral in (b) in that it forms a syntactic (parsable) part of the sentence itself. In this case, 'Swales', an element retained from the citandum, becomes the subject of the citing sentence. In contrast, the citans is non-integral in (c) because it is merely parenthetical to the sentence. This sentence would have the same content with or without the citans.

The typology of citation functions shown in Figure 2 draws from a rich literature that cannot adequately be cited here. The analysis of citations draws on three main sources: the tradition of rhetoric and English composition studies exemplified in the United States by Kenneth Burke [3] and focused recently on citation functions by Shirley Rose [4]. Swales comes from this tradition. From social science come the other two major tributaries. In the literary constructivist movement the names of Foucault [5], Gilbert [6], Wollgar and Latour [7] figure prominently. The Mertonian school [8] led directly to theories of social credit and Garfield's aggressive deployment of information science to the numerical analysis of citations [9]. The confluence of these tributaries was first described by Swales [2] and reviewed more recently by White [10]. (See also Cozzens [11].)

The functions of citations are authorising, evidentiary and mapping. Through their authorising functions, citations legitimise the text and establish the author as trustworthy in the discourse community. Evidentiary functions mediate the logical role of source texts. They may justify claims of causality, explain terms or experimental operations, or provide evidence in an argument. Logical citation functions are confirmatory, oppositional, evolutionary [12] or hedging [13]. Finally, mapping functions orient readers and writers within the constantly shifting commons, which must be constructed on the fly by the reader in order to decode the text. Mapping functions may be informational (e.g. 'as reviewed by…'), axiological, conceptual or community-defining functions. An expert's choice not to cite may indicate that the author considers the idea to be in the commons; a novitiate may inappropriately follow the rule-of-thumb, 'When in doubt, cite!', thereby proving his naivité. In the sample sentences exhibited above, sentence (a) assumes the reader is familiar with Swales already, or will not be interested.

In sentence (b), Swales is an authorising figure only to those in a community familiar with the literature of English composition. Swales is relegated to a minimalist position in sentence (c). The mapping functions are critical to the demarcation of private and 'common' knowledge within a discourse community. Moreover, certain well-known citations can be symbols for larger bodies of ideas [14]. Thus, the names of Burke, Merton, Foucault, Garfield and Latour I dropped in the previous paragraph symbolically evoke several rich intellectual traditions.

Note that the citation in (b) is clearly attributive; we don't know whether Swales provides 'evidence' for this claim, but we know that it is Swales' claim. In contrast, the citation in (c) is profoundly unclear; we are tempted to think that the claim is supported by evidence in the citandum; that the citandum contains the source of the concept of an integral citation is obscured. The authorising functions can be further divided into authoring, tasking and attributive, all of which explain the role of authorities in the text. For example, the authoring function establishes the bona fides of the named authors. Acknowledgments and author descriptions assign specifi c tasks to different named authors and non-authorial contributors. The attributive citation identifies the source of an idea, work or text. It mediates the exchange of Mertonian credit, discharging the intellectual debt of authors owed to their sources. This is the sole citation function taught to most students, bringing them to grief when they fail to exert it appropriately.

The writing and citation traditions of the humanities allow their writers to wield the full diversity of citation forms and functions. A cultural trend spanning more than a century within the sciences has reduced the repertoire of citation functions available to the scientist [15, 16]. The scientific report uses attributive citations very little. Integral citations, which facilitate attribution, are nearly extinct. The conditions which make relevant the use of paraphrases and summaries are nearly as rare as those calling for quotations. An informal analysis of papers in my own field (immunology) suggests that evidentiary citations outnumber attributive citations at least twenty-fold. Many student writers in the sciences, trained in the colleges to cite attributively, are hard-pressed to make the transition smoothly.

Ownership of Citations

The junior scientist has little skill using evidentiary citations. Moreover, the novice has a tenuous command of the field, does not really know what is in the commons and what is not. Indeed, only an expert can command the domain of 'common knowledge'. My experience with student writers is that most citations are either 'borrowed' from a source or downloaded from a search engine based on a brief read of the abstract. (A correspondent suggests instead that novice writers are wed to a poverty of citanda and are resistant to incorporating new ones.) Thus is born the initial reference list. To this list a senior author may add a few references; under pressure from the publishing house, they may have to trim a few out. A reviewer may request a citation or two on the grounds it is important to the field. Whose citations are these?

In legal theory, there are three kinds of rights, separably attached to ownership: possession, use and disposal. Thus, I might own a book but have no right to copy it; someone might own a famous painting but have no right to alter it. To this list, add a fourth: a 'right of origination'. A creator has the right to remain associated by name with the created work (work for hire is an important exception).

Consider citations in the light of these four rights of ownership. Who originates citations? Who possesses them? Who uses them? Who can alter or destroy them?

Who originates a citation? If one accepts that a citation is a relation, it doesn't belong quite to text or source text. With legs standing on two continents, the citation originates in both, belongs to neither. The citation separates itself as a countable entity; in Garfield's citation maps, the nodes (citantia and citanda) are dwarfed by the swarms of citation links standing on their shoulders. Surely, Foucault is the author of the famous sentence asserting that the author is the principle of thrift limiting the proliferation of meaning, found in the Harari translation [5]; isn't Foucault partly the author of any citation to him? Isn't that the meaning of Mertonian credit? We give Foucault credit, we give him his due, because the citation, in the guise of a citandum, is his. But without an authorial choice there is no citation of Foucault, so the credit for the citation, under the veil of a citans, belongs to the author, not to Foucault. In this case, there are two and even three citanda from which to choose. Many citers mistakenly cite Bouchard's translation [17]. This in an example where the citation should place the citandum with Harari, not with Bouchard. Or, if we consider citations from Garfield's viewpoint, the citation of Foucault appears to stand alone, its termini being of minor import. In this view, the citation belongs to the commons in which it operates.

According to historians of the footnote, citantia in the tradition of British philosophy and the humanities tended to use integral citantia and commentative footnotes [1, 11], so that in some circles the terms 'citation' and 'footnote' are nearly synonymous (e.g., [18]). Under the influence especially of German chemists, the sciences have discarded footnotes and integral citantia. This fits the positivist conceit of hard science, in which arguments are established through the unveiling of evidence, not human authority. In many styles (as in *TWS*) citantia are reduced to a number, often no more than a superscript. This tidy style obscures the identity of source authors, reducing their visibility to writer, reader and reviewer. Coupled with the ease of using reference-managing software, the contemporary writer risks losing both the kinaesthetic and literary experiences of handling source texts and notecards. Originary 'ownership' of citations by authors is limited to a few keystrokes.

The rights of possession have little relevance here. Source-authors are not possessive; they rise up when they are *not* cited. It used to puzzle me that most of my colleagues do not see the recycling of source-text citations as plagiarism, but the present analysis makes sense of this. The non-integral evidentiary citans is so terse that it barely registers as belonging to an author. So little scholarly effort goes into selecting and using a citation that it appears hardly to represent scholarly effort. Moreover, it is possible that within the positivist ethic of scientists, citation of evidence, like evidence itself, appears to be in the public domain. Because of its inherently relational construction, which we have seen already destabilises the right of origination, and its increasingly minimalist presence as a meta-textual element, authors feel less possessive of their citations than of their words. Likewise, the rights of disposal and alteration are rarely invoked. Most authors care little if, for example, when reformatting a text for a different journal, they must convert citations from a name-year to a numbering system, even though this considerably changes the functional landscape of citation.

The rights of use are potentially important but severely limited due to the impoverished repertoire of citation techniques available to the scientist. The deft writer can use linking words to express logical development with evidentiary citations in the Introduction and Discussion sections of a paper; occasionally a nuanced phrase will reveal an attributive usage. The ideal author of written science is nearly voiceless, and only the most careful writing can differentiate between an attributive and evidentiary citans indicated by a number.

This is a conundrum for those of us concerned with the appearance of dysplexis in science writing. It appears to me that the majority of dysplectic transgressors are writers unskilled in citation or scientists not yet expert in their own commons. We can blame the colleges for the simplistic view that euplexis is achieved by paraphrasing and attributing one's sources. But it is not enough to blame those who might have trained our students. We can also observe that graduate, medical and post-doctoral training programs provide little training in the art of skilful citation. This will not surprise the readers of *TWS*, who are well aware that scientists rarely have the inclination or time to invest themselves in the skills of literary and educational scholarship. The apprentice model for training biomedical researchers is flawed in this aspect; mentors rarely have the skills needed to train the next generation of writers.

Mertonians assume that citations deliberately reflect the relative influence of texts on a scientist's thinking. The anthropological study by Latour and Woolgar [7] of a future Nobel laureate's laboratory seems to me to support that model. I suggest, however, that this is not the general case. Instead, I suggest a different model, a 'null' token model in which formal citations are little more than whispers in a game of Rumour, in which the (unskilled) writer has tenuous knowledge of sources but provides the citation merely as a 'token' needed for publication. This model could be seen as cynical but might play a role in citation analysis parallel to the role played by Kimura's neutral mutation theory [19] in population and evolutionary genetics. This was the null hypothesis that most mutations have little (positive) effect on fitness. In this neutral model, citations are null tokens; they serve no particular function but are carried along to satisfy the minimalist needs of reviewers. In this model, citations belong to no-one except the commons, where they are blown about by winds and gusts of scientific fashions, or where some might serve as selfish memes. The entry of citations into the commons must be deliberate, but once there, how can we know that they are maintained through deliberation rather than fashion? Are there statistical properties that could distinguish null token networks from Mertonian networks? This is a question for the social scientists.

The task for educators is to teach skilful, reflective citation. I suggest that undergraduate students, and graduate students in their dissertations, be encouraged to use commentative footnotes deliberately to reflect on the functional role of citations in their texts. This practice will not extend into the print journals, but writers well versed in the manifold uses of citations will handle themselves better when breathing the cold thin air of scientific writing.

John Rodgers
Department of Pathology and Immunology
Baylor College of Medicine
Houston, Texas, USA
jrodgers@bcm.tmc.edu

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日本医学英語教育学会 あり方委員会 提言書

日本医学英語教育学会あり方委員会
委員長 吉岡俊正（東京女子医科大学）
委員 菱田治子（聖路加看護大学）
Raoul Breugelmans（東京医科大学）
一杉正仁（獨協医科大学）

あり方委員会発足の経緯

日本医学英語教育学会は，初代植村研一理事長の努力により医学英語教育にかかわる教育実践・研究のフォーラムとして 1998 年に発足した。本学会の理念は英語教育と医学・医療教育の教育者研究者が情報・知見・意見を交換しながら協働し医療の教育とその中での英語教育の実践と教育のための研究を高める事にある。学会は発展を続け，2004 年より理事長を大井静雄先生が引き継ぎ，現在会員数約 350 名となり，年 1 回の総会開催，年 2 回の学会誌発行を行っているだけでなく，2008 年から医学英語検定試験という社会貢献度の高い事業を行っている。これまで 2 代の理事長の献身的努力と理事・評議員そして会員の熱意により学会は順調に発展してきた。

一方で学会組織が大きくなったこと，そして学会の社会貢献としても重要である医学英語検定試験の実施など，学会運営の複雑さは発足当時からは大きく変化している。2009 年 7 月 17 日の理事会において，学会の発展のために，医学英語検定試験制度を含む学会運営を現在の学会活動に合わせて改良する方向性を検討する「あり方委員会」を設けることが提案され，満場一致で承認され，その後の評議員会・総会で報告された。あり方委員会(以下委員会)の委員長には吉岡が指名された。同理事会で大井理事長が今期をもって退任することが明らかにされたこともあり，委員会はこの変革期にある学会の運営だけでなく組織・執行体制も検討することになった。

委員長は学会運営に深く関わり，客観的な評価と建設的提言を行える少数の委員で委員会を構成することとした。少数の委員の意見だけに偏らないために，学会理事・評議員に学会のあり方について質問紙調査を行い，理事 12 名，評議員 11 名(総数の 60.5 %)から，日本医学英語検定試験，学会活動の方向性，学会会則などについて意見・提言を得た。委員会構成として委員長が医学教育の立場にあることから，英語教育の立場，外国人会員の立場，そして今後の運営強化が必要な医学英語検定試験からの立場を俯瞰できる委員を委員長が選んだ。次回総会までに新体制を作るために迅速に提言をまとめる必要があり，頻回に会議を開催しなくてはならないことから，委員会出席について地理的利便性も考慮に入れた。そして菱田氏，Breugelmans 氏，一杉氏に委嘱し承諾を得て委員会が発足した。

委員会の目的

委員会は日本医学英語教育学会が学会設立の理念に基づき，今後も継続して発展するための学会の組織・運営・執行について提言を行う。本学会の特色ある中心事業として医学英語検定試験が 2008 年より正式に開始されたが，今後もさらなる発展が必要である。委員会は社会貢献として意義の高い本事業についても，適切な形で完成させるためのプロセスについて提言を行う。

委員会は学会に提言を行うために形成された。委員会は運営執行を行う権限は無く，提言を検討し組織・制度の改良を行うのは現在の理事会にその任がある。よって，提言を行った後委員会は解散する。現理事会は提言を基に学会組織・運営・執行体制の改良を決定し，新たな体制への移行を速やかに行うことが期待される。

提言

1．理事長

(1) 理事長を中心とするガバナンス体制の確立

理事長は理事会を掌握し，学会の管理運営執行を円滑に進めるための統括を行うが，学会の理念と学会活動全般を理解し，学会管理運営への意欲をもたなくてはならない。これまでのお二人の理事長は，本学会の創立と発展のために尽くし，良い体制を構築するのに多大な貢献をされてきた。歴史を持つ大学・企業がそれぞれ建学の理念，創業の精神を持ちながら，時代に即した変革を遂げているように，本学会は現在会員の増加，学会活動の多様化による英語教育と医療教育の両者の協働の必要性，医学英語検定試験制度の実施などに伴う変革期にあると言える。平成 22 年 7 月

The English translation of the proposal for reform of the Japan Society for Medical English Education will be provided later.

に理事長が改選されるにあたり，継続して発展する学会の牽引者となる理事長によるガバナンス体制を確立することが重要である。理事長を補佐する副理事長は現在１名であるが，医学/医療と英語教育を代表する２名が必要と考える。

理事長を中心として理事会が学会の管理・運営を担い，各委員会が学会活動の実践執行，そして総会会長が総会の実践・執行を担うように役割分担を明確にすべきである。学会員・各委員会・総会あるいは社会からの情報・提案・問題提起は評議員，各委員会の担当理事を介して理事会に伝達され，理事会で決定した学会管理運営の実践は理事が責任者となり各委員会あるいは総会会長を通じて執行組織で実施される明確なガバナンス体制が必要である。

(2) 理事長の選任方法

理事長は，理事会から選任されるべきである。理事長選考は，立候補，投票，指名信任などいくつかの方法が考えられるが，現実的には理事会で十分審議したうえで互選されるのが適切と考える。理事長職は重責であり，選ばれる者が積極的に学会に貢献する意欲を持つことが確認されなくてはならない。理事会内で決定することについての公明性については，学会の規模が大きくないこと，理事の大多数が評議員であること，そして審議過程を公開することにより，透明性・適切性は担保されると考える。形式的選挙を行うよりも，候補者の意志と指針を理事会で確認したうえで理事長が選ばれることが学会の現状に適していると考える。

2．理事会

(1) 学会を活性化するための理事会の役割

理事会は学会運営全般の企画・統括・評価の責任組織として機能する必要がある。理事会構成者となる理事は学会運営に意欲を持ち，協働して責任を果たす人材で構成されるべきである。理事は委員会などの執行組織の責任者となり，分担して学会活動の管理運営執行に責任を持つべきである。現在約 350 名の実会員を持ち，今後さらに発展する規模を鑑みて本学会には意欲・運営力・協働精神・責任感・学会貢献に優れた 15 名程度の理事が必要と考える。学会の発展が停滞しないために理事には定年を設けるべきである。

各役員は学会管理運営の議決機関である理事会に可能な限り出席して，学会運営の責務を果たさなくてはならない。理事会は過半数の実際の出席と，委任状を含めた 2/3 の出席で成立することとすることが現実的と考える。
理事・評議員等の選任手続きを明確にすること，学会が発展的な事業を行うためには学会財務を健全に維持する必要がある。学会活動活性化のために学会収入を増やす方策を立てることも理事・理事会の重要な任務である。

(2) 理事会の構成

各役員は学会の理念を理解し，学会発展のために管理運営に努力する人材が選ばれなくてはならない。理事はステークホルダーを代表する評議員から選ばれた 15 名の英語教育者・医療従事者(医学，看護，薬学等の教育者・研究者)等で構成されるべきである。学会の重要な構成員である外国人教員・医師も含まれるべきであり，また男女共同参画の立場から女性が含まれるべきである。理事に任命される年に 70 歳未満であることが望ましい。選挙で選ばれた理事の他に理事長は必要に応じて２名程度の理事(評議員とは限らない)を指名出来ることが望ましい。理事の任期は，学会の継続的運営のために現行の会則通り３年が適当と考える。

理事会の評価と助言者として監事を現行の会則では２名置くことができるが，今後理事会の実質的助言者を選任することが望まれる。また，理事長経験者など学会管理運営に適切な助言を与えられる有識者を顧問として新たに２名程度置くことも可能とすることが望ましい。

(3) 理事の選任方法

理事は評議員の中から選挙で選ばれることを基本とすべきである。立候補あるいは会員の推薦などにより候補者を定め，選挙権を持つ者に抱負などを開示し選挙で選ばれることが望ましい。選挙による理事の他に，理事長指名の理事を置くことはステークホルダー代表者の偏りを防ぐことが出来る。選挙は総会会期中に行うことが望ましいが，その準備と公正な選挙を行うための選挙管理組織が必要である。候補者を除く学会員３名からなる選挙管理委員会を理事選挙のある年に設け，事務局の支援を受けて選挙を行うことがよい。手順書を作成し実施すべきである。

(4) 諸規定・手順書の整備

理事長選任，理事会の責務，理事選任について会則に明記し，理事選任手順は手順書を作成すべきである。また，学会委員会については組織・責務について会則で規定し，運営について細則・手順書に明記すべきである。会則の改訂を含み以下の規定・手順書の整備が必要である。

１）会則に理事長選任についての規定を追加
２）役員構成者に関する会則を必要に応じて改訂
３）理事の定年を会則に明記
４）役員選任規定の作成
５）会則に諸委員会を明記
６）諸委員会細則を作成，委員長，委員，責務等について明記

3．評議員

(1) 評議員制度の改正

評議員が学会活動に参画することにより学会が発展・活性化すると考えられる。そのために評議員制度を以下のように改良すべきである。

1）学会員資格を有する評議員の確定
・学会員資格（会費納入，総会参加等）を有し，学会運営と発展に参画する意志のある会員が評議員を構成すべきである。
2）評議員選出細則作成
・評議員は40名程度（理事を含む）が適切な人数である。
・評議員には，英語教育者，医療従事者（医学，看護，薬学等の教育担当者も含む）等の各領域からそれぞれ適切な人数が選出されるべきである。
・学会の現状を鑑み，評議員は自薦/他薦の候補者から理事会で選出するのがよいと考える。

（2）評議員の学会委員会活動等への参画の促進

評議員は，一般会員と同じくそれぞれの教育研究を学会誌あるいは総会で発表し学会の目的のひとつである医学英語教育研究を推進するだけでなく，もう一つの目的である医学英語教育の向上のために学会が行う諸活動に参画することが学会の活性化には不可欠である。

評議員からの学会活動・運営についての提案は委員会，理事会などで適切に検討され学会の管理運営に反映されるべきである。

4．委員会

（1）委員会のあり方

委員会は学会の発展のために積極的に活動することが求められる。それぞれの委員会が目的を持って活動することが学会の多様な活動の根幹となるので委員会の活性化が学会の活性化となる。一方で委員会活動には経費が伴うことから，学会予算が適切に配分されることが必要であり，学会の全体予算を各委員会に配分するのが学会としてのガバナンスの一つでありその決定は管理運営組織である理事会の責務である。よって委員会は管理運営組織の運営方針の下で学会活動の執行組織として機能することが必要である。そのために理事が各委員会の活動の責任者となることで，執行組織と管理運営組織の連携が達成される。

（2）委員会のガバナンス

現在本学会には日本医学英語検定試験制度委員会（制度委員会）および編集委員会がある。制度委員会には5個の小委員会（庶務，問題作成，版権，解析・評価，会計）があるが委員会細則などは定められていない。昨年より制度委員会に倫理ガイドライン委員会が設けられたが現在，学会の委員会として独立した委員会となることが討議されている。このように既存の委員会の管理運営執行体制が明確でない。

委員会運営は理事会で選出された理事が責任者となり，委員会は評議員を中心とした委員で構成され活動を執行すべきである。理事長は各委員会を統括する立場となるので，原則として，すなわち緊急避難的措置あるいは委員会発足直後等を除き，委員会委員長は兼任しないことが望ましい。

現在の会則は学会の持つ委員会の種類，委員会の目的，委員構成，そして管理運営執行を規定していない。委員会に関する会則と委員会細則を整備すべきである。

（3）学会活性化のための委員会新設

委員会活動が活発になることで学会全体が活性化すると考えられる。例として学会の広報，英語教育あるいは英文論文編集などのfaculty development（教育能力開発）の企画実施などがあげられるが，理事会が学会活性化のために企画し，担当理事を置き委員会として活動することにより執行体制が明確になり，幅広い学会活動が展開し学会の発展につながると考えられる。

一方委員会活動を活発にするには基金が必要となる。理事長・副理事長・事務局からなる運営委員会などで財務について十分検討を行い，理事会は学会活動を活性化するための予算配分を含んで管理運営方針を決定していくべきである。

5．日本医学英語検定試験

（1）日本医学英語検定試験のあり方

日本医学英語検定試験（医英検）は，学会の重要な社会貢献である。本学会が今後発展するためにも社会のニーズに即した精度の高い検定を開発実施し，社会への認知度を高める必要がある。医英検を開発運営評価する制度委員会は，5個の小委員会で構成されている。この組織構成は妥当で検定試験開発・運営・評価のために重要である。各組織が適切に機能することが必要である。そのためには財政基盤，小委員会機能の明確化が必要である。理事会は，医英検組織・制度について委員会規定を設けるなど委員会機能・委員構成などを明確にし，制度が継承・発展するための基盤整備を行うべきである。理事会はまた，試験制度を開発・運営・評価するために必要な財政基盤を明らかにすべきである。

医英検制度は級別による検定基準が社会に公開されており，検定基準に従った医英検実施の方針を維持することが，学会の社会的責務である。1，2級について現時点で制度委員会内部でコンセンサスが得られていないが，制度委員会が責任をもって早急に明確化する必要がある。

［付帯事項］

現在検定試験の信頼性が衆目されている社会情勢もあり，検定試験制度の継続性を鑑みた上で制度，特に1，2級の定義に基づく実施要項について早急に明確にする必要がある。医学英語という限られた対象に対して行う検定試験の中で，対象をさらに分けて級を設ける事は，検定の意義を社会に説明しにくいと考える。すでに公表されている定義と矛盾せず，補足する形での級別の検定制度の定義が望まれる。あり方委員会では，級別ではなく点数（スコア）制にすることも議論されたが，既に制度を公表し実施している現状を踏まえ，当面は級別検定の開発・評価を進め，その

中でスコア制について継続的に検討し，より良い検定法を社会に説明できる形で再選択すれば良いと結論された。

6．新運営体制移行へのロードマップ

本提言を参考として学会は管理運営執行体制を整える事になる。現在の体制は2010年7月が理事の改選時期であり，また新たな理事長を選出しなくてはならない。新たな体制を実行するには現会則の改訂，諸規定の策定などが必要でありこれらは現会則に従って実施することになる。理事長・理事の現行の任期が3年であることにより現会則に従うと新たな体制を構築するのは2013年になる。学会が直面している管理運営執行体制の課題は早く解決しないと，今後の学会運営発展に重大な支障を来すと考える。よって，あり方委員会は2011年の議事総会で新体制に移行することを提案する。そのためには以下の新体制移行への過渡的手順を踏むことにより，会員の理解を得ながら現会則に従った改革が行えると考える。

（1）現理事会は2010年7月の議事総会で新たな管理運営執行体制(会則改定，諸規定)を提案し承認を得る。

・新管理運営執行体制を2011年7月に予定される議事総会で発足させることを総会は承認。

・2010年から2011年の間は，過渡的に現理事会が新体制に移行するまでの管理運営執行を行う事を会則の附則として総会が承認。

（2）2010年7月の議事総会で以下の1年間の管理運営体制の承認

・現理事(理事会)・評議員を再任し，任期を2011年7月の議事総会までとする。

・再任された新理事会により新会則に従って新理事長を選出(任期は2011年7月の新理事会発足までとすることを，新会則の附則として承認)

・新理事長の任期は2011年7月の議事総会までとするが，2011年7月議事総会で承認された新理事会が新会則に従って審議し理事長を選出。

（3）2011年7月の議事総会までに，2010年7月議事総会で承認された会則・諸規定に基づく評議員選出，役員選出を行い議事総会で報告（新会則に則る)。

（4）2011年7月から新管理運営体制による学会運営

・報告後直ちに理事会を開き理事長の選出，各委員会委員長を決定

・総会中に議事総会を開催し理事長および新管理運営組織を報告。

結語

日本医学英語教育学会は，初代植村研一理事長の努力により医学英語教育にかかわる教育研究の発展のために，医学英語教育に携わる教育者・研究者・医療者がそれぞれの背景を持ちながら考えを交換する貴重な場として発足した。2代大井静雄理事長の努力により学会は飛躍的な発展を遂げ学会事業として社会的意義の高い医学英語検定試験を開始した。今回，管理運営組織改選を前に，発展途上にある本学会が継続的な発展を確実にするためにあり方委員会を設けたのは意義が高いと言える。現在，議事総会，評議員会，理事会など学会の管理運営執行の構造は整っているが，様々な組織・地域に本務を持つ会員からなる学会のなかで，今後の学会の発展のための学会組織，管理運営執行体制について時間をかけて討議する機会は限られる。あり方委員会は，理事評議員の意見，提言を参考にしながら，本学会の将来を見据えた体制を構築するための討議を時間をかけて行った。新体制への移行方針を2010年議事総会までに理事会が提案できるためには，委員会は短い期間で審議を完了しなくてはならなかった。しかし4回開催された委員会には委員全員が出席し，一人ひとりが学会発展のために真摯な討議を行い，ここに提出する提言書は議論を尽くした結果である。この提言書が，学会発展のために有効に活用されることを願う。

吉岡 俊正
菱田 治子
Raoul Breugelmans
一杉 正仁

（2010年1月29日，理事会承認）

Writing Tips

Overkill

Reuben M. Gerling

Do not write too much when the message is clear:

> *Many organisms, including humans, are exposed to toxic metals such as iron, copper, cadmium, lead and aluminum from widespread sources including tobacco smoke, air pollution, landfills, industrial waste, fossil fuels, chemical fertilizers and plumbing corrosion.*

The above can be shortened as follows, without losing any of the meaning:

> *Humans are exposed to toxic metals such as cadmium and lead from various sources in the air and water…*

This will provide the same information with fewer words.

When trying to avoid long and cumbersome lists writers at times use etc. to supplement their lists. The use of etc., and so on (and so on, and so on, ad infinitum) should be discouraged. Two arguments can be made for its use. 'The list is very long, I'll spare you the other 321 items by using etc.'; 'You know what I mean, so I need not tell you more.' In a scientific paper, there is only one measure to determine whether to write or not to write: the need for information. If all items on the exhaustive list are necessary to the comprehension of the paper, write them all. If not, do not write them. Conclusion: in almost all cases etc. can and should be avoided.

Wordiness leads to inaccuracies. Writers are preoccupied with the padding of their texts and the precise meaning gets spread in such a way that it becomes difficult to comprehend. Although in tutoring writers we tend to concentrate on individual sentences, it is the sum total, the paragraphs and chapters that get blurred in the process.

As we are involved in helping authors whose first language is not English, and, indeed, very different from English, to write paper we should keep in mind that they are writing to communicate a certain point, so the first and foremost question is: what is that point?

Once the author has identified the message, it is time to pay attention to the medium.

Unfortunately even many first language speakers find it difficult to express themselves in writing. It is preferable, therefore, to try and propose the following guidelines:

Use simple English, avoid dictionary words.
Use short sentences, avoid long, complex sentences.
Adhere to formal style, avoid chatty, conversational expressions.
Stick to the correct tense.

A lot of authors prefer for some reason to use the continuous past. This is particularly true when they are talking of a reference: “Wlkinson’s and Ginger have described”. In fact, when referring to a paper that is relevant to the present piece, the present simple should be use: “Wlkinson’s and Ginger describe”. The past continuous is not actually that common. Papers of historical interest alone will be referred to in the past: “in their paper of 1654 Wlkinson’s and Ginger described”, and the past continuous will only be used for the in-betweens, i.e. those papers that are not really relevant but do still need be mentioned.

Finally, authors should follow the chronological order of the work. Many times, the reader gets confused because the paper tends to describe something that has happened in the middle, before providing the beginning of the story. It is always better to prepare a chronological outline and follow that when writing the paper, in particular when writing the methods and the results.

Editor's Perspectives

New Constitution for JASMEE

The JASMEE board approved a new constitution at its extraordinary meeting on May 14. The Japanese original of the constitution is printed in this issue.

The new constitution brings JASMEE in line with other societies in that the governing bodies will now be elected by the membership, and not appointed from above. The general meeting that is convened at each conference will, therefore, assume a new and more important role. Whereas in the past it was just a formality, members were handed down information by the chair, from now on the members will have to weigh the information they receive and decide on their preferences regarding the performance of the board and its members.

It is, of course, crucial that the society will gear itself to serve its members in a more meaningful and efficient manner. It is also hoped that more members will take active part in the activities of the society and will get more involved in its work and performance. At the moment, besides the conference and journal, the society is running the EMP examinations (EPEMP). All three activities require increasing participation as the conference depends on members' attendance and presentations, the journal on readership, submissions and reviews and the EPEMP on candidates for the examination recruited by members, on submission of appropriate questions for the examinations and on editing and administering the examinations. This is the third year of the EPEMP and it is becoming increasingly clear that there is a need for more reviews of the material used and of expert analysis of the contents.

Hopefully the new constitution will help us in building a better, more vigorous and successful society.

Reuben M. Gerling

How to submit papers to the *Journal of Medical English Education*

The Journal of Medical English Education welcomes well written, innovative papers on a wide range of subjects that relate to medical English and its teaching.

Prospective authors should consult first the Guidelines for Authors, which appears on every other issue and are available online at <http://www.medicalview.co.jp/jasmee/index.shtlm> to ascertain that their work conforms to the format approved by the journal. The complete papers can be sent to the editorial offices at <jasmee@medicalview.co.jp>. A submission consent form, available at the end of each issue of the journal, should be completed and signed by the authors and sent by mail to the editorial offices at <The Journal of Medical English Education, Medical View, 2-30 Ichigaya-hommuracho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-0845, Japan>. No submission will be published without the receipt of a completed and signed consent form.

投稿申請書

Submission Consent Form

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TEL　03－5228－2274　　FAX　03－5228－2062
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Mr. Junji Eguchi, JASMEE c/o Medical View
2-30 Ichigaya-hommuracho, Shinjuku-ku,
Tokyo 162-0845, Japan
Phone: +81-3-5228-2274, Fax: +81-5228-2062
E-mail: jasmee@medicalview.co.jp
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