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Language and Education in Japan and Europe

Proceedings of the 2012 Japan - Netherlands Education Research Seminar

by

Peter Broeder & Ken Hisamura (eds.)

Tilburg University
peter@broeder.com

Den-en Chofu University
dzj01411@nifty.ne.jp

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Content

Introduction

Peter Broeder & Ken Hisamura

Tilburg University
peter@broeder.com

Den-en Chofu University
dzj01411@nifty.ne.jp

In February 2012, a tour of Europe was planned and organized by the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET) Special Interest Group (SIG) http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-jacetenedu/ on English language education. The objectives of the visit to academic institutions or schools in Holland and Germany this time were as follows:

(1) To examine how the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (*CEFR*) has been contextualized in terms of systems, curricula or institutional syllabuses,
(2) To explore how successfully generic portfolios (*ELP*) or customized variations thereof have been used at secondary-level institutions and in teacher training programs,
(3) To gain a better understanding of how content and language integrated learning (*CLIL*) has been implemented at schools,
(4) To explore how the concepts of pluriculturalism have been introduced in the classroom,
(5) To identify opportunities for collaborative research and build linkages with specialists overseas,
(6) To identify areas of good practices which can be realistically emulated in the Japanese institutional context.

This document includes a selection of the papers presented at the 2012 Japan-Netherlands Education Research Seminar that took place at Tilburg University (February 6-7, 2012).

First, Hisatake Jimbo presents an overview of JACET from its foundation to its 50th anniversary this year: objectives, practical activities, inter(national) affiliations and challenges ahead. Next, Ken Hisamura provides brief summaries of recent projects undertaken by the JACET Special Interest Group (SIG) on English Language Education.

Yoichi Kyota introduces issues concerning the development of professional competences of English language teachers in Japan. After discussing the 21st century reforms in English language education, he refers to the current trends in pre-service and in-service EFL teacher education policies. The contribution of Shien Sakai goes into a number of methodological problems in the Japanese EFL context. Sakai notes that the Grammar-Translation Method is rooted in Japan despite significant drawbacks, and he brings to the surface certain reasons why Communicative Language Teaching has not been popular.

Peter Broeder & Carel van Wijk discuss some of the attempts that have been made to cope with the educational challenges set by the growing language diversity in Europe: the CEFR and the ELP. Jan Blommaert goes into the use of language in globalization and into the presence of lookalike language.

Finally, Peter Broeder & Mia Stokmans elaborate on the notion of the teacher as a reflective practitioner. Teachers' professional roles and required competences are discussed. This results in a trellis with 16 competence domains. The trellis is explained for the topic of language management.

We sincerely hope that this document will help you identify areas of complementarity in respective research agendas which will lead to collaborative scholarly projects.

Overview of JACET

Hisatake Jimbo

Waseda University
jimbo@waseda.jp

From JACET's Foundation (1962) to its becoming a General Public Association (2008)

The Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET), originally a subsidiary of the Institute for Research in Language Teaching, was founded as an independent organization in 1962. JACET was established in a time of educational reform in order to improve the state of English language education. The original purpose of the group was specifically to address the problems at the tertiary level.

In 1967, with financial support from the Fulbright Commission, the first JACET Summer Seminar was held. This was a turning point for the organization because in its wake, JACET began to experience rapid growth in both membership and influence. Regional activities grew with rising membership and consequently, local chapters were established (Kansai, 1972; Tohoku, 1981; Chubu, 1983; Chugoku-Shikoku, 1984; Kyushu - Okinawa, 1984; Hokkaido, 1986; Kanto, 2006).

In 2008, JACET became an incorporated body for public interest and has adhered to its objectives and the pursuit of activities to fulfill them. The acquisition of the incorporated status has the following merits.

(1) JACET has gained its official status and will be able to expand its activities. It is expected to have a stronger influence on the English teaching world.
(2) This raises the possibility of acquiring trust funds and research grants.
(3) Recruitment of members will become easier.

Objectives of JACET

The main objective is to contribute to the improvement of university English education and the development of studies related to English education in Japan. JACET offers a regular forum for scholarly exchanges on the issues related to EFL education in Japan and globally. We encourage policy-relevant research on the theory and practice of English teaching and learning. We acknowledge accomplishments by Japanese and non-Japanese scholars in the area of university English education. We also promote exchanges and collaborative research among JACET and affiliate organizations.

Four main pillars of practical activity

First activity: Holding an international convention, seminars and other meetings for presentations of theories of university English education and related language education as well as reports of practice results.

(1) Annual International Convention and Chapter Conventions.
(2) Spring Seminar, Summer Seminar, and other academic meetings.

Second activity: Publication of journals, bulletins, news and projects.

(1) Publication of JACET Journal.
(2) Publication of JACET News
(3) Publication of Survey of English Language Education Study

Third activity: Awarding prizes to and cooperating with Japanese and non-Japanese scholars associated with university English education, academic associations and institutions.

(1) Awarding JACET prizes (Award for Excellence in Research, Award for Promising Scholar, and Award for Excellence in Teaching).
(2) Exchange of scholars among affiliate associations.

Fourth activity: Research and study of theories and methods of university English education and related language education.

(1) National and International Research Study.
(2) Special Interest Group activities.

Membership

In 1962, the year JACET was founded, the membership stood at 120. By 1982, the number had grown to 1,000 and passed 2000 in 1990 and 3,000 in 1997. The total membership reached a peak in 1998 with 3,067. This peak was marked one year before the World Congress of Applied Linguistics (AILA) was held in Tokyo, where more than 2,400 participants gathered from around the world. This figure reflects the enthusiasm that many university English teachers throughout Japan demonstrated for this international congress. In 2007, the organization had over 2,700 members. A majority of members are full-time or adjunct faculty at college-level institutions though the secondary level teachers are well represented. *The Membership Directory* is annually published and distributed to all JACET members.

National and International affiliations

JACET is working closely with like-minded regional groups as many issues confronting English education in Japan are present in other institutions and countries. Major national partners are Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), Language Education and Technology (LET) and English Language Education Council (ELEC). Major international affiliates are the International Association of Applied Linguistics (AILA), International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), SEAMEO Regional Language Centre (RELC), KATE (Korean Association of Teachers of English), Applied Linguistics Association of Korea (ALAK), English Teachers' Association of Republic of China (ETA-ROC), Malaysian English Teaching Association (MEITA), China English Language Education Association (CELEA), Thailand Teaches of English to the Speakers of Other Languages (Thai-TESOL) and Pan-Korea English Teachers' Association (PKETA).

Special Interest groups

These groups constitute the core of JACET research efforts. Research covers a number of pivotal areas from English education to testing, pragmatics to SLA and lexicography. Groups conduct focused research and present their findings at regional, national and international conventions. Research conducted by SIGs is intended not only to serve the academic community, but more importantly to influence the policy decisions and to serve as agents of change within the Japanese educational context.

Challenges ahead

As JACET celebrates its 50th anniversary this year, we are looking at the role the organization will play in the evolution of English education in Japan. The priority questions in this context will be: how JACET can contribute to the promotion and dissemination of Common European Framework of References (CEFR) ideas and principles within the institutional constraints of Japanese educational context; how JACET can contribute to the promotion of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and preparing the necessary tools to enable stakeholders to make the transition to the new teaching platform; and how JACET can build collaborative bridges with other groups and identify areas of complementarity.

JACET Special Interest Group (SIG) on English Language Education

Ken Hisamura

Den-en Chofu University
dzj01411@nifty.ne.jp

Introduction

The JACET special interest group (SIG) http://www.waseda.jp/assoc-jacetenedu/ on English language education aims to contribute to the improvement and advancement of English language education in Japan through research on theory and practice of English teaching and related fields. We started an activity with a national survey on English language methodology classes in 1997. In the following year we published the textbook of English teaching methodology for student teachers.

Three major projects

Since then, we have designed and conducted several research projects regarding pre- and in-service teacher education provided in Japan and overseas. Among them, the following three projects supported by grant-in aide for scientific research of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) may be representative of the research thrust of our group.

2004-2005: Developing English teacher competency: An empirical study of pre-service teachers, training and curriculum

Two questionnaire surveys were conducted: one among teacher trainers in charge of employment at local boards of education to clarify the qualities of pre-service EFL teachers suitable for employment, and the other among the mentors (veteran teachers) who supported student teachers on-site to grasp the reality of English teaching practicum and find some problems of the English language teacher training programs provided by the universities in Japan. Concurrently with these two surveys, four groups were organized among the members of the SIG, and each group separately visited Asian countries such as Korea, Singapore, Malaysia, and Taiwan to examine aspects of pre-service teacher education in each country and to explore the implications for Japan.

2007-2009: Developing English teacher competencies: An integrated study of pre-service training, professional development, teacher evaluation, and certification systems

Three different national quantitative surveys were conducted during this period: first, about the Teacher Certification Renewal System (TCRS) among in-service secondary school EFL teachers to suggest the possibility to standardize professional competences of EFL teachers as well as the necessary actions prior to the implementation of the TCRS; second, on the implementation of the TCRS and English teacher competences among supervisors of professional development at local education boards to explore the possibility to establish a national appraisal framework for EFL teachers; finally, on pre-service teacher education programs among instructors responsible for EFL methodology courses in junior colleges and universities to investigate whether the contents of their programs meet the demands of today's educational realities. In addition, the following research tours to explore the implications for Japanese EFL teacher education were organized: to Canada (Quebec and Ontario), USA (California, Massachusetts and Northern

Arizona), England, and Austria (ECML, Graz). Also, some members participated in international conferences, such as the 2007 NBPTS Annual Conferences in Washington, D.C., AILA 2008 Essen in Germany, the 2008 ACTFL Annual Convention in Orlando, etc. Among these activities, participation in AILA 2008 Essen, where we had an opportunity to become much more familiar with the *European Portfolio for Student Teachers of Languages* (*EPOSTL*) (Newby, et al. 2007; Newby 2012), influenced our research direction: the focus of our research has shifted towards the creation of an educational tool for language teachers' professional development. As a result, the adaptation of the *EPOSTL* to the Japanese educational context (*J-POSTL*) was elaborated in March, 2010.

2010-2012: A comprehensive study on the framework of English language teachers' professional development in Japan

Another three-year grant-in aide for scientific research project started in April, 2010. At present, two projects are in progress: contextualizing the *J-POSTL* to be effectively used in the pre-service teacher training programs in Japan, and elaborating can-do descriptors to be included in *Japanese Portfolio for Teachers of Languages* (*J-POTL*). The objectives of these two projects are:

(1) To standardize the didactic competences of in-service as well as pre-service teachers of languages,
(2) To disseminate portfolio work among teachers nation-wide: build up a network of teaching professionals who utilize this instrument at the institutional level.

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Teacher Education in Japan

Yoichi Kiyota

Meisei University
kiyota@ge.meisei-u.ac.jp

The teacher education system in Japan

Following WWII, teacher education has been conducted based on the principle of openness in Japan, which means at liberal arts education within any four-year university, and not only at education colleges. In other words, teacher education has been conducted in education colleges and departments of education at universities and teacher training programs at more than 800 departments of four-year comprehensive universities across Japan.

As a general procedure to become secondary-school English teachers, students attend initial teacher education programs offered at the undergraduate-level at higher-education institutions, and then they acquire a teacher's qualification upon graduation. With this qualification, they take an employment test set by each Board of Education. The employment model in Japan is career-based.

Teacher education reforms in Japan

The rationale behind the recent English education reforms in Japan paid particular attention to educational policy developments, especially at the turn of the century. In 2002, for example, Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) launched *The Strategic Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities",* which, in 2003, evolved into *The Action Plan to Cultivate "Japanese with English Abilities".*

The aim of the plan was to radically improve the standard of English education since the inadequate English-speaking abilities of a large percentage of the Japanese population was thought to impose restrictions on exchanges with the non-Japanese and create instances in which the ideas and opinions of the Japanese were not appropriately evaluated. As one of the six strategies listed in this plan was to improve the quality of English teachers, it set targets for the expected English-language abilities of English teachers.

Improving the qualification of English instructors

As to the qualification of English instructors, benchmarks for the expected English-language abilities of English teachers were established as follows: STEP Pre-1 level, TOFEL PBT 550 or TOEIC 730, or equivalent. STEP test is Japan's most widely used English-language testing program.

Under the plan for training to improve qualifications of English teachers, intensive training for all 60,000 English teachers at junior high and senior high schools was carried out under a five-year plan that was implemented in the fiscal year 2003 with subsidies provided to prefectural governments. Although this nationwide scale training project attracted great attention, no examination of effectiveness was ever made public.

The Implementation of English at elementary schools

Since 2011, a mandatory activity for 5th and 6th grades of elementary school for 35 hours per year has been implemented nationwide. MEXT explained the activity as follows: "In connection with English conversation activities, which are carried out in the Period for Integrated Study, support is to be extended so that teaching

can be conducted by foreign instructors, fluent English speakers, or junior high school teachers in one third of such sessions." While English was an 'optional activity' for 3rd graders and over, it has become a 'mandatory activity,' though not as an 'academic subject,' for 5th and 6th graders for 35 hours per year in 2011. Eventually, this may lead to problematic situations because there has been no consensus of opinion over the purpose and goal of English education at elementary school level. Moreover, junior High School English education curriculum has not been revised as a result of this elementary school-level policy.

Pre-Service teacher education

The policy report submitted to MEXT regarding pre-service teacher education (1997) made some concrete recommendations for professional competences that teacher trainees in pre-service teacher education should aim at achieving. It also reported that pre-service teacher education should be considered as the initial step of the stages of lifelong professional development, although it has been repeatedly pointed out that there is a divide between what teacher trainees acquire in pre-service teacher education and the skills demanded in the actual teaching contexts. Teachers today are expected to try to narrow the gap between the two as well as to work on developing their professional expertise throughout their professional career.

In-Service teacher education

In 1984, an advisory body under the direct jurisdiction of the Prime Minister, the National Council on Education Reform (NCER) was launched. Great interest was shown by the mass media in the launching of the NCER. It remained in existence for three years and issued a total of four reports.

In August 1987, the final report was published. Fundamental perspectives on educational reform were presented in the form of three principles:

(1) the principle of emphasizing the individuality of the students;
(2) the move to a system of lifelong learning; and
(3) the response to changes such as internationalization and advancements in information technology.

MEXT recognizes three categories of teachers in discussing teachers' capabilities and qualifications: novice teachers, experienced teachers, and expert teachers. Newly employed teachers (novice teachers) at public secondary schools are legally required to receive one year of training. The training elements related to teaching English as a subject are usually divided into four sub-areas: basic skills, classroom management, class observation, and lesson study. The training is divided into on-the job training and off-the-job training. Teachers receive about 10 hours of on-the-job training per week and 25 days of off-the-job training per year at education centres, companies, welfare facilities, and so on. According to a survey of teachers' consultants in local boards of education, the most useful training for novice teachers is workshops on how to conduct lessons, training on the effective use of teaching materials, and training on how to teach the four skills. Three important measures related to in-service teacher education were implemented:

(1) The teacher evaluation system was introduced throughout Japan in 2006.
According to the information collected from the websites of local boards of education, teacher evaluation is generally based on self-assessment and job performance appraisal. Professional development activities conducted individually or collectively are not included in assessment. A principal of each school evaluates the teachers according to standards which are established by each Board of Education, since no nationwide standards exist. In order to introduce a training system integrated with assessment, it is necessary to set appropriate professional standards for teacher assessment.

(2) Graduate schools for in-service teachers were established in 2008.
This development sought to make a link between teaching theory and actual classroom practice.

(3) The teacher certification renewal system (The TCRS) was implemented in 2009.
The objective of this policy was to ensure that in-service teachers regularly engage in professional development and acquire knowledge and skills necessary to maintain and improve their qualification and competences in the subject matter areas.

Necessity to establish professional standards

As for in-service teacher education, a new framework needs to be established to address inadequacies in the current system, particularly in the area of teacher autonomy. In order to improve in-service teacher education programs, it is necessary to define concrete qualities and capabilities of teachers, professional standards, and standards for teacher assessment. Also, long-term teacher development should be promoted vigorously rather than with ad-hoc teacher training such as workshops conducted by Boards of Education. While on-the-job-training conducted at the workplace may be ideal for the improvement of English teaching abilities of EFL educators, this type of training (or longitudinal professional development) has not been widely implemented due to time constraints.

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Overview of Methodological Problems in Japanese EFL Context

Shien Sakai

Chiba University of Commerce
shiensakai@nifty.com

Introduction

Some researchers in Japan claim that, as introduction of communicative English is one of the main causes of the recent decrease in students' English ability, the instructional pendulum should swing back to Grammar-Translation Method (henceforth GTM) (Sugawara, 2011). GTM has certainly produced some proficient English readers but it has two major shortcomings; (1) it often results in many underachievers because it requires too much preparation for a class (Sakai, 1990), and (2) students learning by GTM usually do not have enough time to internalize what they study because the method focuses too much on translating a text, it does little to help students acquire the language (Kanatani, 2004).

Why is the Grammar-Translation Method rooted in Japan in spite of such significant drawbacks?

The reasons can be summarized as follows: this method has a long history in Japanese language education. In addition, English teachers of Japanese secondary schools, through their experiences as students and teachers, are well versed with this method's instructional goals and process which help students improve in English grammar and English reading. Therefore, GTM has been a mainstream methodology with little variation across the Japanese educational landscape. This is mainly because an instructional design of GTM has been shared among many English teachers in Japan. The objectives of the design are two-fold: the first one is mastery of school English grammar and development of reading ability. Since school English grammar has been systematically organized, understanding of each grammatical item serves as a benchmark which can measure students' ability of English. The reason underlying this philosophy is, as a set of benchmarks are organized by stages of difficulty, the process of language acquisition becomes transparent. Consequently, it becomes much easier for students to know items and their order for study, and for teachers to understand items and their order of instruction. The other objective is developing English reading ability. In the basic stage, understanding main texts of textbooks and naturally the progress in students' level of understanding is the goal. In the applied stage, the materials are taken from past entrance examination questions and drill books used for practice of similar questions. The evaluation is measured by whether a student can give a correct answer to those questions. Naturally, the level of difficulty of the textbooks they study and ranks of universities serve as benchmarks. Motivating students with this teaching method becomes very straightforward: successful students can pass university entrance exams to institutions of their choice. Considering this background it is quite understandable that almost the same instructional design has evolved nationwide in Japan. Thus, the pushing force is using textbooks authorized by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (henceforth, MEXT) in schools nationwide and the pulling force is entrance exams which stress English grammar and reading ability. Therefore, it can be assumed that GTM used in Japan is supported and promoted by those English teachers who have a vested interest in seeing their students obtain high scores on entrance exams. Naturally, GTM as a *modus operandi* for entrance examinations has spread nationwide. This method is easy for teachers to use; so many students who did not want to go to a college have been taught by this method nevertheless.

A strong point of this method is benchmarks with high transparency. Although long years have passed since grammar classes went out of formal high school curriculum, GTM is still enjoying popularity, judging from considerable numbers of supplementary English grammar textbooks published each year. This also indicates that some teachers have a strong belief that English grammar should be taught in English classes.

Some reasons why Communicative Language Teaching has not been popular

In a narrow sense, significance of learning a foreign language differs among people. However, in a broad sense, it can be stated that it nurtures awareness of interaction with people of different cultures and languages, promotes human communication, deepens mutual understanding, and contributes to the world peace. In addition, it fosters an attitude that learning a foreign language (or several languages) is necessary. Accordingly, when learning a foreign language, it is important to develop communicative competence. For that purpose, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology has evolved. It has been more than 20 years since CLT was introduced, yet it has not found acceptance in Japanese educational settings. Let's examine the reasons behind this phenomenon.

Is it because CLT so far has not provided sufficient benchmarks to set clear aims of study? Or, is it because it failed to measure students' progress? After all, we have the Course of Study, in addition to, the Action Plan by MEXT which states that junior high graduates should have Grade 3 in STEP. SEPT is a popular seven band test in Japan by The Society for Testing English Proficiency, and high school graduates either pre-Grade 2 or Grade 2.

To begin with, as a result of the screening process of textbooks by MEXT, an individual teacher at a secondary school in Japan is not required to establish specific achievement criteria or study objectives for his or her students because they are listed in the Course of Study, and textbooks authorized by MEXT are accompanied with thick teachers' manuals which typically contain an annual teaching plan with lists of teaching goals for all the lessons in the textbooks.

When teachers try to teach grammatical items and explain the text, they can just follow the order of how new items, whether lexical or grammatical, appear in the textbook and use published materials to clarify whatever is necessary. However, in the age of Communicative Language Teaching, teachers' job is not just to explain grammatical items and textual meaning but to coordinate interaction between the teacher and the students or among students. In other words, with the GTM, the teacher evaluates the students by checking how much they know about the grammar and meaning of the textbook, but in the context of CLT the evaluation should be done by checking how much the students can communicate in English.

CLT teachers are also required to make short-, mid- and long-term study plans for the class. However, there has been hardly any development or promotion of setting such aims or assessment methods in Japan.

A four-point assessment of English ability has been introduced in junior high schools, but judging from the fact that it is not so popular yet, it can be assumed that this assessment has not been effectively utilized in junior high school educational settings. As for high school settings, a four-point scale of assessment has been almost neglected. At the tertiary education, no common assessment framework has been created or even contemplated.

Even after the introduction of CLT, the assessment system used at high schools was almost the same; understanding of a textbook is often the main component of a term test because GTM continues to be the dominant methodology. The term exam focuses on sentence structures but not on functions which students should use as a means of communication. A teacher should check the students' degree of understanding of what they study, and give them good feedback to prevent them from dropping out. However, if a teacher assigns the students to answer a term-test consisting of a few pages of the textbook they studied, the test focuses on students' memory but not on their communicative competence. This practice produces another

adverse effect; if a student gives perfect or near perfect answers to that kind of test using his or her memory, the teacher may believe that the students have acquired English.

From the point of view of real language acquisition, as opposed to rote memorization, it is necessary for teachers to assess what they can realistically do to encourage students to internalize and produce the language in meaningful contexts. However, a model of assessment to develop students' ability has never been offered to educators. In order to assess the students' ability, a teacher should measure students' performance. However, performance assessment mechanisms using a portfolio, etc. have not been popular among pedagogical practitioners in Japan because in the centralized system such as the education structure in Japan, teachers have not been provided with the necessary tools to enable them to implement CLT in the classroom. Accordingly, student output is still limited to paper production. This underscores why CLT has not been embraced by Japanese language practitioners.

Ways to motivate students should be revised, too. Teachers should bear in mind three kinds of motivation: a short-term motivation (to get a good grade in the teachers' classes), a medium-term one (to pass an entrance exam and or an English proficiency test), and a long-term one (to learn a foreign language for a lifelong ability to communicate with non-Japanese speakers). Obviously the first two types of motivation are fundamentally instrumental in nature, whereas the last one is integrative. However, according to my experience, only medium-term motivation is employed at secondary schools in Japan. Without a short-term one, students will find it difficult to learn English and soon abandon the efforts; without a long-term one, a lifelong desire to pursue the study of a foreign language is very unlikely to take root. As a result, most college students stop studying a foreign language just after finishing their mandatory foreign language course. As long as this tendency continues, the number of Japanese who can use a foreign language does not increase. Of course, students may have their needs to learn a foreign language to pass a test, but English education that uses TOEIC as the only and primary motivation, making students anxious about the score, will not help students engage in the study of English as a lifelong pursuit.

Perhaps another reason why CLT has not gained more supporters in Japan is that people concerned did not share the rationale of CLT in terms of entrance exams. In Japan, obtaining a high score on English tests is an indicator of good achievement. Therefore, not to train students to get good scores on a written test is judged as a methodological liability. Therefore, most of the teachers at secondary schools are not convinced that CLT can nurture capable test takers. This is evidenced by the following fact: The previous Course of Study enforced in 1994 instructed all high schools to teach oral communication, based on CLT principles, in EFL classes. Then oral communication became a mandatory subject but it was taught in mostly 1 year classes, and almost no high schools taught it at all through the three years of English instruction. In the current Course of Study high schools could choose either "English Expression" or "Communication English." Many teachers thought that the former is more consistent with GTM but the latter is supposed to be based on CLT. Contrary to MEXT's expectations, almost all high schools may / will choose "General English." MEXT, however, definitely wants to promote CLT and in the next Course of Study that will be enforced in 2013 announced already, "General English" course will not be included and all the high schools will be required to teach "Communication English."

Conclusion

Thus, MEXT has been eager to make communicative English teaching succeed; however, MEXT hasn't provided teachers with a template of an instructional design but simply instructed teachers to use CLT. Naturally, this top-down policy without much consultation and support meets with strong opposition or lip service. Unless the system is fundamentally revised, with detailed and comprehensive tools offered to teachers,

a change in the entrance examination style, and resulting motivational shift among learners, emphasis in secondary schools in Japan will continue to be on Grammar-Translation.

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Diversity and Education in Languages: the European situation

Peter Broeder & Carel van Wijk

Tilburg University
peter@broeder.com c.h.vwijk@uvt.nl

Language diversity

The language map of Europe is changing. More and more Europeans are using other languages instead of or in addition to their official 'national' language. The European continent is rapidly becoming a multilingual one. Frame 1 summarizes a number of the relevant demographic figures. The changing linguistic landscape also has its impact on European language education. The educational system is currently going through a hectic period. In this contribution, we discuss some of the attempts to cope with the educational challenges set by the growing language diversity in Europe.

Frame 1: The language situation in 21 European countries (McPake et al., 2007)

- At least 440 languages are spoken.
- Of these languages (Arabic, Bengali, English, Hindi, Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish) are spoken by over 100 million people worldwide, as their first or main language; and 65 of them by over 10 million people worldwide.
- The languages most widely distributed are Polish and German (in 17 of the 21 countries). French, Arabic and Russian (16), Spanish and Turkish (15), Romani (14), and English and Mandarin (13).
- About 280 of these languages are spoken in only one European state.
- Formal provisions are available for about a quarter (24%) of the languages spoken across Europe.

Language policy

In the last few decades, educational language policy in Europe has been shifting from a monolingual, solitary approach towards a multilingual, unitary approach. Two basic principles are finding more and more general acceptance: (a) within a specific country, people do not necessarily share the same 'first language' or 'mother tongue', and (b) all 'non-national' languages are to be treated alike in the context of 'foreign' language education. The latter represents a clear break with the once dominant division into three domains:

- the official national language(s),
- the (modern) foreign languages (mostly English, French and German),
- the so-called additional languages (mostly spoken by regional or ethnic minorities and migrants.

This growing acknowledgment of the multilingual reality and the increasing urge to develop comprehensive forms of language education that ensued as a result, has occasioned a number of initiatives for a common language policy in Europe.

In its proclamation *Promoting Language Learning and Linguistic Diversity: An Action Plan 2004-2006*, the European Union has taken as its starting point the need for enhanced communication skills for over 450 million people from very different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. In order to live, work and trade together, Europeans cannot confine themselves to an elementary mastery of the national languages of the

member states (which, to all intents and purposes, comes down to only a small number of 'modern' languages). The range of languages to be learned by a considerable number of people will also have to include 'smaller' national languages of member states, languages of regional and minority groups, languages of migrants, and languages of major trading partners around the world, such as Chinese and Russian.

CEFR and ELP

In line with the position taken by the European Union, the Council of Europe is comprehensively redefining the range of languages European citizens should learn (Broeder & Martyniuk 2008). The Council of Europe has developed the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (the CEFR) as an instrument to stimulate the learning of languages and also to enhance mutual understanding. An important aspect of the CEFR is the specification of language proficiency levels for five domains: listening, reading, spoken interaction, spoken production and writing. Within each domain, six levels of language proficiency (and three user levels) are elaborated explicitly through *can do*-descriptors. Frame 2 gives an illustration for writing.

Frame 2: Common Reference Levels: general descriptors for writing proficiency

Basic User	A1	I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.
	A2	I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate needs. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something.
Independent user	B1	I can write simple connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.
	B2	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.
Proficient user	C1	I can express myself in clear, well-structured text, expressing points of view at some length. I can write about complex subjects in a letter, an essay or a report, underlining what I consider to be the salient issues. I can select style appropriate to the reader in mind.
	C2	I can write clear, smoothly flowing text in an appropriate style. I can write complex letters, reports or articles that present a case with an effective logical structure that helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points. I can write summaries and reviews of professional or literary works.

The most extended implementation of the CEFR is the *European Language Portfolio* (ELP). A language portfolio is a document to be kept by persons who are learning languages - whether at school or outside school. In this portfolio, they record their plurilingual and pluricultural experiences and reflect on them.

Frame 3 presents short descriptions of the three parts that define a portfolio. The ELP provides a detailed language profile of the user with an indication of the proficiency level achieved in specific languages, and the goals set for further learning

Frame 3: Set-up of the European Language Portfolio

In line with the recommendation of the Council of Europe three parts can be identified in a European Language Portfolio	
Part 1: *Language passport*	A regularly updated summary description of the linguistic and intercultural experiences of the owner in different languages, defined in terms of the skills and levels in the CEFR
Part 2: *Language biography*	The owner reflects upon and assesses own learning process and progress through goal-setting and self-assessment checklists.
Part 3: *Language dossier*	Illustrates achievements or experiences recorded in the biography or passport through certificates, or documents that contain samples of language use originating from projects and presentations the user has participated in.

The CEFR and the ELP are becoming more and more influential in European language policy and language education (see Broeder & Martyniuk 2008). For a more general acceptance, two issues will have to be settled first.

The first issue concerns the definition of CEFR levels. The *can-do* descriptors that define proficiency levels are derived from teachers' perceptions of student performances. It is still unclear, however, whether their perceptions actually coincide with stages in the learning process. Moreover, the CEFR levels and descriptors have been developed to evaluate adults' second language proficiency. It has not been settled yet whether CEFR levels and descriptors are valid and reliable also for mother language proficiency and for young children's second language proficiency.

Frame 4: Useful websites

Updated lists of web links and relevant documents such as guides, policy papers, conference documents, and case studies, can be found on the following websites:	
Council of Europe	http://www.coe.int
Language Policy Division	http://www.coe.int/lang
European Language Portfolio	http://www.coe.int/portfolio
European Centre for Modern Languages	http://www.ecml.at
VALEUR-project	http://www.valeur.org

The second issue concerns the didactic implementation of CEFR-levels. For example, the first three levels (A1, A2 and B1) focus on the gradual expansion of the vocabulary and diminishing tolerance for grammatical deviations. From level B2 onward, the explicit knowledge of grammatical rules is emphasized. Progress in

terms of CEFR levels does not coincide with common educational practice to manage language teaching as a linear process, that is, discrete grammatical issues are presented one after another under the assumption that a next item is introduced only once preceding items have been mastered. Moreover the CEFR provides descriptive proficiency levels but does not specify what language activities should be undertaken in order to perform adequately on any of these levels.

Dynamics of language education

Language education is confronted with the challenge through variation. By investing in the rich diversity in the classroom, new opportunities are created with far-reaching consequences not only for individual learners but also for society as a whole. We conclude with some of these practical observations and suggestions.

The dynamics of economic and social factors will cause continuous shifts in the status and position of languages. Language education for the plurilingual individual should take these ever-moving developments into account. This calls for a flexible and up-to-date list of priority languages. The list will have to be adjusted regularly to local and global demands. Thus, we can get rid of the outdated distinction between official (national) languages, foreign languages and additional languages in line with the motto *it is better to be plurilingual than monomaniacal.*

Societies have always been rich in languages. What is new, however, is the growing awareness that education should never be an obstacle to anyone striving for maximum personal development. For our modern world, learning different languages as well teaching in different languages are of the utmost importance. The extent to which education will be able to adapt to the multilingual diversity in the classroom is going to be the crucial determinant for its future success. *It's a multilingual world after all.*

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Lookalike Language

Jan Blommaert

Tilburg University
j.blommaert@uvt.nl

When a language moves across the world, it does not move through empty spaces. It moves through spaces already filled with linguistic and semiotic codes, their norms and expectations, and their patterns of valuation and evaluation. And mobility, thus, affects mobile languages – most immediately through this phenomenon for which we use that old notion of 'accent'. English, of course, is learned and used with an accent all over the world now, in both spoken *and* written forms. There is accent in writing, too: influences from existing scripts, local forms of pronunciation of English words, locally dominant pragmatic or poetic patterns projected onto English. English, then, is quickly absorbed in the sociolinguistic system and is adapted to it.

The results of such adaptations can be seen in thousands of examples circulating on the Internet, of 'funny English' or 'Engrish', often taken from Asian public sites. Many of us have seen those; in fact I am convinced that many of us drift onto websites documenting 'funny English' after long and tough days on the job, when the cold wind is blowing outside and everything in the world seems to go wrong. We find intensely entertaining things there, and even our professional familiarity with such things will not prevent us from bursting into roaring laughter when we read "welcome to my erection campaign" on a Japanese politician's website or "Too drunk to fuck" on the T-shirt of a young Thai boy.

The fact is that English in the world often appears in forms and formats that challenge our understanding of *language*, not just of English. English is widely used by people who have no active competence in it, or whose degree of fluency in the language precludes an accurate understanding of what they have printed on their bodies. Language, then, is not 'language' in the conventional sense of a formal system by means of which propositional meanings are transmitted. It is used emblematically, as a mere graphic sign exuding mysterious associations with the cool and the sophistication of the West, with the idea of global mobility and the universal stardom that only English-speaking people appear to have access to. English on a T-shirt then somehow becomes the equivalent of a poster of Justin Bieber or Madonna in someone's bedroom: it is an aspirational object, a projection of dreams and fantasies that revolve more around the elevated position of the object in a symbolic stratification – Justin Bieber as *the* universal teenager icon of the moment – than around the actual person. Very few of those who behold Justin Bieber's image on their bedroom walls will ever meet him, let alone get to know him. The Justin Bieber they adore is in actual fact their own image and understanding of 'Justin Bieberism': an ideal, a utopia, something that concludes a prayer before bedtime. Similar things happen to English in many parts in the world.

The English that people adore, admire and aspire to is, to the large majority of the world's population, beyond their reach. Realistically, a black child in a township near Cape Town will never acquire the kind of English that earned Nobel Prizes for his/her fellow Capetonians Nadine Gordimer and J.M. Coetzee. Yes, they can get English, but not *that* English. Globalization has in fact turned English into a global symbolic restratifier, a semiotic item that adds new layers of exclusiveness to sociolinguistic systems already marked by profound inequality in their patterns of distribution and accessibility. Wherever English occurs, it quickly occupies the top of the symbolic pyramid of social and cultural diacritics. Those who have it are almost invariably elites who can entertain realistic dreams of transnational mobility and success; those who don't

have it are aware of the function of English as a gateway out of the ghetto, the favela or the township, and they project such aspirations of upward and outward mobility onto the bits of English they can acquire.

Such bits of English, as we saw, are sometimes not really *English*. Their function is not to express coherent linguistic meanings through the system of English. It is, rather, to *show* and *display* an awareness of the potential social capital contained in forms and shapes connected to English. My Tilburg research team have for some years now been investigating such aspirational and emblematic displays of language, and my colleague Xuan Wang at some point coined the term 'lookalike language' for them. Items of this type appear to satisfy one defining criterium: they sufficiently *look like English*, even if the English they display makes no sense at all linguistically. The presence of an 'English-looking' script forming English-looking words is often enough to satisfy the demand. Thus, Figure 1 shows what might best be described as a soup of words, of English-looking words, printed on a pair of jogging trousers.

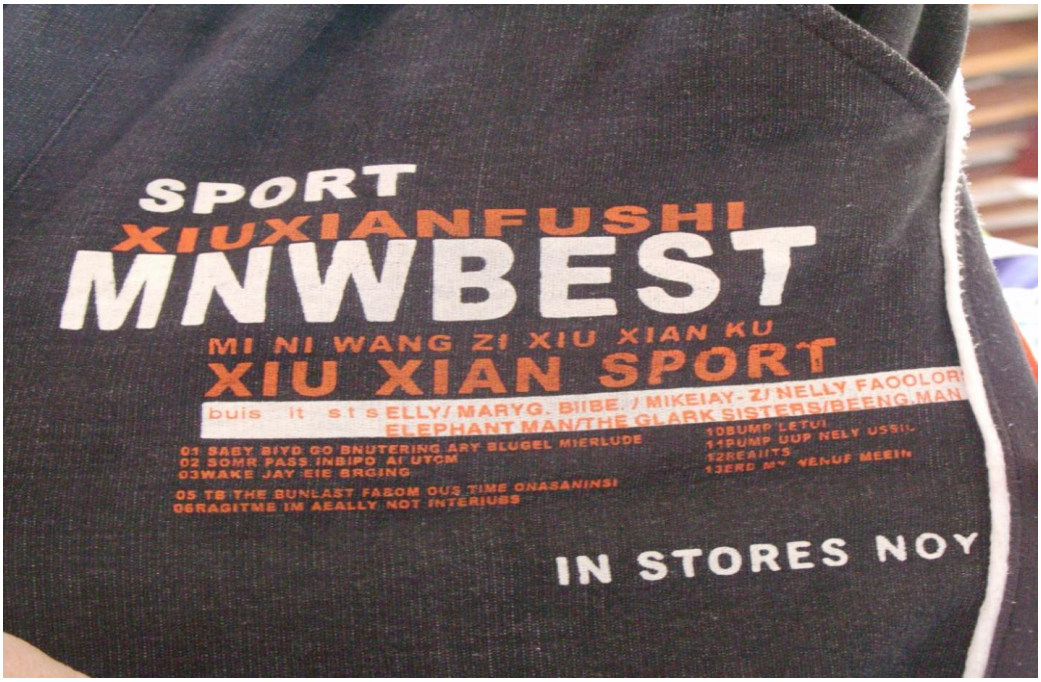

Figure 1: Soup of Words

We read cryptic things such as "MNWBest" and "In Stores Noy"; we also see a sequence of what looks like celebrity names printed back to back:

> "ELLY/MARYG.BIIBE/MIKEJAY-Z/NELLY FAOOLOR
> ELEPHANT MAN/THE CLARK SISTERS/BEENG.MAN"

And we see quite a bit of text written in roman script and vaguely reminiscent of 'English': "01 baby diyo go bnutering any blugel mierlude". The impression we get here is that the printer pooled and used *any* form remotely known or recognizable as 'English' in an attempt not to create a readable English text but to create emblematic 'Englishness' – something that looks sufficiently like English be recognized as English in the local context. Never mind meaning.

This can *count as* English in Lijiang, a small tourist town in the Soutwestern province of Yunnan, China. China, as we know, is significantly more central in the world of business and finance than in the world of English; and Lijiang is definitely the periphery of China. English is a very rare commodity in such places, hard to acquire and hard to develop and use as a medium of communication. Yet, people know the emblematic value of English, and this kind of lookalike English is widely used and displayed. In a classic sociolinguistic fashion, such displays are not random. We find them whenever items or places need to be flagged as posh, expensive, better-than-normal, new, international and aimed at the affluent and the young. Thus, a shop where old-fashioned farmers' and workmen's clothes are sold – Mao-style jackets, simple cotton shirts, slacks and caps – shows no inscriptions in English at all; but around the corner, a rather more upmarket boutique targeting fashionable young customers calls itself "Panarybody" (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Panarybody

It did take me a while before I had established that 'panary' stands for 'products that have to do with bread'. It's a nice and exclusive word that has a fine euphonic rhythm to it. It is connected to 'body' here, so 'panarybody' might be understood as 'a body that is related to bread'. Completely puzzling, given the nature of the shop, but distinctly different in total semiotic effect from the working-class textile shop selling Mao jackets. The Panarybody boutique is an entirely different place inviting different audiences and offering different adjectives to the commodities sold there. Whoever buys jeans or T-shirt there should feel connected not with Kunming (the provincial capital), but with London, Milan, New York. The imitation Playboy bunny sign adds a powerful global pointer, a kind of semiotic intensifier, to this.

We have hundreds of examples of such lookalike language from all corners of the world – the peripheries of English are broader and more fragmented than Braj Kachru's Outer and Expanding Circles lead us to suspect. In fact, lookalike language is the mode of appearance and of use of an immense amount of English in the world. We tend not to take it too seriously – and prefer to use it as a profoundly amusing sidekick in our field of study – but we should consider it as a fundamental part of the phenomenology of language in the real world. The people designing such lookalike English have hardly any linguistic competence in the language; their linguistic knowledge of English is often nil. But their *social* knowledge of English is

massive and accurate. They know about this magic language, and they know the magic it can perform. They know its indexical and emblematic potential, and they also know that even a tiny bit of (what looks like) that language can set them apart from others, create distinction in Bourdieu's sense – for within their local sociolinguistic system, very few people would be able to come to such signs with a fully developed competence in the language. Very few local people, thus, would be able to walk into the shop and say: "Panarybody is a nonsense word; you're making a fool of yourself".

Languages, thus, exist in areas where they are not understood as linguistic signs but still have wide currency and recognisability as emblematic signs. This is why some young people in Western Europe walk around with Chinese characters tattooed on their bodies, the meaning of which is unknown to them. For all it matters, the sign on their shoulder could read "two very cold beers please". That is not the point – the point is the imagery of exotism and Oriental mystery it articulates. It is also why a very expensive chocolate shop in central Tokyo chose "Nina's derrière" as it name. This potentially catastrophic misnomer (imagine offering someone a chocolate obtained from 'Nina's bum') still articulated the chic and sophistication of 'Frenchness' – an indexical complex scoring even higher than English in the symbolic stratifications of contemporary consumership in Japan and drawing on materials distantly connected to a language almost universally unknown in Japan.

The use of language in globalization is not predicated on knowledge of its linguistic system. Mobile languages enter spaces in which the language cannot become a 'real' language but can lead a busy and successful life as an emblematic object of great social significance. Realizing this evidently opens up a wide space of theoretical and methodological inquiry, involving crucial questions on the nature of language, its functions and its rules of use. Lookalike language can be dismissed in a variety of ways, as "bad English", as "deeply nonnative English" and so forth. That is fine. But we cannot afford to neglect it as *language*, as one widespread mode of occurrence of language, surely not when we see how important its emblematic functions are for its users and how significant the investments are that such users make in their use. Emblematic English is at the core of the phenomenology of English as a global language.

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Professional Roles and Competence Domains of the Teacher

Peter Broeder & Mia Stokmans

Tilburg University

peter@broeder.com m.j.w.stokmans@uvt.nl

Introduction

Schools as learning organizations should be sensitive to the context within which they function. Since learning environments are dynamic and change rapidly, educators (teachers and management) should be open to adjusting to situations evolving in the classrooms at school. They should apply their knowledge of teaching and organizational issues in the current teaching situation and adjust their approach accordingly. Furthermore, they should take into account the background of students. Teachers and school management are responsible for arranging social interaction in such a way that all students can profit, irrespective of their background. In this respect, the teacher as a reflective practitioner (Schön 1983) is crucial in dealing with the ever-changing multicultural and multilingual environment. Functioning as a reflective practitioner not only requires special knowledge but also a specific attitude. The relationship between a dynamic learning environment and the teacher as reflective practitioner is illustrated in Figure 1.

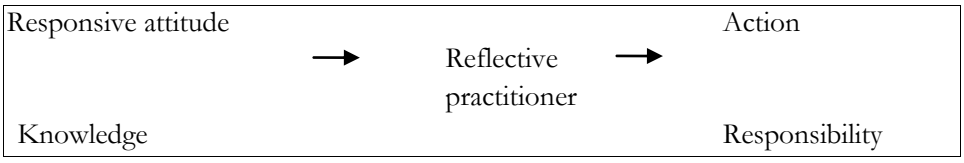

Figure 1: The teacher as reflective practitioner: knowledge and attitude.

Figure 1 illustrates that an effective learning environment (i.e., reaching the goals set) is based on different competences that can be structured along the cognitive dimension (i.e., knowledge necessary to be able to respond in a sensitive manner to changes in the teaching situation, and the attitudinal dimension (i.e., being prepared to introduce necessary and desirable changes in one's approach. The reflective practitioner combines all competences needed to create an optimal learning environment and atmosphere that is tailor-made for the specific situation, that is, the content to be learned, the diversity of the school population, and the facilities offered.

Professional roles

Teachers have different professional roles associated with different social agents in a school context. According to role identity theory (Burke 1997), roles only exist in relation to other contracting roles. Goals,

meanings and expectations associated with a specific role constitute a set of standards that guide behaviour. The four roles of the teacher that can be distinguished are determined by the following four 'actors': students, internal partners (i.e., the colleagues and the school management), external partners (i.e., the other schools, the local area/district, the industries, the government), and the parents. Many of the meaningful activities involved in the teacher role are governed by the control of available resources (social power, prestige, knowledge, and competences). Seen from this perspective, the influence of parents is very different from that of external partners. Other teachers are similar in power and status, as is the management of the school.

Domains of competences

A specific social role pre-describes the main characteristic of each of the competences. In consequence, the different social roles of the teacher enable us to specify general teacher competences for the following domains: interpersonal domain, organizational, evaluative, and professional.

(1) The interpersonal domain: collaborative networking

In order to cope with the multilingual and multicultural environment, teachers should develop skills to communicate effectively in culturally diverse social situations. They will need collaborative networking skills to deal with the different agents involved in school life. The overall aim is to strengthen the engagement and involvement of all actors in the school: students, teachers, parents, and other educators.

The central idea is that schools are players in an open and living system within a local or regional environment whose work in education is interconnected with external partners in the form of all manner of social networking activities. The structures of cooperation will not be defined from a static institutional point of view but from a progressive functional one. This viewpoint has its roots in tasks, conditions, and needs of the environment that the school is part of. In this perspective, the boundaries of an organization are more or less permeable. Its stability as well as its quality and effectiveness depend to a large extent on the level of permeability: only an open school system is able to engage in this collaborative conversation with the students as well as with internal and external partners. And only an open school will reflect an open society.

Ordinary reforms do not normally bring about long-term changes because they have no impact on the particular school cultures, opinions, and attitudes that drive the actions of the teaching staff. However, if networking with all educational partners (as stakeholders) is taken seriously, the school culture will adapt and an open, receptive attitude will be encouraged.

(2) The organizational domain: planning in heterogeneous school settings

Teachers need planning competences that range from classroom activities to general school management tasks and that are coherently integrated in a school development plan. Classroom management requires teachers to be flexible in their teaching activities, to be able to deal with the increasing heterogeneity of the school population. The organizational domain is not focused on methods but on the framing aspects of classroom management. Examples are dual language education (i.e., team teaching by teachers using different languages) and coordination of the language configuration (national language, foreign languages, mother tongue instruction).

Teachers and other experts involved in a school development plan constitute the school "inclusive team". Preparing the learning plan across subjects for each learner with different language learning needs is one of the team's central responsibilities. Another important function of the team is to provide opportunities for consultation between teachers and the school's support staff where this is applicable. The team also decides on ways to deploy other responsibilities associated with the integration of students. Furthermore, the team evaluates its own work and identifies the needs of the staff for in-service training or consultation with external institutions.

(3) The evaluative domain: assessment

Evaluation is an integral part of the planning cycle within a school. Working for the benefit of individuals entails a major shift in the approach to designing courses as these are to be tailored to the needs of individual learners. The language learning needs of learners have to be identified carefully and it is on this basis that individual learning and teaching plans are to be designed. The main objective of these tailor-made curriculum plans is to arrive at a successful integration of the individual into the classroom through the acquisition of the necessary competences in the school language.

Schools and teachers should be given autonomy to plan assessment specifically suited to the individual learner, that is, according to the expected learning outcomes. This is especially important in systems where realization of the attainment levels is linked to progression from grade to grade. There are two main types of assessment in school systems: summative and formative.

Summative assessment takes place at the end of a period of learning, for instance at the end of an academic year or at the end of a course. This kind of assessment takes the form of an examination or a standardized test. The main purposes include verifying the attainment level realized by the student, certification, ranking of individual students, assigning students to levels and courses of study, and gate-keeping (for example, accepting or rejecting applicants for specific study programs or jobs).

Formative assessment is concerned with student learning in a more pedagogical sense and the outcomes are not used for reporting purposes beyond the classroom. Formative assessment can be carried out in the classroom as part of teacher-student interaction through talks while working on subject content, as part of a teacher's written feedback on students' written assignments, as part of students evaluating one another's written work or classroom discussion/presentation (peer assessment), or as part of students' self-evaluation of their own progress. Formative assessment by the teacher requires one to be explicit about what is to be learned in terms content and language. By asking content-relevant questions in the classroom and by reading students' written work, teachers can establish what students have learned and what they may need to learn to make progress. With the help of this information, teachers can provide individual feedback to separate students and collective feedback to all to help them to move on or up to the next level of learning.

(4) The professional domain: counselling

Successful school attendance and achievement requires an open teaching habitus that regards counselling as a standard procedure of schooling. The professional domain demands a readiness to be counselled by others, i.e., by students, colleagues and parents. Counselling can also take place through peer coaching, analyzing language data, informing each other about the different language tests, new teaching methods and so on. The following three types of counselling are distinguished: Applying current methodologies (language teaching, testing and the like), designing new applications of current and new teaching activities, and Investigating one's own teaching activities (self-evaluation, self-reflection).

Trellis of competence domains

Crossing the four domains of competences with the four teacher roles results in a trellis of 16 competence domains (see Table 1). Within each competence domain, a distinction is made between attitudes, knowledge and skills. These notions will be explained briefly for the topic of language management (Roth et al., 2010).

(1) Attitudes

General attitudes include things like language awareness, cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, and reflectivenes (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven 2002). Effective communication with actors of diverse language and cultural backgrounds requires cultural empathy as well as an open attitude making it possible for one to interact in an unprejudiced manner. Social initiative, frequent cooperation and networking with these actors strengthens the engagement of all actors in the school. An attitude of reflectiveness ensures that teachers are constantly aware of their teaching performance so that they can adapt their practices to the needs of the culturally diverse teaching context. Teachers review their work from the point of view that it is embedded in the overall context of the school and the surrounding community.

Co-acting roles / Competences for	**Student**	**Internal partners**	**External partners**	**Parents**
Interpersonal domain: Collaborative network				
Organizational domain: Planning at school				
Evaluative domain: Assessment				
Professional domain: Counselling				

Table 1: Trellis of teacher competence domains.

(2) Knowledge

Key areas of useful knowledge that might be applied include a sound knowledge of successful conditions, methods and strategies of communication, cooperation, and implementation of innovative elements in the areas of language education policy, parental participation and language-based further training.

(3) Skills

With the communicative skills necessary to interact effectively in social settings related to the educational context, teachers are able to select the appropriate communicative repertoire given the cultural background of the other actors. In addition, teachers need to develop organization and planning skills that will eventually result in the creation of a solid 'school language plan' functioning as a central axis in the school's curriculum organization: this may include realizing some form of fine-tuning between the classes offered for each official language, minority languages and foreign languages in the overall plan. The skills necessary to engage successfully in organization, evaluation and counselling are closely bound up with the extent of the cooperation between language teachers and teachers of other subjects, which is essential. Linked to this, is the ability to select the appropriate methods of language assessment and language diagnostics in multilingual settings in the implementation and evaluation, carried out individually as well as with the assistance of experts.

Perspective

Good teachers are aware of the importance of (intercultural) communicative competencies, which need to be mastered alongside didactic competencies. In order to reach all the pupils and to really get the learning process going, a school language is indispensible. This is the language that all the pupils can understand and in which they can express themselves. Teachers who are aware of this will talk to their pupils about the content of the lessons in understandable language, without using difficult words.

Appendix I shows a possible way to work with the trellis shape, for the topic of language management. This example is developed in the framework of the EUCIM-TE project (European Core Curriculum for Teacher Education, see Roth, et al.) Some topics touch on all domains; others are related to certain domains of the trellis.

In this contribution we have attempted to capture the teacher and the school context in roles, competences and even specified domains. Our main aim in this was merely to present a framework for discussion, not to formulate a checklist for teacher standards (nor for teacher evaluation).

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Appendix I: Teacher Competences for the Interpersonal, Organizational, Evaluative and Professional Domains

Interpersonal	***Pupil***	***Internal partners***	***External partners***	***Parents***
Attitudes	Openness towards migrant languages and people from other cultures; empathy with pupils; awareness of different registers and genres	Awareness on the part of the entire school staff of the needs of second language learners	Accepting that the help from external partners can be necessary and extremely useful	Accepting the impact of home language and family talk on the language learning process
Knowledge	Knowing what language skills the pupils "import" into school and be aware that there is a gap between their colloquial home language and the school language	Knowing methods to create and to develop a coherent language management plan for their school	Knowing what actors from outside the school can intervene in school to help deal with a complex language situation	Knowing that parents can be a possible resource to be used in language teaching (valorisation)
Skills	Being able to establish a learning environment that is culturally sensitive and inviting and to valorise the mother tongues of pupils	Being able to engage in further cooperation between content and language teachers notably to identify the pupils' language needs	Being able to create links with and describe the help needed to other people or institutions who can be of help	Being able to involve parents in the language learning activities of the school
Organizational	***Pupil***	***Internal partners***	***External partners***	***Parents***
Attitudes	Sensitivity to language and culture differences amongst the school population	Organizational skills, culture of discussion amongst colleagues	Presentation and negotiation skills	Presentation and negotiation skills
Knowledge	Knowing which language management strategies and measures will help the school to deal more efficiently with the needs of the pupils	Knowing what language competences are available amongst the staff; knowledge of different forms and aspects of team-teaching, group work, project work, etc.	Knowing how to present and "sell" their language management plan to external partners	Knowing how to involve the parents in the development of the language management plan
Skills	Being able to plan and adapt the instruction according to the pupils' language and cultural differences; to plan and organize the different measures, methods, etc.	Being able to decide on the most effective form of the different measures inside and outside the classroom (e.g., team-teaching)	Being able to present and negotiate the language management and related financial issues with external partners	Being able to discuss the language management with the parents and incorporating their comments and suggestions
Evaluative	***Pupil***	***Internal partners***	***External partners***	***Parents***
Attitudes	Competence-oriented approach; concentrating on development rather than on norms	Competence-oriented approach; concentrating on development rather than on norms	Competence-oriented approach; concentrating on development rather than on norms	Competence-oriented approach; concentrating on development rather than on norms
Knowledge	Knowing different methods of language testing (for written and spoken language; knowing the language learning strategies)	Knowing different types of evaluation instruments	Knowing other experts and institutions specialized in language testing	Knowing the home language and the registers mainly used within the families of their pupils
Skills	Being able to apply them to their classroom and to the individual pupil; implement support strategies in the classroom	Deciding on and selecting, together with colleagues, evaluation instruments that fit school needs; analyzing results and developing improvement measures	Involving these experts in their school	Being able to inform parents about language development of their children
Professional	***Pupil***	***Internal partners***	***External partners***	***Parents***
Attitudes	Acceptance of the pupil's level; positive attitude concerning possibility of progress	Openness toward colleagues; willingness to cooperate	Accepting that the help from external partners can be necessary and extremely useful	Openness toward all agents directly or indirectly involved in the educational system
Knowledge	Knowing methods of counselling pupils concerning their language learning strategies	Engaging in counselling and accepting being counselled by colleagues; knowing different counselling methods	Knowing which external partner can support the language management of the school	Knowing that parents are important agents to further the learning process; knowing methods that parents can use themselves at home with their child
Skills	Being able to give advice to every pupil concerning the next stage of proximal development whatever the level of language proficiency may be	Being able to help out and give advice to colleagues; being able to accept that counselling may be necessary and useful; being able to inform colleagues on the "creative moments" of language learning	Being able to define the needs of the school and discuss them with an external counsellor	Being able to present and discuss classroom issues; e.g., inform parents about new language tests and teaching methods