

Odysseus – Second language at the workplace

Language needs of migrant workers: organising language learning for the vocational/workplace context

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and Chris Holland



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Dedication

“Die ganze Heimat und das bisschen Vaterland,
die trägt der Emigrant
von Mensch zu Mensch
von Ort zu Ort
an seinen Sohlen
mit sich fort.”

(Walter Mehring, “Der Emigranten-Choral”, in
*Grenzgänger: Die Schiffe nach Amerika, Emigranten-
lieder*; CD, Müller-Lüdenscheidt Records, Emden, 1995)

“The whole home country and that little bit of fatherland,
this carries the emigrant
from man to man
from place to place
on the soles of his shoes
away with himself.”

Like many thousands of Latvians, Aunt Antonija Vanaga and Uncle Jazeps Dyura together with his daughter, Tereze, left Latvia in 1944 for political reasons. They first stayed in Germany. In Bonn my cousin, Tereze, studied and met her future husband. Then they emigrated to the United States.

Preface

This publication is the result of the work carried out by the core-group of the Odysseus Network. The Odysseus project is part of the medium-term programme for 2000-03 of the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) and was co-organised and co-financed by the Council of Europe and the Directorate General for Education and Culture of the European Commission.

The idea of the project was born out of the conviction held by the bid applicants of the key role of vocational and workplace-related language provision in social and economic integration and the participation of migrant and ethnic workers, and their commitment to make it a European issue.

The project initiators, Matilde Grünhage-Monetti, Deutsches Institut für Erwachsenenbildung, Bonn, Andreas Klepp, Volkshochschule Braunschweig, and Annet Berntsen, University of Amsterdam, have been working on the issue of vocational and workplace-related second language provision as researchers and practitioners in their respective institutions in Germany and the Netherlands. For the Odysseus project they intended to join forces, attract experts in the fields from other European countries and institutions, exchange expertise and explore together relevant theoretical, organisational, linguistic and methodological issues so that better second language provision for immigrant and ethnic workers could be developed. Beyond that, they wanted to trigger a discussion throughout Europe, build a European platform and raise awareness for an issue which has a low profile due to the traditional academic/vocational divide and the related low status of vocational education and training in general and of educational issues regarding immigrant and ethnic target groups in particular.

We therefore appreciate very much the commitment both of the Council of Europe and of the European Commission, which recognised the momentum of the issue and supported the project.

But “nomen est omen”. We had our little Odyssey. The life of the project was characterised by a lot of changes in the composition of the group. Some participants moved to new employment like Annet Berntsen, quite a number, in spite of their interest in the issue, left the project because they were not working in the field of second language provision. Elwine Halewijn, also from the University of Amsterdam, filled Annet’s place. Chris Holland, from the United Kingdom, became a *de facto* member of the co-ordinating team. New colleagues joined the project in the second year and more countries sent their representatives. Odysseus kept sailing forth.

The project’s action plan began with a preparatory study in order to get an overview of the current situation in the area of workplace/vocationally-oriented second language teaching in Europe. Subsequently, it intended to adapt existing instruments for assessing second language needs at the workplace with an emphasis on communicative

tasks, and to collect and analyse a few samples of authentic spoken and written “scenarios” at the workplace in English, in order to show how to integrate needs assessment with actual workplace practice.

The first workshop in June 2000 was attended by representatives from twenty-one countries, all with varying experiences of language teaching and workplace language and/or literacy provision. This workshop enabled participants to share their experiences and expertise in language teaching for adults with a focus on vocational and workplace-related language teaching, and to learn from each other about workplace policy and provision. Those with experience to share gave presentations to the group as a whole. Network groups were established according to the participants’ field of expertise.

Some twenty-three participants, some taking the place of those no longer able to attend and others providing a fresh input from new participant countries, attended the second event which took place in September 2001. This proved both valuable (experienced colleagues, and wider contribution and dissemination) and difficult (some new members did not have workplace language experience either in terms of policy or practice in their countries; they had to be brought up to speed with the project). The composition and focus of the network groups were readjusted in order to meet their new profiles and to work towards the final publication.

The network groups’ co-ordinators meeting in April 2002 was crucial. Thanks to the trust that had become established between the group’s members it was possible to discuss more deeply and more controversially the different theoretical perspectives and the strong political implications of this type of provision than in the previous events, where participants with different degrees of familiarity with the issue, different academic and political backgrounds, and different commands of the working languages met for the first or second time.

The following months were dedicated to finalising this publication.

The members of the network groups, who had actively contributed to the publication, met again in September 2002. They discussed their final work and handed over their recommendations for better vocational and workplace-related language provision both to the decision and policy makers in their countries and to the ECML for the participants in the final workshop.

The latter was attended by twenty-eight colleagues from twenty-six countries, among them a few countries represented for the first time. The participants were acquainted with the theoretical framework of the project and the content of the publication as well as the wishes of the network groups. A draft charter for good L2 practice at the workplace, together with strategies and recommendations at national and European level, was also finalised.

In May and December 2003 two regional events, in Spain and Iceland respectively, will further disseminate the results of the project and develop additional partnerships.

By the end of 2003 Odysseus will have reached its haven. In the meantime, plans are being prepared for a further journey.

We would like to thank our colleagues who participated in the Odysseus Network and contributed generously to the discussion and to this publication, the European Commission and the Council of Europe for co-operating on this project and the European Centre for Modern Languages for making it all happen.

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A. Introduction

Matilde and Primo Monetti left Italy as children and emigrated to Brazil with their parents in search of a better life. They learned Portuguese in order to cope on the farm where they were working.

Detlev and Karl Haspelmath left Germany as bold young men and emigrated to the United States in search of adventure and freedom. They learned English to carry out their trades and keep a saloon.

O brigante o emigrante.

(A nineteenth-century saying from southern Italy describes the desperate situation of the Sicilian field labourers: "Either outlaw or emigrant".)

Mamma mia, dammi cento lire che in America voglio andar ...

(from a folk song from northern Italy) "Mother, give me one hundred lire, 'cause I want to go to America ..."

1. Migration and integration

Migration is intrinsic to life. It has been shaping individual and collective history since time began as a powerful source of social innovation, cultural and spiritual blossoming as well as economic development. On the other hand, migration is often laden with conflicts and disruption. It always implies dramatic changes for individuals, groups and institutions.

Over the last decades in Europe we have witnessed an unprecedented movement of people across borders. Traditional causes for migration, such as wars, political and religious persecution and poverty, have been supplemented by more recent phenomena; globalisation processes, technological and demographic developments and the change from industrial to "knowledge and service" societies are accelerating migration flows and generating extremely diversified migration patterns.

Millions of people with a migration background live and work in Europe. All countries are facing the challenge of integrating majority and minority populations in accordance with the principles of democracy and participation that they claim to share.

As second language practitioners and researchers, we are convinced of the key role of vocational and workplace-related language provision for speakers of other languages in their social and economic integration and participation. Knowledge is now understood by policy makers and industry as the principal asset of globalised business, and

language is a central key to knowledge. Communicative competences have become pivotal elements of vocational and professional performance at all hierarchical levels for all employees (mother-tongue speakers and speakers of other languages).

The Odysseus Network has given us the possibility to exchange experience and expertise, further investigate the issue, and work towards developing a common understanding of the theoretical frameworks and what good practice should be.

The present publication is aimed at documenting the work we have done. We understand it as an interim measure. It describes the status of current provision in some of the European countries which have participated in the project. But it also sketches out our vision: the principles we have identified and recognised as common guidelines for further development. Each contribution/chapter may be read independently. This may explain a certain redundancy.

2. Language and the knowledge society

In the climate of globalised business, which characterises many of the countries we live in, knowledge has become one of the principal assets. Language is a necessary instrument to access knowledge and participate in it. In most workplaces throughout Europe, communicative competences are demanded from all employees (mother-tongue speakers and speakers of other languages) at all hierarchical levels. This requires a holistic approach to the issue of workplace communications and not an isolated intervention in the needs of particular groups. This also explains the reference to research and practice of literacy (a subset of language) that we often refer to in this publication.

3. Second language and literacy provision as humanitarian and economic imperatives

The recognition of both humanitarian and economic rationales rejects a deficit-oriented, assimilatory approach, which focuses on the lack of competences and needs of individuals, and makes them mainly responsible for the success or failure of communication, even blaming them for not achieving in terms of mainstream culture.

Our approach, on the contrary, calls for a whole organisational approach throughout the entire process of language provision to organisations, from marketing, needs analysis and curriculum development to delivery and assessment.

4. Language as social practice

Language is seldom practiced in isolation by individuals but rather in interaction with others in time and space. At the workplace, as in other contexts, language is shaped by the explicit and implicit cultural norms of that particular social community. In this publication, we use Etienne Wenger's term "community of practice" to indicate a group of people participating in the practices of a specific social community (Wenger 1998).

We understand language as social practice, as more than a structural system. How it is used depends on the context and on the community in which it is practiced. It is embedded in social, cultural and political relations. All actors involved in communication share responsibility for its success or failure.

This understanding of language expands on the other principles of education and has direct implications for the organisation of provision and its implementation (didactics and methodology). It provides a new framework for thinking about learning and teaching as a process of social participation rather than simply skills development (Holland 2003).

5. Language as a three-dimensional phenomenon

This sociocultural perspective calls for language provision in the workplace, which takes into account what Green (1998) defines as the dimensions of language practice.

The operational/functional dimension enables language users (in our case migrant/ethnic workers) to exchange information. For example, explaining a default in a machine/product, following instructions, etc. This is the level of formal correctness, as regards vocabulary, grammar, etc.

The cultural dimension accounts for culturally appropriate interaction. For example, using the appropriate register, body language, proxemics, intonation. This is the level of broad cultural appropriateness at the level of "genres": for example, taking or keeping the floor during a group meeting.

The critical dimension involves understanding one's relationship to others in a specific community of practice. It implies recognising and judging the social relevance of the communicative events/acts in a specific community of practice and gives the instrument to make informed choices.

The knowledge and the skills connected to this dimension enable the speakers to take on an active role in communication in a specific context: for example, how to take or keep the floor as a middle-aged, Muslim woman in a "white", male-dominated group meeting of the department XY in company Z.

The examples make clear that these dimensions are not ranged in a developmental progression, nor do they have to be taught one after the other. They are interwoven and interdependent and must be present at all stages of learning and teaching.

The great achievement of the Odysseus Network has been to agree on this theoretical framework, to use it as a set of parameters both for analysing critically the actual practice in the own country and/or institution and for developing better provision.

The contributions in the present publication represent the current situation but also contain recommendations about how practice should be. We are aware that we could not always give examples of “good” practice in accordance with the theoretical framework we claim to share. Often they are simple examples of existing practice, with all its flaws.

Mainly in the field of delivery, the mismatch between the presented approaches and the theoretical premises we have sketched here are evident. We are convinced that experienced and engaged practitioners manage to fill the gap and deliver an empowering, participative second language provision in their courses, which is more consistent with the advocated principles than the description of the corresponding approach may suggest. Nevertheless, we feel that at present there is no delivery model which can claim to be consistent with the insights gained by research. We strongly feel the need for a didactical and methodological framework, which systematically and transparently implements the principles stated above.

We take this up as a challenge for future work. May Odysseus sail on to further ventures and reach the shore of a better and equitable language provision.

B. Guidelines

I. Promoting and marketing language provision

Chris Holland, Matilde Grünhage-Monetti and Leif Lundell

This chapter has been slightly adapted from a paper by the Deutsches Institut für Erwachsenenbildung for the Leonardo project “Training for the integration of migrants in the labour market and local community”.

1. Introduction

In this chapter we will consider three aspects of promotion and marketing. The first is promoting the concept within government organisations in order to build awareness and to gain political and funding support. The second is building awareness within industries of the business need for language provision, in order to support workers and business development. The third is at the level of individual companies, in order to engage them in second language provision. The chapter will focus mainly on this final aspect.

The Odysseus project includes a number of countries in both eastern and western Europe. The political and industrial experience of eastern European countries has been very different from western European countries. Consequently, government, educationalists and the industry sector have set different priorities for development in each case. However, globalisation and migration issues are of growing importance to all European countries, giving rise to legislation aimed at protecting the rights of migrants. For instance, Estonian and Latvian laws establish that migrants (and, in some cases, workers) have a right to language provision, while Romania and Albania have introduced refugee laws. Various western European countries have similar laws, which means that across Europe there is a baseline of concern for the welfare of speakers of other languages, migrants and refugees. This humanitarian baseline, indicating a social imperative, is one from which a case can be put to governments for strengthening language provision in the community and in the workplace.

Some western European governments, more competitively engaged with global market forces, have seen an additional economic value in legislating and funding to ensure that all residents and workers have access to language provision. Their argument is, then, economically pragmatic: migrants and refugees cannot be banned on humanitarian grounds, they must be allowed into countries to live and work. If they are working, as much as possible must be done to ensure that they are an economic asset to the economy and to the country as a whole. To make sure that they can contribute their skills and knowledge effectively, they must be assisted to improve fluency in the language of the new country. Funding must be provided for this purpose. Countries

such as France, the United Kingdom, Germany and the Netherlands, to different degrees, have recognised and adopted this economic imperative.

2. Promoting the concept of workplace language provision to government

The extent to which any government supports second language provision in the workplace should ideally depend on a combination of economic and social imperatives, and, indeed, reference to both is evident in policy documents throughout Europe. However, many countries are increasingly more concerned with economic rationales: namely, to which degree an economic benefit may result from supporting such provision. Thus, promoting workplace language provision to government is likely to be more successful when linked to economic objectives, as happened in the United Kingdom with the campaign of the Basic Skills Agency for political support and funding.

From the point of view of workers' welfare, adopting an economic approach to second language promotions can lead to deficit-oriented, discriminating representations and perceptions. Workers are represented as the main "problem" in terms of economic competitiveness, as in the above-mentioned British campaign. Alan Wells, Chairperson of the Basic Skills Agency, for instance, recently admitted that there had been no empirical basis for the slogan used in government campaigns stating that "7 million people in the UK were functionally illiterate" and using this to emphasise the cost to business of poor language and literacy. In other words, rather than presenting second language provision in the workplace as a right of all new residents and citizens, lobbyists can come to collude with the view that it is a duty of these workers to engage in language provision, in order to be economically viable in their jobs. This may increase the vulnerability of migrant workers. To avoid this – unintentional but counterproductive – outcome, sound research into communicative practices in the workplace must be undertaken and social as well as economic rationales presented at government level.

While a government may support the concept of workplace language, this can be done in a variety of ways. One is to help bring together key stakeholders to consider the issues and to develop national and regional strategies. Another is to give a clear message to industry through laws related to industry training and to fund providers to develop their expertise in this work through research and professional development. A third is to directly fund provision, either through providers or employers. A promotion strategy to government needs to ascertain which, for the country concerned, is most appropriate to the political climate. Where some provision already exists without government support (such as in Iceland and Belgium), case studies can be used to present to government the economic and social benefits to all stakeholders.

In some countries (for example, Germany and France), while workplace language provision is not driven nationally, funding can be obtained under particular workforce

training initiatives. One such initiative is the job rotation scheme operating in Germany and Finland, which is presented in Chapter F-II.7.

In many European countries (for example, those emerging only a decade ago from the former Soviet Union) promoting the concept of workplace language provision is very difficult and slow, yet other steps can be taken to prepare for government and business support. An inspiring example comes from the field of workplace literacy. The National Adult Literacy Association (NALA) in the Republic of Ireland lobbied government and approached businesses, but at the same time prepared for provision by building their own capacity to deliver workplace literacy effectively: they hosted trainers from the United Kingdom to deliver teacher education programmes to their tutors, in the marketing and delivery of workplace language and literacy. Lobbyists promoting workplace language may link the language to the literacy issue, or integrate both in a common campaign for the improvement of communicative competences at the workplace both for indigenous and migrant/ethnic workers. Experience and expertise gained in other countries may be called upon to speed up the process of developing own solutions.

3. Promoting the concept of workplace language provision to business

For many industrialised and globally competitive countries around the world, workplace language provision is part of a national campaign to improve standards of language and literacy (for example, the United Kingdom, United States, Australia and Canada). From both social and economic perspectives, unions and workers' councils are natural allies in forwarding the development of these initiatives, and need to be encouraged and supported to position themselves in this way. Parts of the PowerPoint presentation "Why second language provision at the workplace?" (see F-I.2) has been used in training unions and workers' council representatives in Germany. The aims are to enhance the awareness of the impact of organisational changes on workplace communication and to strengthen their basis of discussion when promoting the idea to companies and fellow workers.

The following example from the United Kingdom should be critically considered. Indeed, the most successful campaign, in terms of number of companies involved, has been in the United Kingdom, partly because unions have been funded substantially to:

- negotiate with providers and companies for language and literacy programmes;
- develop "union learning representatives", who should support and advise learners and work with employers on the development of basic skills provision in the workplace;
- submit bids to the government's Union Learning Fund, and the Workplace Development Fund, for the development of basic skills programmes (Moser 1999: 87)

The learning representatives advocate language and literacy provision to both workers and management. Unfortunately, the unions' role in this exemplary government-employer-union partnership has been counterproductive. Possibly because of the way more "militant" unions have been broken in the United Kingdom, the unions ended up with supporting rather than opposing initiatives which are potentially detrimental to workers' interests. (See, for instance, Holland 2002; Rainbird 2000; Rockhill 1995.) That is, unions in the United Kingdom have "bought into" the view that workers with language/literacy difficulties are responsible for poor productivity, accidents, etc., and have promoted provision to companies on that basis, thereby contributing to job insecurity for this group. A more effective way for unions and workers' councils to become involved in this work would be for them to push for the integration of language provision with vocational, health and safety and union representative training.

4. Marketing workplace language provision to businesses

An example of good practice comes from Australia, where government, providers and unions have worked together to promote workplace language and literacy since 1991. Providers can make funding applications to develop workplace provision to a dedicated national agency (Workplace English Language and Literacy, or WELL). Language and literacy programmes are integrated with vocational and health and safety training in the workplace through national training packages, all of which helps to sell provision to business in general, and to individual employers. Many providers in Australia (O'Connor 1994) and Canada (Folinsbee 1995) advocate a whole organisational approach to the marketing of workplace language and literacy provision, emphasising that productivity, accidents, and quality can be impacted on by a holistic approach to communications rather than a blaming of one of the most vulnerable sectors of the workforce.

The marketing strategies of education providers in these countries have become very sophisticated and more akin to a business model of hard "marketing" than to educational models of softer "promotion". Although the work carried out with programme participants is educational in nature, strategies for gaining access to companies, for engaging companies in the venture and for ensuring a continuous relationship with the company are all those used by successful commercial service industries. Providers stress their ability to work with the whole organisation on its communications issues, and link language and literacy to vocational and health and safety training in the workplace, rather than marketing it as an extension of school and community literacy. Aimed for outcomes suggest shared responsibilities: for workers and management to develop more effective means of speaking and writing with and to others about work. Unions, while not funded to promote language and literacy provision in workplaces as they are in the United Kingdom, are still important partners in provision, as they are able to convince workers of the usefulness of learning programmes, and can be encouraged to include language and literacy as part of their bargaining for training strategies.

The United Kingdom has had a softer, “education promotion approach” to language and literacy provision in the workplace. Workplace language and literacy have been seen and promoted as an extension of school and community language (and literacy), with different aims for learners such as progression to further education. Tutors have little if anything to do with marketing to companies, so there tends to be an unfortunate and unhelpful information gap between people employed to market programmes and those teaching in them. Martin Hartung has this to say about the two different approaches:

Adult education work is based on the justified conviction that education – of any sort – is a valuable possession which can significantly lighten and enrich human coexistence *per se*. This basic conviction is in opposition, however – particularly in the world of business – to the commercial view that knowledge is only useful in a functional context, i.e. as a contribution to the optimising of the work process and the maximising of profits These two viewpoints, however, are not mutually exclusive. They overlap wherever knowledge contributes directly to improvements in the work process, or to the solution of problems. For this reason one must try, in discussions with the decision makers, to present the further education option in such a way that it addresses this overlap of interest i.e. it responds (corresponds!) directly to the firm’s *modus operandi*. The conceptual level of one’s basic conviction is – in the exploratory discussions (initially at least) – to be avoided. Neither the deeper humanistic philosophy behind it should be expressed too obviously, nor should a value judgment on the commercial attitude (and certainly no attempt at ‘conversion’) be made.

(Hartung 2002: 1)

In 2001, the Basic Skills Agency in the United Kingdom introduced a “Broker scheme”. Under this scheme, they employed retired business people to sell language and literacy to companies and then to work with further education colleges to deliver the programmes. The disadvantage of this is that the brokers tended to be under-informed about language and literacy issues in the workplace and tutors tended not to be in any position (due to inexperience and lack of authority) to negotiate with the company. Yet tutors are potentially the best people to engage in these negotiations, since they are at the site, and able to see company and worker language and literacy issues.

We have described the practices in countries which have a long tradition in literacy and language provision at the workplace, in order to give input to providers who want to build up their own marketing and promotion strategies. We recommend them to analyse the examples above, and identify positive aspects and possible negative consequences for their own situation.

With the introduction of change management practices associated with total quality management systems in the industries of many western countries, companies operate according to “old style” traditional hierarchies, or according to “quality” practices “new style” workplaces. It is useful for providers to conduct research into the culture of potential client companies, through examining their goals, vision and leadership styles

and structure, and take this into consideration when developing marketing strategies and provision.

In 1967 Dr Renesis Likert examined different types of organisations and leadership styles. He identified four main management styles:

The **exploitive-authoritative system**. In this style of management, decisions are imposed on the subordinates. Senior levels of management have great responsibilities, lower levels virtually none. Motivation is characterised by threats and there is very little or no communication or joint teamwork.

The **benevolent-authoritative system** Leadership is seen like a master-servant trust and motivation is (mainly) gained by rewards. Managerial personnel feel responsibility, lower levels do not. Still little teamwork or communication.

The **consultative system**. Leadership is conducted by superiors who have substantial (but not complete) trust in their subordinates. Motivation is maintained by rewards and limited involvement. There is some vertical and horizontal communication and a moderate amount of teamwork. In addition, there is increasing identification with company goals.

The **participative-group system** According to Likert this is the most desirable solution. Leadership is by superiors who have complete confidence in their subordinates. Motivation is gained through rewards, based on jointly set goals and all levels of personnel feel a real responsibility in reaching the company goals. Communication and co-operative teamwork play a central role in the organisation.

Taking such organisational models into consideration, Steve Wilkinson and Isobel Gillespie identified four cultural models in 1994, which could be identified in relation to a company's likely openness to workplace training:

benevolent model

In this model, a patriarchal attitude on behalf of senior management is often visible. The staff are considered to be in need of general assistance beyond the context of work performance. Education programmes are considered beneficial for individuals but not necessarily for the company.

soft training model

Overall this model is the most prevalent. The company involved is very concerned that the training is relevant to the workplace needs, but there are few structures to evaluate the impact of the training on performance. Although initial meetings are conducted at a high level in the company, the responsibility for maintaining programmes tends to fall entirely on lower level staff. They therefore feel a lack of ownership.

hard training model

This model uses education to deal with specific production problems. The advantages are that a company knows what it wants to achieve and so can assess it. The company is aware that results can have a clear impact on production.

integrated model

This model fits well with the total quality management (TQM) approach, where the vision of the company usually includes developing staff at all levels. The model is holistic and participatory, it embraces the concept of a learning organisation, performance appraisal and career management. Benefits are assessed according to effect on production and quality, and on company culture. This model is recommended.

It is important to be able to identify, in any company, the management's orientation to training. If the management is for example strongly exploitative and authoritative, you would be unlikely to be successful in securing a contract if your marketing for language training is based on merely improving confidence, or the academic and social skills for the participants. In this case an approach with the emphasis on the ability to read, interpret and even write operational instructions could be more successful. If we reconsider our earlier comparisons between Australian and UK provider practices, we can see that in many instances, providers using a softer, educational approach to workplace language and literacy provision will be severely disadvantaged in the hard world of business and "bottom lines". However, it is important to note that while marketing approaches may shape themselves to the realities of business, the welfare and learning of the worker is usually paramount for professionals providing workplace language services.

We would like now to outline some proven strategies for successful marketing of provision. The first is to consider how you, as a provider, present yourself to a company. Are you promoting educational programmes designed to develop workers' general educational interests or are you marketing language/communications provision, the benefits of which will resound throughout the company?

Consider these questions in the following example of marketing practice used by *beramí*, a voluntary association based in Frankfurt-on-Main, which has been operating over a period of twelve years providing career guidance and counselling as well as training mainly to migrant women.

At the beginning, the target group consisted of migrant women with no formal vocational qualifications. Over time, the target group has become very differentiated, including qualified and even highly qualified women in need of upgrading their German language skills in order to perform professionally in an

adequate way. Beramí has differentiated its provision, still focusing on vocational on-site provision for the original target group.

The first phase of the marketing is best described as “Promoting the idea”. First of all, beramí had to win the support of BIQ for their own project. BIQ means *Betriebe Investieren in Qualifizierung*, “Business invests in qualifications/training”, and is part of the *Wirtschaftsförderung* in Frankfurt. The latter, Frankfurt Economic Development Ltd, is a company affiliated to the Frankfurt City Council. Its task is to attract business to the city and provide the necessary infrastructure, while BIQ’s task is to promote in-company training.

Thanks to twelve years of successful activities in the field, beramí is a valued partner and already well known to BIQ. Beramí could therefore use BIQ’s reputation and contacts and negotiate with the Frankfurter Verband für Alten- und Behindertenhilfe, Frankfurt’s largest owner of homes for the elderly. BIQ’s support was also valuable in organising funding from a State of Hessen fund.

The negotiations at this level were on general/strategic terms according to the “win-win-principle”. Beramí proved to have the competencies to solve the problems of the partners. BIQ had the relevant power and contacts, and the Frankfurter Verband “opened the doors” to two of its homes and provided the necessary funding. The works council was informed and, according to the regulations, was asked to agree to the project.

Once the concept was accepted, beramí negotiated the concrete conditions of the provision delivery with the *Heimleitung* and *Pflegeleitung* (homes’ and care management) of two homes, in order to agree on costs, duration, place, times and quality standards.

5. A business approach

Businesses looking for new work are more successful when they know their target customers well. Language providers need to consider this also. It is recommended that providers target larger companies initially, since these are most likely, in terms of culture and resources, to be interested in language and literacy provision for their workers. Martin Hartung explains:

If the firm has fewer than 50 employees, it can often not afford – on financial and organisational grounds – any systematic further education. It may be worth, however, offering to several small firms a co-ordinated (combined, joint or shared) programme/scheme. If the firm has more than 50 but fewer than 150 employees, it has good prerequisites for implementing a scheme.

(Hartung 2002: 2)

How companies are approached is vital to success. Many managers in business are suspicious of education and educators. It is best, therefore, not to look and speak too much like one. A better approach is to act as a consultant. The advantage of this is that business understands consultancy. Many larger organisations, used to engaging outside consultants, are well prepared to pay for professional and expert services. Operating as a consultant rather than an educator has the additional advantage of enabling the provider representative to ask about whole organisational communications issues, and to develop holistic solutions for the company that will include, but often be more than, second language programme provision. Before presenting a proposal, a workplace language consultant may spend some hours talking with employers and workers (and, where appropriate, unions) at all levels to gain insight into the issues and needs of an organisation. Much of this time is spent asking questions rather than prescribing solutions, and working to gain the confidence of key personnel in the organisation. A proposal will take into account the present and future directions of the whole organisation and solutions will often be jointly conceived and actioned. All consultancy time, of course, is charged to the organisation, though special development grants and national initiatives can sometimes cover these costs. Such an approach can lead employers and workers to place greater value on the training we offer. Guidelines for interviewing different company's stakeholders are to be found in Chapter F.

The way in which workplace language provision is marketed and negotiated is crucial to whether or not it will be successfully established in a particular organisation. There is a range of considerations to be taken into account and a hurried, unplanned approach is counterproductive. If a consultant is able to secure an initial interview/discussion with a link person in a targeted organisation, we suggest that this meeting might be used to ask questions about goals and issues arising from research into the organisation. Answers will inform a presentation to key management personnel. Any questions asked of this link person, or during a presentation, should also guide managers in their thinking about how the organisation's changing systems and business developments raise specific language issues.

There are a number of factors that can present barriers to workers fulfilling the language, literacy and numeracy requirements within their workplace. These may include increased oral and written communication requirements through changed work responsibilities and roles, changed relationships and team expectations, unclear or new recording/measuring processes and documentation, and increased vocational training. An understanding of these factors will help the consultant to develop a proposal for the company he/she is working with, and to improve future marketing material which will "make sense to business" while also making a difference to workers' literacy at work and in the community.

Some studies (for example, Frank and Hamilton 1993) have identified reasons that companies choose to introduce language and literacy provision. These reasons are outlined below, and can be used to persuade new companies to contract this provision:

- the need to integrate a range of nationalities in the workforce;
- the need to introduce more complex paperwork at all levels;
- the need to introduce new technology;
- the need to develop new ways of working with teams (continuous improvement of new national and international quality standards, greater demands for accuracy);
- new health, safety and hygiene regulations;
- the need to facilitate the introduction of change within an organisation;
- the need for wider participation in work-related training courses.

Providers should be aware of and able to counter the barriers perceived by employers to undertaking a programme in language, literacy or numeracy, or to engaging consultancy in organisation-wide oral and written communication development. These include:

- cost and time of such training;
- unwillingness to provide training for workers who may then leave;
- lack of training space;
- difficulty of monitoring its direct benefit.

An awareness of the perceived benefits and barriers to organisations will help you to develop a more effective marketing strategy.

6. Linking language to changing workplaces

Employers appreciate the understanding providers show of an enterprise's operations. For instance, when providers are able to make links between the need for higher communication competencies, and the increasingly complex documentation of processes and systems required by awarding bodies, legislation and technology. This demonstrates a clear understanding of the issues facing management and workers. Unions or other stakeholders representing the interests of workers should be able to assist by offering information and insights about workplace change in their members' companies, or by taking part in initial discussions and negotiations. However, it is not sufficient to speak with managers in broad terms about workplace change. An understanding of issues for the particular sector (for example, private manufacturing) and for the individual enterprise (for example, a car assembly plant becoming increasingly automated) will build credibility and trust. As second language specialists and consultants, we need to be asking about:

- how language is used throughout the organisation;
- what issues have appeared with their systems of communication;

- how they have tried to address issues;
- what have been the consequences;
- how does the organisation think you can help.

It is important to follow up after a first meeting with company personnel. A letter or an email (depending on the formality of the situation) should re-state the point of the meeting and list key points discussed. It should also indicate the next step, which is likely to be a suggested further meeting date to present proposals to a wider management group and perhaps a broad cost and time estimate of services discussed. At any rate, ensure that you are able to initiate the next contact.

7. Summary and conclusions

This time of promoting and developing language provision for migrant workers is an exciting time of change. As provision develops across all the countries represented in this project, the special political, social, cultural and economic circumstances surrounding the workplace language provision in eastern European countries will no doubt provide western European countries with new insights. And despite the differences in political approaches that exist in countries of the European Union, educators in countries beginning to embark on workplace language provision can learn a number of lessons from the issues that have arisen for countries experienced in this work. Below we list and discuss each of these issues and solutions in the interest of developing the best and most successful promotion and marketing practices possible in this work, in terms of all stakeholders including workers themselves.

Deficit language

It is important that those engaged in promoting and marketing workplace language provision are aware of how language is practised in workplaces and the range of factors that can contribute to poor communications. For instance, the increasing demands of companies on workers at all hierarchical levels to communicate in teams, engage in vocational training, comply with health and safety legislation and use complex technology have placed additional stress on all workers, both native speakers and speakers of other languages. Thus, in marketing language provision to companies, providers can use a “communications enhancement” approach, suggesting that companies consider reviewing their communications systems, documentation, etc., rather than simply blaming difficulties on migrants and speakers of other languages in the workforce. It is especially important that promotional literature avoids highlighting workers’ deficits, and presents a balanced picture of how communications issues can be improved. Providers could consider offering “communications” consultancy and training services, some of which would include second language programmes for migrant/ethnic workers.

Unions and workers' councils

Unions and workers' councils can play an important part in promoting and marketing workplace language provision. They are closer to the ways in which communications issues impact on workers and can support provider marketing approaches by advocating learning programmes to workers, and workplace communications systems changes to management. They are an important ally in winning the confidence of workers in the services offered. They can bargain for training across the whole workforce, which includes language provision integrated with vocational and health and safety training. They can include language provision in their own union delegate training, thus becoming not only allies in promotion and marketing, but also service customers.

Marketing roles

Many experienced providers have developed marketing strategies more akin to business than education, and have developed the skills of education professionals to carry out this work. While some education professionals will find that combining a marketing role with an educative role difficult and/or distasteful, others will find it challenging and satisfying. From the point of view of successful service development, it is important that the marketing and education roles are not separated. If marketing is to be carried out by someone other than the consultant/practitioner, then the practitioner must still be very aware of the company's and workers' communication issues. This means that the consultant/practitioner must utilise research conducted into the company by the marketing person, or conduct their own. This means, at the very least, reading company material and talking to people from as many levels in the company as possible before presenting a proposal to the company. Ask to see the "shop floor" (the working environment) of the people who may want to take part in second language provision.

We have discussed in this chapter how the workplace is a special learning context in which language teachers will need to move out of their "comfort zones" and take on wider research, marketing and negotiation roles in order to secure and maintain successful contracts and effective provision. We have highlighted the importance of using a positive, communications enhancement approach rather than a deficit approach, and have shown how unions and workers' councils can be co-opted in the research, marketing and negotiation process. Providers will discover other strategies specific to the locality, region, country and target companies. The field is still relatively new and any insights should be documented and shared in order to build successful strategies for specific situations, if we are to make a difference to the working lives of second language speakers.

8. Examples of practice for marketing and promotion

On the CD-Rom you will find two examples of practice:

F-I.1. PowerPoint: Warum Deutsch Arbeitsplatz

F-I.2. PowerPoint: Why language provision at the workplace?

II. Partnership in second language learning at the workplace and/or vocational training place

Katrien Bultynck, Elwine Halewijn and Marijke van Huijstee

Definition of partnership

Partnership is the co-operation between different persons or organisations, each contributing in their way to one or more phases of the organisation of second language learning at the workplace/vocational training place, all motivated by the existence of a common goal which offers some advantage to each of the partners.

1. Why set up partnerships?

At first sight, it might seem that only a limited number of parties is involved in the process of second language learning at the workplace: the learner, the trainer and the employer. However, the process of language learning is taking place in an environment in which other parties operate, such as co-workers, trade unions, providing institution and funders. In the different stages of the organisation of a language course at the workplace, these parties play a role that can either facilitate or hinder the process of language learning of the worker. For example, if co-workers communicate with the learner on tasks the learner has been working on in the course, this can stimulate the process of learning. Similarly, if the employer is not aware that the hours of the course are incompatible with the shift system of the worker, this can have a negative influence on the ability of the learner to manage the course.

Often, parties are not explicitly aware of the role they play or could play and are not aware of who might be other partners in the process. They often put the responsibility in the hands of the language trainer and the language learner, while a lot more partners are in fact equally responsible for the process of language learning, from a social as well as a business point of view. Therefore, it is necessary to make explicit the roles possible parties can play, in order to be able to appeal to these parties to set up partnerships in which as many partners as necessary co-operate and take up their responsibilities.

The process of setting up and implementing a language course has several stages (from marketing and promotion to evaluation of the process). There are many possible combinations of partners in the different stages. There is not one “perfect” combination of partners, which guarantees a successful project: the right combination depends heavily on the local situation, policy, goals of the course, etc. And within one project the different partners do not always have to contribute in the same way and to the same extent throughout the whole project. In general, we can say that there are three basic partners in each project:

- the learner;
- the employer;
- the teacher.

The list below shows that a lot of other possible partners can be involved at different levels. We have tried to list them, together with their respective general goals. This list is certainly not meant as a prescriptive tool. As the examples of possible practice from six different countries (the Netherlands, Belgium, Spain, Latvia, Germany and Switzerland) will show, the combinations of partners, their specific goals and their different tasks in the respective stages can differ markedly from case to case. The examples included are not meant to be illustrations of “the ideal partnership”, but rather as a means of inspiration to set up strong partnerships. Reaching an ideal partnership remains a challenge, with obstacles that will differ from country to country.

2. Possible partners (and their goals) in L2 at the workplace

A. Basic partners

L2 learners

To attain a level of proficiency in the second language which empowers his/her position at the workplace or training place because it enables him/her to:

- get a (better) qualified or a more interesting job, adapted to his/her personal interests and level of training;
- talk about the organisation of work at the workplace and the facilities during meetings or with the boss and to have influence on them;
- retain present employment;
- be promoted;
- get a permanent job;
- have more contact with colleagues/to be more part of the team.

Top management of the company

- increase the efficiency of the work done once the employees are more able to fully participate in the work process;
- increase the motivation of the employees;
- train employees in working with new machines;
- use the knowledge and experience of the employees, for example in meetings;

- take social responsibility for the integration of newcomers to the region;
- facilitate communication between workers at all levels.

Language teacher/trainer (of language institutes, governmental institutes for training, centres for adult education, etc.)

- teach the language in the most effective, efficient and motivating way so that students will be able to understand the vocational lessons in the second language and to communicate with their colleagues at the workplace;
- enhance the competence and confidence of workers, and of employers and supervisors in these workers.

B. Other partners within the company

Personnel managers

- ensure the presence of enough qualified and skilled personnel, necessary to keep the company running.

Managers at the workplace

- create a motivating working atmosphere at the workplace;
- make sure new employees are settled well within the team and the work;
- prevent illness, absences and accidents, and try to bind personnel to the company.

Vocational teacher/trainer and other (company) trainers

- see to it that the language courses enable learners to participate in vocational, health and safety and other training at the workplace.

Co-workers

- stimulate and accelerate the learning process so that communication at the workplace is improved.

C. Other partners outside the company

Employer organisations

- increase vocational qualifications of workers by ensuring that language courses meet requested standards.

National or local (governmental) institutions or services responsible for employment, employment services, unemployed people and support of refugees

- support the integration of newcomers into society.

Trade unions

- support workers in disputes/discrimination/dismissals;
- raise awareness for the issue of on-site second language;
- ensure that labour legislation is being respected.

Public and private adult education centres

- support/foster the integration of migrants;
- collect more experience in view of publishing teaching materials;
- raise awareness for the issue of on-site second language;
- guarantee that premises for smooth functioning of the language trainer are fulfilled;
- secure the balance between employer's and learner's goals.

Support agencies

- assess possible improvements to be introduced to future projects for second language at the workplace, train teachers and monitor provision;
- support agencies can promote workplace language, advising partners during the project on the integration of language, vocational training and work.

Commercial local employment service organisations

- good matching/recruitment of candidates to companies and ongoing support.

Authors of vocationally oriented textbooks and teaching aids

- supply teachers with appropriate, contextualised textbooks and teaching aids.

Publishing houses

- supply teachers with appropriate textbooks and teaching aids.

3. What can make partnership work?

In order to make the process run smoothly and to attain the goals of the project, all partners should take responsibility. Monitoring a number of factors can contribute to this. Once again, the factors described below are not to be interpreted as “the”

solutions, but should be read as possible factors to be taken into account in facilitating a smooth process.

1. Sometimes it turns out to be necessary to determine which partner has the responsibility for which task, not so much because partners are irresponsible or unwilling, but because it is proven to be very difficult to foresee all tasks and actions at the beginning of the project.
2. Sometimes unexpected problems arise which must be solved. For all this it is essential to monitor the project in a regular project team meeting, in which a spokesperson of each partner participates. Possible issues to be discussed: exchange information about the project, how the learners (as a group) are doing both at the workplace and in the lessons, what problems are encountered, what solutions or activities might prevent problems, what action is needed in the next stage of the project, etc.
3. Even if the common goal of the partnership is to stimulate the process of language learning of the worker, partners will only be willing to invest in the partnership if they feel that this will also enable them to attain their specific goals. For example, if the management of a company is not convinced that the learning of the second language contributes to the efficiency of the worker, it might not be interested in the course. Therefore, each partner involved has the responsibility of establishing and making explicit for other partners how the project can enable them to attain their specific goal. For example, the management of a training centre can use the results of language courses at other companies to convince the employer that the project will be beneficial for the current client company.
4. The employer plays an important role in enabling the partners within the company (for example, the colleagues) as well as external (for example, the teacher) to perform their respective tasks in the project. This concerns, for example, organising the course at the times most suitable for the learner as well as for the trainer, enabling co-workers to contribute to the language needs analysis and to take up a role as a coach, to provide the language teacher with authentic text materials, to give the trainer access to the workplace, to support the coach at the workplace, etc.
5. The employer also has an important information role to play: partners within the company will only be willing to contribute if they have been informed why, for whom and how the courses are organised.
6. The employer, the teacher and/or the provider should also see to it that partners within the company are consulted at every stage, even if they are not yet directly involved at that stage. For example, if the co-workers and the vocational trainer are consulted at the moment of the language analysis and can help to define the goals of the learner, they will be more willing to contribute to practical assignments, to provide the trainer with authentic text materials, etc.

4. Examples of practice for building partnerships

On the CD-Rom you will find nine examples of practice from six different countries:

- F-II.1. Scania Netherlands
- F-II.2. Vocational and language training working towards an occupational certificate at Kwik-Fit garages (the Netherlands)
- F-II.3. Dutch courses at Het concertgebouw (the Netherlands)
- F-II.4. Language and communication courses at Mazda Motorparts (Flanders, Belgium)
- F-II.5. Language courses for immigrant workers in domestic service in Spain
- F-II.6. The National Programme for Latvian Language Training
- F-II.7. Job rotation: German at the workplace (Germany)
- F-II.8. beramí: Passgenau – German in geriatric care (Germany)
- F-II.9. Pilot course: German at the workplace – Second language acquisition for shift-workers at the ZZ Wancor brick manufacturing company (Switzerland)

In these examples, we describe the goals for each of the partners involved and the way they contribute to partnership at each stage of the second language learning.

III. Communication needs analysis

Susan Kaufmann and Matilde Grünhage-Monetti

1. Introduction

The title of this section is the result of a long discussion among the members of the Odysseus Network and reflects the development of the group as well as the attempt to find a transparent and programmatic title, transferable to other languages and professional contexts.

The discussion was initiated by the need to replace the widely used expression “language needs analysis”, which is linked to the functional approach, with an expression reflecting the holistic approach advocated by the project. The expression “organisational needs analysis”, used in the current discourse in the United Kingdom for example (Holland et al. 2001), was also rejected. It was feared that it could easily be misinterpreted when translated into other languages. The equivalent in German, for example, would be misleading while associated to a wider understanding of organisational development in companies and to a different professional profile of the consultants.

“Communication needs analysis” emphasises communication at a specific workplace and the needs/demands arising from it for all involved partners. The focus is therefore primarily not on the needs and deficits of individuals but on the communicative requirements of a particular “community of practice”. This term is used by Etienne Wenger (1998) to describe a group sharing some sort of common discourse and practice. Each community of practice has its “culture”; namely, values, norms, procedures, etc., which are communicated through language (verbal, non-verbal and para-verbal codes).

It includes what is said and what is left unsaid; what is represented and what is assumed. It includes the language, tools, documents, images, symbols, well-defined roles, specified criteria, codified procedures, regulations and contracts that various practices make explicit for a variety of purposes. But it also includes all the implicit relations, tacit conventions, subtle cues, untold rules of thumb, recognisable institutions, specific perceptions, well-tuned sensitivities, embodied understandings, underlying assumptions and shared worldviews. Most of these may never be articulated, yet they are unmistakable signs of membership in communities of practice and are crucial to the success of their enterprises.

(Wenger 1998: 47)

In the vocational field, a company constitutes a community of practice, but also a department, a quality circle, a production island may be regarded as smaller communities of practice within larger entities, with their own communication culture. At a macro level, the business community constitutes a community of practice with its

own culture and language distinct from the academic community for example. A football club is a community of practice as well as the administration of a city council.

A communication needs analysis, involving a whole “community” is therefore a necessary step for marketing language provision to companies. It may lead to offering a package including second language course(s) for migrant/ethnic workers as well as intercultural training for supervisors, as practised by the Icelandic Odysseus colleague or the screening of company documents, as done by ITTA. A communication needs analysis, focusing not only on the linguistic but also on the pragmatic and the sociocultural aspects will provide the necessary data for developing a curriculum and delivering a course, which takes into account the functional, cultural and critical dimension of language, according to Green’s categories (Green 1997):

- the operational dimension includes the structures of language enabling people (for example, workers) to function at the level of information exchange: for example, explaining, follow instructions, etc;
- the cultural dimension describes how workers for instance interact in a culturally and linguistically appropriate way: for example, a complaint, an excuse or a request;
- the critical dimension involves being able to understand one’s relationship to others in the specific community of practice, to be an actor in that community based on informed choices and critical analysis: for example, assessing or problem solving.

A communication needs analysis is therefore the suitable instrument for a scenario and content-based teaching approach (see F-IV).

When talking about needs analysis in the context of vocational-related language provision, it must be kept in mind that the conditions of second language acquisition for adult workers vary widely, not only from one European country to the other but also within the countries themselves. Generally, one can say that while the need for advancing workers’ second language competence is officially recognised in many countries, only in a few countries does learning and training take place at the workplace itself. Much more frequent are courses in preparation for the workplace, which are usually not on-site.

Basically, we can talk about a continuum that ranges from the very general and unspecific tasks of second language learning, on the one hand, to the very specific and defined learning-situation at the workplace, on the other.

| General L2 training | L2 provision in preparation for the workplace | L2 training at the workplace |
|--|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ no special focus on workplace or preparation for work; ▪ no clear distinction between L2 and foreign language training. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ loosely defined target group (employed or unemployed); ▪ from different work environments; ▪ with different work experiences; ▪ different education needs; ▪ different work perspectives. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ defined target group; ▪ defined workplace; ▪ defined tasks; ▪ specific educational needs; ▪ specific organisational structure and needs. |

When discussing communication needs analysis it is important to be clear about the stage of this continuum one has in mind or refers to because the conditions, possibilities and demands for language needs analysis will vary accordingly.

The core problem for course designers and teachers is to define the actual needs of the learners and of the vocational field.

(Klepp 1996).

The focus here will be on the following two stages: second language training at the workplace and second language provisions in preparation for the workplace (many more variations on the continuum are possible).

2. Second language provision at the workplace

When second language provision for adult workers is offered at the workplace there are a number of facts to consider:

- in most cases the needs are recognised only vaguely and interpreted as due to a deficit of individual workers. It is the task of those conducting the needs analysis to identify and describe the perceived needs and to raise the awareness of management and workers' councils about these needs;
- within the workforce, people at all levels of the organisation (workers, foremen, white-collar workers, management, worker's council, etc.) may have specific communication issues, which may be addressed organisationally and/or individually;

- many needs may result from organisational change (to new systems and structures, utilising new methods of communication);
- management may have specific expectations about what an identified target learning group should achieve in a given time. (Employers tend to have extremely high, often unrealistic, expectations in relation to the time available and learning conditions. Individual learners and groups may well have different perceptions and expectations.)

Not all organisational aspects may be transparent to all individuals and groups involved in the work process. For someone conducting the needs assessment, however, it will be crucial to gain as clear a picture as possible of the whole organisation. The conditions here may again vary widely. While some organisations may permit relatively free access to talk to people and observe workplace practices, others may refuse access for security or other reasons. (This is one of the reasons why much provision is offered outside of and in preparation for the workplace.) The challenge will be for providers to gain more access to the workplace itself, communicate with workers and management more closely and establish better co-operation.

In general it is preferable to include and co-operate with as many people as possible from a range of levels and departments in the workplace so that:

- individuals and groups do not feel singled out;
- commitment and “ownership” is gained throughout the organisation;
- improvements are understood to involve both organisational and individual development;
- a clear and realistic picture is gained of the communication flow at the workplace, for example: who is communicating what to whom and how?

Conducting interviews

It is important to interview people (or groups of people) at different levels of the organisation separately, when ascertaining organisational and individual needs: (a) personnel/human resources managers, foremen, shop stewards and work councils; (b) indigenous employees; and (c) immigrant workers. Discussions would include the day-to-day requirements of the workplace including oral and written communications. This is likely to include issues around vocational training, health and safety, customer care, etc., as well as the requirements of the actual jobs. (See attached guidelines for the interviews, F-III.1.)

Interviews could also be conducted to ascertain communicative tasks in the various domains concerned (see F-III.2):

- domain workplace: workplace-related tasks (warning a colleague in case of danger, describing orally a technical issue, giving a colleague an instruction, querying a procedure, contributing to the resolution of a problem, etc.);
- public domain: rights and duties as legally employed worker (coping with administrative procedures and structures: namely, getting information and reacting accordingly – that is, finding out the person in charge of a certain issue, direct communication, on the phone, filling in an application form (for a job), etc);
- private domain: entertaining social contacts (coping with introductions: introducing oneself in a new department, to a new colleague/supervisor, etc., introducing a new colleague, and describing one’s own work, function, position in the company, etc.);
- educational domain: language course, (further) training, etc. (getting information/reading about training opportunities and registering; asking for clarification/explanation, help, etc., during a training session; and reading training materials, etc.).

Observe workplace practices

It will be helpful to observe and talk to people at their work by conducting floor walks and some job shadowing. Observing the equipment that is in use in the organisation (including ICT), and noting how workers use it is an important part of the process.

Recording (semi-)authentic language exchanges

- oral: tape recording of oral communication. The transcribed taped material can be used for the communicative needs analysis. Tapes (if of good quality) and transcription can be used later in the classroom for a variety of comprehension and analytical exercises. Since it is not possible for a variety of reasons to make authentic recordings, semi-authentic situations can be used. Employees are asked to “act” a workplace communicative event taking on the roles they have in “real life”, for example a shift change;
- written records (notes):

With the help of notes, communicative situations can be ‘minuted’ (as a written record) as they have been perceived by the observer. They have the ‘psychological’ advantage of allowing the conversation to develop naturally – which is clearly a prerequisite for registering real natural discourse. They conceal, however, the risk – apart from missing the authentic language used – of falsifying the utterances both linguistically and content-wise, through ‘interpreting’ what we think the interlocutors wished to express.

(Kock 1966)

Analyse workplace documents

Analysing key documents that workers are expected to use or interact with, may identify alternative 'solutions', other than training, for the organisation. Note suitability for target audience, appearance and layout, organisation of ideas and information, vocabulary, sentence length and structure, cultural sensitivity. An examination of documents may indicate, for instance, a need to include translation of important documents into other languages, or to re-write complex texts into a plain language. It is also useful to look at the extent to which workplace practices reflect goals as stated in organisational documentation.

Documents will include:

- workplace routines (work rotas, pay slips, accident reports, time-sheets, leave applications and sickness reports);
- environmental print (signs and notices such as health and safety notices);
- job-related documents (job cards, specifications, forms, correspondence, reports, plans, orders, manuals);
- further training documents (study skills, note taking, skimming, scanning, locating information);
- documents like charts, graphs, measurement, time-sheets, pay slips, tables.”

(Holland 2001)

Observe barriers to learning

It is vital to investigate what support workers will have with their learning:

It will be difficult for a worker to complete a programme successfully if their line manager is unsupportive. The process also involves identifying any potential barriers to learning. For example, if a line manager is likely to be unsupportive because of concerns about production figures then it will be important for the managing director and those below to show commitment to the learning programme, and to agree an organisational 'position' towards such difficulties, before the programme is commissioned.

(Holland 2001)

3. Language provision in preparation for the workplace

Second language training in preparation for the workplace is offered outside of the workplace, usually in adult education institutions. The main reason and necessity to offer second language training for adult workers in preparation for the workplace can be found in the restructuring of the job market. Due to technological and organisational changes, traditional employment opportunities for migrants have been decreasing rapidly, leaving an increasing number of people facing or having to deal with

unemployment. At the same time, however, the demands for communicative skills increase – workers are supposed to communicate in spoken and written form in a way not known before.

The conditions under which second language training in preparation for the workplace takes place are very different from those described above in relation to second language provision at the workplace. Here you do not have a specific organisation whose policies and practices (namely, systems of communication, hierarchies, chains of command, structures and structural changes) can be assessed in order to ascertain organisational and individual needs. Second language training will be much less aligned with specific company/shop-floor goals and the curriculum will therefore be much more general. Practitioners often have to rely on guesses and assumptions in their curricular planning. They often have no clear idea what linguistic demands and challenges the labour market hold for their learners – even if the general need to offer second language training is widely recognised.

For someone conducting the needs assessment it will be important to be aware of the following very general points:

- the target group is often extremely heterogeneous in respect to learners' workplace experience as well as their future work prospects. Due to high fluctuations in the workforce there is no knowing whether someone who is employed at the moment will be so in the near future and when, where (that is, in which industry sector), and for how long this person will find employment. Therefore the curriculum will have to be designed to overlap sectors (namely, to deal with issues that are important for work in general), or that are related to larger occupational fields (health and elderly care, catering, metalworking industry, etc.) as well as with issues that are important for obtaining work (job applications, etc.);
- there are increasing demands for oral mastery of the second language (many more service skills needed) as well as written performance (work-related writings have increased);
- learners will need to master key skills, such as flexibility, initiative, creativity, teamwork, autonomy, reliability, etc;
- learners will need to master learning skills. This is crucial because learners will have to adapt to new situations very quickly.

When conducting the needs assessment there are two phases: (a) analysing key aspects that workers are expected to have to deal with in advance of the training and assess related language needs; and (b) assessing language needs during the training itself by asking learners to contribute from their expertise.

Analyse work-related practices and issues

In general it is preferable to include and co-operate with as many institutions as possible from a range in society – organisations, unions, healthcare, employment/unemployment office, etc. – using all kinds of documentation available (written, visual, audiovisual, interviews, etc.). Issues will concern:

- legal aspects of work (work permit, notice of employment, protection of motherhood, employees' rights, etc.);
- social security aspects (health insurance, pensions, unemployment benefits, etc.);
- work organisation (conflicts and co-operation);
- areas of occupation/branches of industry, etc;
- further education (training, schooling, lifelong learning, etc.);
- finding and getting work (applications and interviewing for a job);
- workers' participation.

Take the learners' expertise into account

A general and basic idea in second language teaching for adults is to view learners as the experts for their learning process and take account of learners' needs and current situations when planning the curriculum and teaching. Because of the wide range of issues and topics to be addressed in teaching second language in preparation for the workplace it is of vital importance to adhere to this principle.

Much of the needs assessment will take place during the training itself by asking learners to share their past and present experience, to voice their needs and to bring as many documents as possible from all work-related areas they have to deal with.

If 'learning to learn' and 'autonomous learning' are a part of our goals, then an exercise of this sort offers us an important authentic and practical element towards this goal. It is hardly feasible (time, organisation, etc.) in most present situations for the teacher to research needs and seek out authentic materials in the particular field of work in the particular 'industry'. One could, in many cases, however, draw on the specific work experience of the learners themselves. This would of course provide only one of many sources for the necessary language needs analysis, would only cater for limited areas of the work arena, and hence would need complementing. Nevertheless, we believe it offers significant advantages, particularly regarding the role of the learner in the process. The learners would be masters of their curriculum, would influence and would be responsible for the commonality of the teaching, in as much as they would be challenged to reflect on and to define verbally their language experience, problems and requirements.

(Klepp 1996)

If learners are employed this will include workplace documents as mentioned above. If they are unemployed this will also include forms and documents that have to do with obtaining work.

4. Examples of practice for communication needs analysis

On the CD-Rom you will find seven examples of practice for the analysis of communication needs:

- F-III.1. Guidelines for interviews at the workplace
- F-III.2. Checklist of communicative functions at the workplace
- F-III.3. Questionnaire for the analysis of the communication needs
- F-III.4. Checklist communicative functions at the workplace
- F-III.5. Analysis of the linguistic requirements of immigrant workers in domestic service in Spain
- F-III.6. Analysis of the linguistic requirements of domestic service in Spain
- F-III.7. Case study – Integrated literacy/health and safety training

IV. Delivery, competences and approaches

Annet Berntsen, Elwine Halewijn, Maite Hernández and Andreas Klepp

1. Introduction

In this chapter we present three main methodological-didactic approaches, which are currently used by the Odysseus representatives in Spain, Germany and the Netherlands respectively: the task-based approach, the scenario-based approach and the content-based approach. They have not been developed especially for the workplace context, but are part of the didactic and methodological development in foreign and second language teaching and learning, as it has occurred in Europe throughout the last decades of the twentieth century. They represent the current practice in institutions and countries, which have different traditions in (foreign) language teaching and learning and in adult education, as well as different types and degrees of experience in workplace language provision.

All three approaches draw on the concept of communicative competences, as defined in the Common European Framework of Reference. A list is to be found in Chapter F. It is a checklist of competences in their general form, and has to be adapted to the workplace context when designing courses and materials for a specific target group. We recommend it as an instrument for implementing the results of the communication needs analysis into a curriculum. The different competences have situated meanings, that is, their meanings depend on the culture of the workplace.

In the workplace context, the item “visiting competences” may refer to the interaction with clients and customers when entering their homes or rooms (as in geriatric care), but also with colleagues/co-workers and superiors when entering a “private” working space in the firm such as an office. What words and gestures are expected from whom (such as knocking at the door, eye contact, speech acts and clearing one’s throat to call attention) depend on the norms and rules of a particular “community of practice” (Wenger 1998). This example shows very clearly that teaching vocabulary, grammatical structures and speech acts will not be sufficient for learners to interact in a socioculturally appropriate way, mainly because of trespasses and conflicts, or to change practices.

The three approaches have a common core in the understanding of language learning as experiential learning. According to Kolb, “learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience” (Kolb 1990: 38). The learning process is an ongoing interaction of each individual with his/her environment and experiences. This implies a change of roles both for teachers and learners. The teachers’ role is not so much that of imparting knowledge but of organising and monitoring the learning process, making the learners aware of their learning and of the changes that learning generates. Reflection and analysis both of content and of the learning process itself are instrumental in an active participation of learners in their

learning process and in the resulting transformation of practice and experience. The learners have to become aware of the aims and objectives of their learning and of the ways it takes place. Learners and teachers are partners in the learning process. In the specific case of workplace language provision the counselling role of the teachers should not be limited to the classroom, but involve the different communication partners in the enterprise as illustrated in the sections above on building partnerships and communication needs analysis.

Most workplaces offer a rich language environment, which is a good source of information for the learners. Every situation, at work as well as in the classroom, is a language learning opportunity. The language class is the equivalent of the sportsman's weekly training session. In order for migrant/ethnic workers to improve their general linguistic "fitness" on a day-to-day basis, they need support and encouragement from their environment, friends, supervisors and colleagues. It is the task of the teachers to propose a holistic approach, which does not focus exclusively on the language needs and deficits of the learners but embraces the communication practice of the whole workplace and includes all communication partners. Thus workplace language provision offers companies the opportunity to examine their communication systems. Management and staff are equally responsible for the success of the language class. A good course, well geared to workplace requirements, can improve knowledge, work quality and communication as well as career prospects. It is thus an essential part of any modern approach to work organisation and a contribution to non-discriminatory, participative practice in the workplace.

The three approaches described below mirror the experience and level of discussion on (foreign) language teaching (at the workplace) in the European countries represented in the network. Throughout the course of the Odysseus project we have become more critical towards them. We have come to realise that, taken separately, none of them entirely meets the theoretical framework we have agreed upon.

We are convinced that experienced practitioners, who are aware of the social and political tensions and contradictions in the workplace and in any educational workplace-related provision, integrate in a more or less reflected and conscious way these three approaches. A task for future work is to develop and describe systematically a delivery model, which integrates the task-based approach with the theme-based approach within a range of relevant workplace scenarios. The theoretical framework is given by the concept of language as social practice, sketched in the introduction. From this perspective we should critically investigate the current approaches and practices, and integrate their valid elements into a comprehensive, coherent model. This has to be consistent with the advocated theoretical principles, be informed by the basic andragogical principles of empowerment and participation. Finally, it must reflect our understanding of communicative competence as the awareness of and the ability to deal with and within the contradictions that learners and teachers are confronted with in workplace language courses.

2. Task-based approaches

The following definitions of task have been offered:

... a work unit in the classroom that involves the students in understanding, manipulation, production or interaction in the second language, while their attention is focused more on the meaning than on the form.

(Nunan 1989)

A task is an activity that requires the students to negotiate the meaning of what they say and how they say and produce the results.

(Prahbu 1987)

A task is any activity carried out by a person himself or for other persons, freely or with some interest ... to fill in a form, to buy some shoes, to make an airplane reservation ... in other words, as tasks we understand everything that we usually do in our daily life, at work or to enjoy ourselves ...

(Long 1985)

We can say, then, that a language task is an activity that:

- tries to reproduce in the classroom the complexity of communication processes in real life;
- has a concrete objective that is not defined in linguistic terms;
- is part of a sequence of communicative events.

The adult students take part in relevant and contextualised language exercises, participating in decisions about the topic, areas of interest, the contents that must be developed and the activities that will be carried out, including the evaluation process.

The linguistic elements (structure, grammar and vocabulary) are subordinate to the tasks as practiced within a particular discourse community and not the other way around. The important thing is not how to request information, to express agreement or disagreement in a grammatically perfect fashion, but to use the language to communicate as often as possible: for example, to participate in the interview or meeting.

Designing an effective programme has six steps, according to Sheila Estaire and Javier Zanón (1990):

1. Choosing the topic or the interest area of the unit, decided by students and by the teacher according to their interests and their necessities.
2. Designing the final task which is a communication task that has to be carried out when the unit is finished and that it can be:

- designed by the teacher according to the students communicative needs and abilities;
 - a result of the negotiations between students, the teacher and other stakeholders.
3. Planning of communicative objectives, that is, what the students will be able to do when the unit is finished. Students will need plenty of opportunity to practise a range of skills, although only one of them may be emphasised by the final task.
 4. Linguistic exponents. Depending on the difficulty of the final task it may be necessary to use functional, lexical, grammatical, phonological, discourse, sociolinguistic, strategic or sociocultural exponents.
 5. Choosing the communication task, in collaboration with students and other stakeholders.
 6. Evaluation and self-evaluation. The following aspects need to be kept in mind:
 - the achievement of the communicative objectives;
 - the strategic component (how the learning process went);
 - aspects that need to be improved upon.

As a model we present a task, which will be carried out by the immigrant adults: an adaptation of the book *Planet@ ELE* (Edelsa). One of the most important topics of the daily life of immigrants is that of the documentation that they need in order to have a legal status in a foreign country. The documents include: visa applications, applications for work permits or for residence, etc.

First step: topic – the documentation.

Second step: final task – to fill in an application for residence with the data of a partner.

Third step: communicative aims – during the lesson the students will develop the following skills:

- to understand greetings and goodbyes;
- to understand information coming from a partner;
- to greet and to say goodbye;
- to request information from the partners;

- to give personal information about their names, last names, professions, nationalities, addresses, etc., in an oral or written form.

Fourth step:

linguistic exponents and task learning:

Lexical exponents

- formal and informal greetings and farewells;
- names of countries;
- nationalities;
- degrees and professions;
- family;
- ordinal and cardinal numbers;
- useful vocabulary to give information about addresses: street, square, road, drive, etc.

Grammatical structures

- providing their own full name;
- informing about their nationality, age, career and studies;
- giving and asking for an address and telephone number.

Grammatical concepts

- verbs to be, to have, to live, to study, etc;
- using the verb “be” to express nationality/place of origin: be + adjective and be + from + name of country/town;
- personal pronouns;
- “wh-” questions: “how”, “where”, “when”, etc;
- informal and formal ways of addressing people.

Cultural elements

- the way of saying telephone numbers;
- the way of saying an address;
- a layout of personal and professional data in official forms and documents (applying for a visa, work and residence permit, etc.).

Fifth step:

communication task. Due to communication tasks, the students practice what they have learnt:

- to fill in an identity card with the data of other partners;
- to perform a role-play at a party where the students will look for a person who has the same things in common according to role that they have been given;
- to create a character and to write an encounter dialogue with him/her.

Sixth step:

for the evaluation we can take into account the documents that the students have filled in and some self-evaluation questionnaires. We propose here an adaptation of Sheila Estaire's (1990) record for self-evaluation.

3. Scenario-based approach

Scenario is a key concept in the methodological and pedagogical development of syllabuses, materials and testing. It has become established in Germany since the publication of the language specifications for the Deutsch für den Beruf (German for professional purposes) certificate. It was the basic approach and model for the revision of the European language certificates in the late 1990s, carried out by teams of international experts by the German Institute for Adult Education (DIE) for nine European languages (Zertifikat Deutsch für den Beruf 1995/Zertifikat Deutsch, Certificate English, etc., 1999 *et seq.*).

The term "scenario" is closely related to other linguistic and pedagogical concepts such as "dialogue types", "genres" and "text and discourse types", which look at language from different perspectives and for different purposes. Linguists in the United Kingdom and Germany (for example, McCarthy, Carter, Henne and Schwitalla) influenced the development of the scenario approach in the fields of language teaching and testing. Beneke defines a scenario as the

predictable sequence of communicative acts (either purely verbal or purely non-verbal or as a mixture of the two). Scenarios acquire their coherence from shared schematic knowledge.

(Zertifikat Deutsch für den Beruf 1995)

Change of shift, arranging the cleaning of an office, deciphering the handwriting of a list of delivered items and reporting faults of a machine/product are examples of workplace relevant scenarios. As actors on stage, the persons involved in the communication stage a play made of words and gestures, pursuing transactional and relational goals. They exchange information and at the same time define and

“construct” their relationships to each other. The play is intelligible as far as it follows a predictable script (the sequence of communicative acts), codified by the cultural norms of a specific community and, of course, as far as code and underlying norms are known (shared schematic knowledge).

Scenarios are a key instrument in designing and carrying out communication needs analysis in the workplace. They are a better tool than language functions for identifying the relevant communicative tasks of a specific workplace and a specific group of employees/workers. They also provide a manageable model of contextual language situations, which describes the complexity of language, showing the interdependence and interplay of the various components from the different levels of language (vocabulary, situations, discourse strategies, speech acts, grammar, etc.) and not simply listing them in separate, discrete inventories.

Scenarios are a central link between communication needs analysis and language teaching. The scenarios themselves, which vary according to sector, company and activity, provide the essential basis for planning courses and working out general and specific learning objectives. They give teachers and learners an overview of the task areas which need to be mastered, and put the various language elements which have to be conveyed and/or acquired in a more authentic context.

In real communicative exchanges several scenarios can follow from another. Beneke speaks of a “chain of communication”. Mixed forms are also conceivable. The length and form of a scenario can vary substantially depending on the context (roles and gender of the participants in the discourse and factors such as time and place, etc.). The scenario approach makes use of authentic communication in an authentic context and is thus much closer to the reality of practising language than isolated language elements or functions. Scenarios are directly related to tasks people carry out in their everyday life at the workplace (as well as in other contexts).

In the course of the *Odysseus* project, we investigated the scenario approach from the point of view of the other approaches described here and of the theoretical framework agreed upon. We came to the conclusion that the task-based approach should be integrated into the scenario approach. While the scenario approach offers examples of authentic (mainly oral) communicative events to analyse and reflect upon, the task-based approach links classroom activities to real life tasks.

We also recognised the need to integrate systematically the scenario approach with the theme-based approach throughout the whole provision process, from needs analysis to delivery and assessment. This would give more concreteness to the scenario approach and integrate language with vocational training. “What to do in case of an accident” is a possible scenario within the theme “Health and security”, for example. The supervisor explains to a new employee the relevant safety rules and behaviour. Both interlocutors are engaged in language transaction (exchanging information, imparting knowledge, requesting further information, clarifying, etc.). At the same time, they interact according to the implicit and explicit sociocultural norms of their workplace. Hierarchy, age, gender, sympathy, even the physical ambience shape the interaction.

The scenario approach, as didactical concept, is based on the understanding of language as “action”: transaction (information exchange) and interaction (interpersonal exchange). It therefore fits into the concept of language as social practice. The schematic knowledge in Beneke’s definition has a social and cultural dimension, it refers to the knowledge and awareness of the culture of a specific community of practice. The cultural appropriateness of the communicative performance is then the ability to interact appropriately and actively in a particular social context. A provision based on the scenario approach does take into account the operational/functional, cultural and critical dimensions of languages as described by Green (1997).

A strength of the scenario approach lies in the use of both authentic written and oral materials. Ideally, relevant scenarios should be recorded (or video-recorded) and then analysed in order to identify the language elements to be taught and worked on in the classroom (vocabulary, grammatical structures, discourse strategies, etc.). They can be also used directly in the classroom as examples of communication to be analysed, reflected upon and discussed. They are not necessarily to be considered as examples of “good” and successful communication. They are not proposed as models to be imitated, but as an instrument for raising awareness and developing critical thinking.

The difficulties connected with this approach have to be mentioned too. There are almost no materials for teaching purposes available for the target groups we are concerned with. Extensive corpora are needed in order to draw empirically sound conclusions. Making authentic recordings in companies is not always permitted. The advantages and disadvantages of semi-authentic recordings should be investigated. Not all the teachers in adult education are used to analysing spoken language.

In spite of these difficulties we see a challenge in further developing the scenario approach, in order to improve workplace language provision.

List of workplace scenarios

Language for social contacts

- introduction;
- small talk/everyday conversation.

Language for exchanging opinions

- work-related exchange;
- discussion.

Language for exchanging information

- report;
- description;

- explanation;
- narration.

Language to influence other people's behaviour

- job application;
- instruction (in training);
- instruction (at the workplace);
- (team) meeting;
- advice;
- service encounter;
- request/desire/wish;
- complaint;
- conflict discussion and resolution.

4. Theme-based approach

In a theme-based approach, the content of the lessons focuses on issues like “Health and safety”, “Autonomous working groups”, “Working in multicultural teams”, “Quality”, “Team meetings”, “Applying for a job”, etc.

In this approach, certain elements of the task-based as well as the scenario approach can be found and vice-versa.

The essence of the theme-based approach is that it supplies content knowledge, which is useful and meaningful to the learners. It is about themes, which play an important role in the vocational performance of an employee. Since learning a language is a natural process, workers discuss issues of their own choice in the classroom. This means that factual information and thinking about one's own behaviour/performance and attitudes become just as important as the language learning process itself. By listening, reading, speaking and writing, learners develop cognitive concepts and learning strategies relevant to a given theme. The operational, cultural and critical dimensions are addressed by discussing these issues. The habits and culture of the company, and the point of view and experience of the learners are all open to discussion. In doing so, useful knowledge is acquired about the way things are done in the company. Which issues may generate cultural conflicts or misunderstandings are raised by the learners and investigated.

At the same time, learners acquire the language necessary to operate at the workplace and reflect on the issues, both from a cultural and critical perspective. Knowledge, language and attitude are all part of theme discussions, and are not treated separately.

These three aspects of learning how to communicate at the workplace can be seen as the layers of an onion: in the centre, the knowledge, then the attitude towards it and in the outer layer, the meta-language, namely the language necessary to communicate about the issues, including knowledge and attitude.

As basic material for the lessons, authentic material from the workplace should be used. Learners can be asked to describe their experiences in daily and working life. If, for example, videos about team meetings or solving multicultural conflicts are available, these might be very valuable to stimulate students to find out what the standards are in their company, what they know about these standards, what they think about them, what they have said or should have said in a specific situation, etc.

If possible it would be ideal to film complete themes with all the related aspects. This has been done in the Australian series *English at work* (Byrnes and Candlin 1991). Following this example, *Duidelijke taal!* (Verhallen 1997) was developed in the Netherlands. Materials like these are an effective aid to acquisition of communication skills in the second language. Adult learners may not understand all the dialogues in the video, but they can draw on what they already know and relate it to the new situation. "Who are the people in the film? What are their relationships? Can I tell what is going to happen next?" Such questions encourage the learners to exploit their knowledge of the world and process all the (experience-based) information shown or read. They prompt immigrants (and native speakers) to talk to one another, think about their own situation and attitudes, learn from one another and try to find out more. "What exactly did he say? What did she mean? I didn't get that joke. Why did they laugh?"

Role of the company

The effectiveness of second language learning in the workplace depends on the extent to which firms are involved in the learning process. A theme-based approach offers many opportunities for involving management, supervisors and even co-workers in this process (for example, using an information sheet in the classroom, carrying safety warnings and pictograms). The importance of this for the company and the employees is clear: every worker in the factory must understand the information and be able to explain the safety rules to new colleagues. This concerns knowledge (what are the rules), language (to be able to read the instructions, talk about/discuss them and warn colleagues) and attitude ("What is my own responsibility? What are my rights and duties? Can I propose actions for safety or new rules?" etc.). So working on this sheet in the classroom can help learners (migrant workers) to understand safety instructions better and the authentic text material can provide a rich source for different reading, writing, listening and speaking exercises.

It is important to involve supervisors in the learning process. In some firms the written language is not always clear or well used. Using authentic materials in the classroom (like the official documents sent around or hung at the workplace, or the personnel magazine of the company, etc.) might stimulate the management to improve the style

and vocabulary of written communications. Management may only become aware of this after they get involved.

Involving management in language teaching is less difficult than it seems when a theme-based approach is used. In fact, it brings the element “knowledge” into the classroom: knowledge about safety instructions, knowledge about rules, rights and duties concerning illness, pregnancy, vocational training, etc., knowledge about solving conflicts at the workplace, and knowledge about procedures in assessment of functioning of employees. Teachers may be experts in their own field (language and teaching), but they are not experts in all these fields, especially when these fields are often strongly situated at enterprise level. Explaining things properly and issuing clear instructions is the task of supervisors and management, and teachers must make this clear to them. The task of teachers is to help the learners formulate their questions, and to use language to pose and solve problems effectively. An effective way to get management involved is by inviting a responsible manager or supervisor to a session and to ask them to answer students’ questions.

5. Examples of practice for delivery, competences and approaches

On the CD-Rom you will find six examples of practice:

- F-IV.1. Learner’s competences for and at the workplace – A checklist for course design
- F-IV.2. Scenario discussion between worker and a member of the workers’ council (in German)
- F-IV.3. Analysis in English
- F-IV.4. Scenario – Written care report (in English)
- F-IV.5. Analysis of care report
- F-IV.6. Example of course design within the theme-based approach

V. Assessment, testing and measuring in the workplace

Franziska Kjellström-Medici

Testing systems are based on the elements defined above. These short definitions¹ may serve as an introduction and a guideline to this section:

| | |
|--------------------|---|
| evaluation | Collecting information for a decision about quality or effectiveness of language provision (this may include a summary and presentation of the assessment results). |
| assessment | The use of an instrument or procedure to determine quality or effectiveness of an intervention, or of achievement in learning (all assessment is a form of evaluation). |
| test | An instrument used for assessment. A test gives a score, grade or rating which can be statistically analysed. |
| measurement | Analysis of test results to quantify and scale quality or effectiveness of an intervention or of achievement in learning. |

1. Evaluation in general

Evaluation involves collecting different types and forms of data to show the value of a certain communications/language intervention in the workplace (which may include a teaching programme). The aim may be to improve the outcomes during the course of its implementation (formative evaluation), or to summarise, describe or judge its planned and unplanned outcomes (summative evaluation), or both. Evaluation must be carefully planned from the beginning of the project in order to be useful. The question then may either be “Useful to whom?” or “Useful for what?”. In order to answer either question, the purpose of evaluation should be considered. Therefore, all evaluation is a determination of the worth of a project.

2. Assessment in general

Assessment systems are the key to a good evaluation. The overall purpose of an assessment system may be to initiate and maintain discussion about how the programme addresses the needs of all participants, or to assess the achievement of participants.. As part of this, the programme staff must be prepared to assess their own effectiveness as well as participant needs and goals. In general, an assessment system

¹ Definitions given by Brian North, author of several scaling descriptors for languages.

should lead directly to evaluation by ensuring measurement at three times throughout the programme:

- a needs assessment will determine the current status of participants' (and potential participants') expertise and knowledge. A needs assessment allows programme planners to determine the needs, desires, and goals of the potential participants and/or their teachers, enterprises, and other stakeholders. The basic questions are: "Where are we now, what do we know about these participants' needs, what areas are lacking and what should we address first?";
- ongoing measures of progress will determine the successful features of the programme, the shortcomings of the programme, and whether programme implementation and the participants are progressing in the expected manner. Measures of progress allow staff to determine whether the programme is working and allow participants to see their own growth. The basic questions are: "How much change has there been from the beginning of the programme until now? At this rate of range, will we meet our objectives and goals by the end of the programme period? What else is 'going on' about which we should be aware?";
- summative assessments will determine whether the objectives of the educational programme have been met. The basic questions are: "How much change did we effect during a certain period? What do participants know now? Do they know what we had planned for them to know?"

An assessment system that includes all three of these key features, and leads directly to the evaluation, will provide useful information for various purposes, in a variety of modes, about a variety of participants. In other words, such a system will include multiple measures that provide information regardless of the participant's culture, gender, educational background or language. Of course, it is assumed that the educational programme will include valuable, worthwhile, and frequent opportunities to learn. Without the opportunity to learn meaningful material in a meaningful manner, an assessment system has little value.

The workplace is a holistic system and has to be assessed as such. Therefore, all parties involved have to participate in the evaluation of a programme (namely, managers, foremen, workers, second language and vocational teachers, etc.). When assessing participants of a programme to determine achievement, it is useful to have people talk about their work, career and training wishes or needs. It makes more sense to let them read and talk about a text relevant to their own vocational context, than to let them take a standard test which has nothing to do with communication at the workplace or with personal preferences.

3. Conclusion

Second language provision at the workplace demands real-task provision and tasks relevant to the workplace. To impart knowledge and facts still remains important, but

learning processes need to be adapted to the learners' own field of experience. Learning contents and methods should be increasingly oriented towards self-assessment, providing the learners with appropriate tools. This requires a greater objectivity of the adult learners towards themselves.

Self-confidence and the capacity of self-assessment are essential key competencies within the fields of education and work.

There are several procedures leading to self-assessment. One of the most powerful ones is the self-evaluation of the learners through use of the European Language Portfolio (ELP). At the workplace, the learners are constantly confronted with linguistic tasks connected to their function or role. The ELP could accompany the learning process at the workplace in order to promote self-knowledge as well as reflective thinking which are essential elements in the development of learner autonomy. For adult learners there are many benefits to be gained from the development of learner autonomy. David Little states:

... these benefits include more focused and purposeful learning, removal of the barriers which exist between learning and living and, most importantly for refugee learners, increased ease of transferring the capacity for autonomous behaviour to other domains in life generally.

(Little 1991: 8)

An adequate mixture of formative and summative assessment through communicative language tasks will accompany daily life at the workplace. Transparent language descriptors for various workplaces, adapted to real working life and based on the Common European Framework of Reference, will enable the learners to progress in their second language acquisition.

Thus, there are still not many descriptors developed for distinct language activities at various workplaces and based on the European framework. Traditional language testing may in the meantime remain the method of choice for learners and teachers. Ideally, methods of self-assessment and third party assessment will complement each other.

4. Examples of practice for assessment

On the CD-Rom you will find nine examples of practice from nine different countries:

- F-V.1. Evaluation and testing of second language skills at the workplace in Flanders (Belgium)
- F-V.2. Evaluation and testing in Finland
- F-V.3. Evaluation and testing in Germany
- F-V.4. Language proficiency assessment in Latvia

- F-V.5. Assessment and evaluation of second language at the workplace in the Netherlands
- F-V.6. Evaluation and testing in Poland
- F-V.7. Evaluation and testing in Spain
- F-V.8. Evaluation and testing in Sweden
- F-V.9. Evaluation and testing in Switzerland

As a means for evaluation at the workplace, one can use the checklist of communicative functions at the workplace (see F-III.4).

In F-III.7 one can read about assessment in an integrated literacy/health and safety training.

C. General issues in workplace language provision

Chris Holland

1. Introduction

This project brought together representatives from the Council of Europe member states from eastern and western Europe. Some were members of the European Union and were considered part of “old” Europe in terms of their involvement in the Union. Some had emerged from Soviet influence, and were “new” in the sense that they had not yet joined the European Union. Others had more mixed political and economic histories and goals. Our project explored workplace language provision, considered a means to combating social exclusion for sectors of shifting societies in a rapidly changing European map. It became clear that we could make a general statement about Europe as a whole, but needed to take account of political changes and their ongoing effect on populations.

In many western or “old” European Union countries such as the United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland, international competitiveness is said to depend on the ability of a society to transform knowledge into economic wealth. These countries are relatively successful in doing this: building expertise, accessing and processing information and labour, and selling their products and services throughout the globe. This rapid and pervasive economic activity has been called “new capitalism”, “post-fordism”, “fast capitalism” or “post-capitalism” (Drucker 1993; Gee et al. 1996). While most European countries take in refugees and other migrants, even temporarily, it is often these advanced capitalist countries which attract populations hoping for a better life for themselves and their families.

According to the UK government, “social exclusion” occurs when individuals and groups do not have access to the opportunities and “goods” available to mainstream society, such as education and qualifications towards employability (DfEE 2001). Such individuals may include migrants (some of whom enter the country as refugees) or existing citizens who may be minorities in the mainstream culture and who have not had access to opportunities afforded to most citizens. People living in communities where their first language is not spoken, and who struggle with learning the new language, tend to be amongst the most disadvantaged in society. While they struggle to preserve their cultural identities, often relatively little investment has been put into helping them to better understand “how the system works”. Thus migrants can be vulnerable to blame for not achieving in terms of the mainstream culture. Where governments and industries have seen that language needs make migrants less able to

contribute to the economic wealth of a country, funds have become available for language teaching interventions.

European countries participating in this project differed markedly in terms of their ability to promote, develop and evaluate workplace language for migrants, partly due to the awareness of governments and industries. In one country, then, the main priority might be to build awareness of the need for such provision, while in another it might be determining what effective provision is, or ensuring effective provision for the widest possible sector of the population. If there is simply no provision at all, this is likely to point to problems of stakeholder awareness and policy development. If funding is an issue, this may indicate the country has a policy in place, yet is not committed to it enough to fund promotion and/or provision, or that funding is insufficient to meet the estimated need for such services. One government may consider that workplace language provision should be funded by those who benefit most, namely industry and/or participants. Another might wish to explore stakeholder perceptions of effective provision, and another may wish to focus on widening participation and improving access for migrants.

In advanced capitalist industries, employers are keen to achieve total quality management and smart, “high-performance” workplaces, where knowledge is said to be shared (for example, in teams), and individual training and development is encouraged. Characteristics of high-performance workplaces in this new work order include that workers can align themselves with company goals (Senge 1990), implement flexible specialisation (for instance, multiskilling, part-time or seasonal employment or “portfolio” work), participate fully in teamwork and adapt to rapid change, contributing to the company’s ability to innovate in ongoing cycles of new projects, in order to maintain the competitive edge. As knowledge takes on the central position in these changes, learning in general and language learning in particular take on new significance.

2. Level of engagement in workplace language

In this project, participating countries were asked to identify the following:

- whether their government had developed any policy for workplace language provision (this generally means that funding is available and providers are supported by promotional campaigns);
- whether their government had developed any policy for language provision to prepare learners for the workplace (this means that governments will be aware to some extent of the issues in workplaces and the need for workplace provision);
- whether workplace language provision exists at all in their country (this is more likely with policy/funding/promotion to industry, but can precede these);

- whether provision is in workers' or company time (the extent to which it is in company time indicates awareness of consequences for industry);
- whether language in preparation for work programmes exist at all (adult education providers may recognise the need and make these programmes available and then lobby government for funds);
- who the providers are (public or private? Workplace, vocational or language focused?);
- what level of professional expertise (or training) exists for teachers in this work (does it include subject knowledge, professional expertise in language teaching and knowledge of workplace culture?);
- what funding is available for workplace language provision (does it come from government, industry or elsewhere?).

Since the project is concerned with combating the social exclusion of migrants through the provision of workplace language services, we wanted to embed these investigations in the following questions: What motivates governments and providers to engage in language and literacy provision for and at the workplace? What are important requirements for ensuring the development of workplace language provision for migrants?

3. What motivates governments and providers to engage in language and literacy provision for and at the workplace?

In some western European countries, especially those which are members of international trade networks (for example, World Trade Organisation and the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development), economic competitiveness is stated as a major motivator for workplace language development. Government documents cite poor productivity resulting from poor workplace communications (see for instance, Moser 1999; DfEE 2001), and promote training for workers as a means of developing an economic advantage. The case for language provision in the workplace has been boosted by international findings (the International Adult Literacy Survey) of low literacy levels in educationally and industrially advanced countries. In some countries, literacy is seen as a subset of language provision, and in others literacy development takes priority over language development. In any case, workplace communications are understood (by these governments and industries) to be negatively affected by those with either poor language or literacy skills.

With the dramatic political changes that have occurred throughout many eastern European countries over the last decade (war, political upheaval, occupation, independent nationhood), the priority for some countries has been to develop national pride which involves reasserting culture and language. The flow of refugees from one

country to another (either in transit or as a final destination) has swelled refugee and migrant populations in some countries, and new migrants finding employment are seen as contributing to poor workplace communications.

Finally, many state and non-government organisations are concerned with issues of social justice: they recognise that sections of the population are socially excluded through difficulties with language and/or literacy, resulting from social causes such as (often intergenerational) poverty and discrimination (class, gender, race). Thus motivation for engaging in workplace language provision stems from both economic and social imperatives, depending on the political context for each country.

A key issue for workplace language provision is government policy. Without a policy to fund workplace language provision, services to companies tend to be sporadic and inadequate. This is because providers cannot afford to professionally develop their teaching staff, carry out necessary research into regional and local conditions and needs, promote the concept of workplace language to companies, develop and market services, and conduct analyses of organisational language needs, without some start-up and maintenance funding. Without a policy that makes clear the rights of workers, those with language development needs are at risk of victimisation. Without a policy that enables the development of professional expertise, educators and industry will continue to speak different and sometimes opposing languages, and this will negatively impact on workers and services to improve communications. Without a policy that balances social and economic outcomes, workplace language provision will be seen as an economic duty rather than a social right of workers. This balance has implications in terms of who is responsible for funding provision. If it is understood that benefits of workplace language services accrue mainly to companies, then this implies a greater responsibility on the part of companies to fund provision, to provide learning programmes in work time and to ensure that workers can be released for tuition. Where it is understood that social and economic benefits accrue to workers and the nation from such provision, then there is a greater onus on the government to support providers and companies.

Social and economic imperatives to promote and implement workplace language provision are evident in several member countries, but the balance depends on the degree of social responsibility taken by governments. For instance, the UK, German and Dutch governments are keen to provide language and literacy (basic skills) learning opportunities for workers and others, as a means of up-skilling their workforces in order to maintain strong competitive positions in the international marketplace. This national, economic agenda, and a degree of social responsibility for the integration of migrants, means that governments are prepared, to a greater or lesser extent, to fund initiatives. In Flanders (Belgium) the aim of the promotion of Dutch at the workplace is to secure the fragile position of foreign workers with a lower language level by increasing their language skills needed at the workplace. In Germany, while there is no specific government policy, existing laws aimed at social and vocational inclusion enable providers to access funds and to negotiate (sporadic) workplace provision. The motivation for workplace language provision for the Latvian Government has been to

reassert the Latvian language since 1988. Therefore, up until 1993, and after 1996, language teaching has been available in workplaces. Some countries, such as Estonia, have implemented language laws in the past which have given workers the right to language programmes at work, but this is no longer available. The governments of several other member countries (for example, Albania, Spain, Romania, Poland and Lithuania), while having policies in place to support migrants to learn language, have not yet focused on the provision of language learning opportunities which will enable migrants to find and maintain employment.

Of all the member countries, the United Kingdom has invested the most in this area (more than £6 million injected into language and literacy since 1999, prioritising workplace provision), with a strong economic focus. The funds are to support providers, unions and employers to implement programmes. After several years of green papers and commissioned reports, the UK Government introduced an adult basic skills strategy in 2001. The strategy emphasises literacy and numeracy provision, but there have been parallel developments in policy and implementation of language provision. Workplace language providers have had to comply with national adult language and literacy curricula, national standards for language and literacy, national professional qualifications and training, and national inspectorate criteria for adult language and literacy provision.

Despite lack of policy development, some initiatives have been sustained. Of the fourteen project member countries who responded to an internal survey of issues, only a couple have government language provision policies, though not all apply specifically to language provision at the workplace: The United Kingdom has a strong policy framework, while Belgium is in the process of developing policy on integrated provision for lower educated foreign workers. Estonia and Sweden, on the other hand, have general language provision laws only. Germany, Belgium and the Netherlands were remarkable for what had been achieved in workplace language provision despite the lack of government funding. Four other countries had no policy but were nevertheless fairly active in language programmes at the workplace: Iceland, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. Albania, Estonia, Lithuania and Poland were able to offer language provision generally, with isolated examples of where this had occurred at or for the workplace. While the policy or programme development of workplace language education was more widespread in countries such as the United Kingdom, the Netherlands and Germany, participants from member countries recognised that there were significant problems in these countries with the quality of provision. For instance, in several countries, the integration of general education with vocational education, of language with literacy and of language with workplace cultural practices was not well developed. Teacher education also needed to be more specific to workplace provision.

Providers in the Netherlands, Germany and Belgium have demonstrated that the development of provision can in fact shape government responses. For instance, with the aim of improving professional expertise and qualifications pathways for teachers of language and literacy at and for the workplace, the Dutch National Employment Service has been paying the ITTA for more than ten years to be a support centre for

second language at the workplace. Their remit includes the development of information, answering enquiries from companies and training teachers..

National and regional partnerships between providers, unions, NGOs, employers and government bodies have been set up in Belgium and in the United Kingdom. In Belgium, a platform has been set up to promote “Dutch at the workplace” and to inform all possible partners on the goals and ways of funding of the courses. The platform promotes a model for teaching Dutch at the workplace. In the United Kingdom, national funding initiatives such as the union learning fund have enabled unions, providers and companies to work together to establish effective provision for workers.

Other initiatives have enabled national and regional agencies to develop professional development programmes, national curricula and information sharing networks. Even without formal partnerships and funding, providers, trade unions and employer organisations in some countries (such as Iceland) have managed to implement programmes.

Incentives (for example, tax breaks) for companies to engage in workplace language and literacy provision are not generally favoured by governments, as workplace provision is seen partially as a company, rather than a taxpayer responsibility. However, sometimes this is a useful strategy for small and micro-companies. Tax incentives have been successfully attempted in Australia. While the United Kingdom has no legislation to support the release of workers for training (as in Italy), recent legislation (2002) has enabled “union learning representatives” release time to be trained to support and advocate for those needing language and literacy training in the workplace.

4. What are important requirements for ensuring the development of workplace language provision for migrants?

The first requirement for ensuring sustained workplace language provision is that governments, industries and adult education institutions recognise the social and economic value of this work, at national as well as local level. In countries where the value of workplace language provision is understood, this has usually come about through a long awareness campaign mounted by adult education providers who have worked increasingly with migrants in the community and in employment. The campaign is twofold: it informs government (as policy makers) and industry (as clients) of the scale of second language learning need and of the benefits of increased access to language provision for the country, industry and individuals. The aim is to establish the need to budget for this provision out of either the public or private purse, or from a partnership between government and industry.

The second requirement is a strategy for supporting language and literacy provision at and for the workplace, which includes co-operation between key stakeholders (government, education, industry, unions) towards developing this provision for individuals. This strategy should include the means by which funding for such projects will be ensured. This could include tax incentives for companies, education credits for individuals and establishment support for providers (to develop and implement promotions). A strategy should also include the means by which language educators can extend their professional development in order to understand and manage the environment of workplace learning. This means enabling higher education institutions to develop appropriate courses and qualifications. An associated requirement is legislation to protect the right of migrant workers to access training during work time.

5. The importance of professional development for educators

The Australian report on integrating literacy and numeracy into workplace training asserts that this means knowing how to negotiate and develop provision in business as well as educational terms.

Enterprise-based teachers and trainers in workplaces are being called upon to respond to diverse demands within complex policy and organisational environments. Their work requires high-level analytical skills, negotiation skills, specialised industrial knowledge (especially in the area of occupational health and safety) and knowledge of an increasingly complex vocational and education training system, in addition to communications, instructional and assessment skills.

(ALNARC 2000)

The same applies to language teachers in the workplace context. A good workplace language teacher will need to understand how language is practised within particular workplace cultures (organisational practice), as well as having professional (adult teaching) and subject (language) knowledge. Folinsbee (1994) outlines how provision can be seen as a collaborative, “whole organisation” exercise. This will include integrating provision with the organisation’s communication developments and issues, and might include integrating provision with health and safety training, computer training and vocational training. This means that the professional must not only have a thorough understanding of the technical, cultural and critical aspects of language, but should also gain some understanding of each of these training and workplace performance areas.

While many countries see the importance of professional development for language teachers entering workplace provision, few have implemented contextualised professional development programmes, due to insufficient government recognition of the issue, which has meant lack of funds, non-existent specific qualifications or qualifications pathways. The Netherlands and the United Kingdom are good examples

of where individual universities have understood the need for teachers' professional development, designed appropriate programmes and successfully lobbied government for the funds to roll out programmes for teachers. The UK Government has funded national agencies (the Workplace Basic Skills Network, based at Lancaster University, and the Basic Skills Agency) to develop and roll out national training programmes to equip language and literacy practitioners to deliver effective community, pre-employment and workplace programmes, and, as mentioned earlier, the ITTA in the Netherlands has teacher training programme in place

However, professional development is not simply about developing and delivering courses and qualifications. Workplace educators need to be able to access and conduct research in order to build their understandings, and to access professional networks through national and international seminars and conferences. What constitutes quality and relevance in professional development programmes can be informed by good research and professional networking, not only nationally but also internationally. Good research in workplace language has been conducted in other countries (for example, Australia, Canada and the United States) since the early 1990s, which answers questions about what counts as quality and what we need to do to make services more relevant. There are also a number of international conference papers, journal articles and books dedicated to building understandings in workplace language, for the benefit of those embarking on this work. The theoretical and practical understandings that are available on the subject are important for educators wanting to negotiate their way through the rhetoric of governments and industry in order to develop informed, authentic practice which makes a real difference to the language competencies of workers, and to communications improvements in companies.

6. Conclusion

The project revealed some sharp contrasts, not only in what motivates governments to support this work through policy development and funding, but also in experience, approaches to provision and professional development in participating countries. Developments of this nature take many years to achieve significant successes: workplace language provision took place in the United Kingdom for around fifteen years before the political/economic climate corresponded with adult educators' awareness of the need for language provision in the workplace. So while good language provision can occur without policy and government funding, it definitely helps move the process to another level. But even "advanced" workplace language provision has a long way to go. What all participating countries are relatively weak on is research into workplace language in our own countries. This would improve the quality of professional development and of provision. Examples of where this has happened are Australia, Canada and the United States.

We cannot be complacent. We all have issues of quality to address when it comes to what international research has revealed about workplace language. Hopefully this comparative work will show us all how far we have come and how far we have still to go.

D. Glossary

This glossary is designed first of all as a means of preventing misunderstanding. You will find:

- terms that refer to the target group for second language provision;
- technical terms used in the publication that might not be clear to the reader;
- terms that refer to the workplace.

Secondly, the glossary is meant as a means to show how differently the subject and all its related aspects are treated in different European countries.

1. Terms that refer to the target group for second language provision

| Term | Explanation |
|-----------------------|--|
| asylum seekers | <p>This term generally refers to people who for political reasons have applied for asylum in a state.</p> <p>In Germany, refugees who have applied for political asylum or have been granted asylum are also called “<i>Asylanten</i>”; this term is often used in a derogatory way.</p> <p>In Spain, there are two types of asylum seekers starting from the type of procedure of asylum application:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ the term “asylum applicant” refers to those people that initially apply for asylum;▪ the term “admitted to apply” is applicable to the following situation: when a person requests asylum the first selection is carried out with the objective of examining if the reasons presented by the applicant in his/her request are true. The asylum applicants admitted to apply can receive social benefits and permission to work. <p>In Latvia, according to the Law on Asylum Seekers and Refugees, asylum seekers are people who have handed in an application for the granting of the status of refugee.</p> |

**autochthones,
allochthones**

“*Autochthone*” refers to people “from here” and “*allochthone*” refers to people “who come from afar”.

In the **Netherlands**, these (originally Greek) terms are in common usage. They are generally regarded as politically neutral terms. “*Autochthone*” refers to the Dutch majority and “*allochthone*” refers to foreigners or ethnic minorities.

In **Spain**, the term “*autóctono*” is used in the same way and with the same political neutrality, but the word “allochtones” does not exist in the Spanish language.

In **Poland**, the term “*autochton*” is used in everyday Polish only, but not as an official term.

In **Latvia**, the term “*autochthones*” is used in the Official Language Law and refers to the population of Livs – descendants of Finno-Ugric tribes, which were the first inhabitants in the territory of Latvia until the Baltic tribes arrived (in the third millennium BC). Now only about thirty Livs have Livonian language skills. The term “allochthones” refers to traditional minorities “who have come from afar”, for example, Gypsies, Jews, Germans and Poles, and from neighbouring countries, for example, Estonians, Lithuanians and Russians.

**contingent
refugees**

Generally this term is used for refugees who were admitted in the framework of a defined contingent.

Within the scope of international relief campaigns, the Federal Republic of **Germany** repeatedly admitted refugees entrance from trouble areas on a quota base. Aside from all international agreements, the government granted admittance to a limited number of people. These refugees enjoy a similar status as refugees granted asylum without having gone through the asylum procedure.

**convention
refugees**

These are refugees who, due to the UN Geneva Convention, are not allowed to be deported because their lives or personal freedom are jeopardised in their country of origin due to their ethnic origin, religion, nationality or membership of a particular social group or because of their political opinions.

ethnic minorities

This is a generic term of convenience, referring to those who are identifiably different to the ethnic majority of the host country due to their “race” or ethnic origin. In many contexts, these differences are also compounded by religion or language. The term encompasses:

- people who were born abroad and have settled in the host country;
- European-born, second generation adults, one or both of whose parents or grandparents were born abroad;
- migrant workers of southern, eastern or non-European origin;
- cultural and linguistic minority communities;
- asylum seekers and refugees;
- overseas students from non-industrialised countries.

In **Spain**, this term refers only to cultural and linguistic minority communities.

In **Poland**, “*ethnic*” is substituted by “*national*” in legal terms.

In **Latvia**, this term refers to other nationalities than Latvian who live in the territory of Latvia. Several types can be distinguished among Latvia’s minorities:

- traditional allochthonous non-contact minorities – Gypsies, Jews, Germans and Poles;
- traditional allochthonous contact minorities – Estonians, Lithuanians, Russians and Belorussians;
- immigrant minorities (also migrants, immigrants) – Russians, Ukrainians and Belorussians.

foreigner

The term “*foreigner*” generally refers to nationals of a another state or people not born and raised in this country.

In **Germany**, “*foreigner*” (“*Ausländer*”) refers to any person who is not German as defined in Article 116 of the German Constitution (*Grundgesetz*). Generally, no sharp distinction is made between those of foreign origin who are naturalised, and those whose current status is that of an *Ausländer*, since foreign appearance alone tends to dictate whether a person is referred to or treated as a foreigner. The terms “*Ausländer* – *Inländer*” reflect the message often connected with them of “you do not belong here” versus “you belong here”.

In **Latvia**, the term refers to any person who comes from a foreign country to Latvia for a temporary stay (tourists, students, ambassadors, employees of big international companies such as Mc Donald's, Electrolux, etc.) Usually they are citizens of foreign countries.

In **Spain**, "*extranjeros*" are those who do not have Spanish nationality according to Article 1 of Organic Law 4/2000 of 11 January 2000, reformed by Organic Law 8/2000 of 22 December 2000.

guest-workers

This term was used for foreign workers. The term emphasised their temporary guest or visitor status and the expectation that they would eventually return to their countries of origin.

With the start of organised government recruitment of foreign workers in 1955, it was the term coined to refer to those who entered the Federal Republic of **Germany** for the purpose of paid work. The term is rarely used nowadays, since most of these foreign workers have settled with their families in Germany for good. It was so widely used, however, that in **Poland** the word "*gastarbeiter*" was adopted from the German language, while no Polish equivalent exists.

In **Latvia**, this term refers to persons from another country (usually from the former Soviet bloc countries) who have official permission to work in Latvia. Due to high unemployment, permission to work is only given to specialist roles that cannot be filled in Latvia.

The term is not known in **Spain**. There exists a type of work permit called "T" for seasonal activities which last less than nine months. Workers who possess this type of permit are known as "foreign seasonal workers".

immigrants

This term refers to permanent settlers, that is people whose life is centred in the host country (work, housing, school, etc.).

The term is not always appropriate for the situation in the **United Kingdom**, since a large proportion of the persons considered as immigrants actually migrated to the country more than twenty-five years ago. When the term is used in the British media it usually refers to white foreign workers or guest-workers.

The **Latvian** Government and media try to avoid this term. In fact, Latvia has an enormous number of immigrants.

Approximately 700 000 Russian-speaking settlers from the Russian Federation, Ukraine, Belarus and other places arrived when Latvia became part of the Soviet Union. Now they are called permanent residents. Gradually, they become citizens of Latvia.

In **Germany**, the term “*Zugewanderte/r*” is used in the same way as “immigrant”, substituting the ideologically controversial term “*Ausländer/in*”.

integration programme

In the **Netherlands** and **Belgium** this means “*Inburgering*”:

- special programmes set up by the government consisting of Dutch language courses combined with social orientation courses to familiarise new migrants with local society.

An integration programme based on **Latvian** language learning and naturalisation has been adopted in Latvia with the purpose of including “old” immigrants in Latvian society in order to avoid the formation of two separate communities.

newcomers

In the **Netherlands** and **Belgium**, this term is used to circumscribe the specific group of migrants who are entitled to governmental integration programmes. Only migrants who match specific legal conditions are considered as “newcomers” and are considered the target group for integration programmes.

repatriates

The term refers to a person who returns to his/her country of origin.

In **Germany**, the term usually refers to immigrants who decide to return to their country of origin for good. A special group of repatriates, however, the so-called “*Aussiedler*”, are German citizens or nationals, as defined by the 1913 Citizenship and Nationality Law, who return to Germany as their country of origin. They had residency status before 8 May 1945, in former East Germany or eastern Europe, and left or were expelled from those countries prior to 31 December 1992. “*Spätaussiedler*” is the term for those people who applied for admission into Germany after 31 December 1992. Having proof of German ethnicity can lead to immediate naturalisation.

The term “*repatriate*” is also used to describe the groups of people of **Finnish** (Finno-Karelian) and **Greek** descent from eastern European countries who settle back in Finland and Greece.

In **Latvia**, according to the Law of Repatriation, a *repatriate* is a Latvian citizen (or who has at least one parent /grandparent who is Latvian or Liiv) moving from another country back to Latvia for a permanent stay. Most repatriates are second world war refugees and their descendants from western countries, and persons from Siberia deported there by the Soviet regime.

In **Spain**, the word “*repatriado*” means the person who returns to his/her country of origin, including two cases:

- as a synonym of a person who has returned, referring to a Spanish person who emigrated in the past and has now returned to Spain;
- in the language of the South American immigrants “*repatriation*” is understood as execution of the expulsion order and repatriated persons would be those expelled by the Spanish authorities as a sanction measure.

refugees

The term “refugee” is defined in Article 1 of the 1951 Geneva Convention as a person who, owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of “race”, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his/her nationality. They are often divided into different groups (namely, asylum seekers, refugees granted asylum, war refugees) and accorded different legal statuses.

In **Latvia**, the term refugee refers to all refugees without further specification.

In **Spain**, the definition supplied by the Geneva Convention is applied literally but there are no different types of refugee status. Those refugees who have been granted asylum are generally called “*asilados*”; according to the Law on Migration (Article 34) they are also called “*refugiados*”.

The **Spanish** asylum law defines the word “*desplazar*” (“displaced”) as the following: the government is able to receive in Spain displaced people that, as consequence of serious political, ethnic or religious conflicts, have been forced to abandon their country of origin or cannot remain in the same one.

In **Poland**, the term refers to all refugees without further specification (war, economic, etc.).

In **Germany** “war refugees” do not have to apply for political asylum. They are admitted by reason of a resolution of the federal government.

migrants Migrants are considered those people who migrated from one country to another, usually in order to work there or for other economic reasons.

In **Poland**, only the term “*migration*” exists; people are either “*emigrants*”, that is those leaving the country, or “*immigrants*”, namely those coming into the country.

2. Technical terms referring to vocational second language acquisition as well as terms used in the publication that might not be clear to the reader

| Term | Explanation |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| three dimensional approach | This term refers to an approach developed in Australia in which the teaching of language and literacy is understood to involve three dimensions: the operational (or functional), the cultural (exploring appropriateness to the context) and critical (looking at how practices can be improved). |
| adult education | This term refers to all further education courses – offered outside of the regular school system (community or vocational) – for adults in order to support the improvement of their knowledge, skills and/or qualifications for vocational, social or personal development. |
| assessment | The use of an instrument or procedure to determine quality or competence. All assessment is a form of evaluation. |
| coach/coaching | <p>The term “coaching” in the examples of practice for partnership in second language at the workplace means: coaching the trainee or worker at the workplace to obtain communicative and practical skills.</p> <p>The following terms are used for people working as a coach: “practical work supervisor”, “trainee coach” and “coaching colleague”.</p> |

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| communication needs analysis | The term means an analysis of the needs within a particular context (for example, the workplace) to learn what approaches need to be taken to improve communications. This could include communications or language training, the development of user-friendly documentation and cultural awareness support. In the case of the workplace, this support might be offered to supervisors and managers. |
| Communicative task / competencies | Communicative tasks are communicative verbal, para-verbal and non-verbal interaction in order to complete tasks (for example, make arrangements to repair machine faults) and achieve certain objectives (for example, persuade your boss to give you an increase of salary, get a couple of hours off in the afternoon to attend a parents' meeting at school). |
| Community centre / regional centre for vocational and adult education | In the Netherlands , the terms " <i>community centre</i> " and " <i>regional centre for vocational and adult education</i> " are synonymous. Both are referred to as "ROC" (Regionaal Opleidingen / Centrum). |
| Delivery approaches | The term refers to the different teaching and learning approaches taken for learners or groups, in terms of content, process and context. |
| dual course | The term refers to a combination of vocational and language education. |
| empowerment versus deficit approaches | The empowerment approach views the learner as someone having a variety of skills that merely need support and improvement. The deficit approach, in comparison, views the learner as incompetent, unable to contribute and often unwilling to do so, and in need of guidance and supervision. |
| evaluation | The term refers to collecting information for a decision about the quality and/or effectiveness of an intervention, for example a course or programme. |

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| illiteracy | This term describes the situation of people who cannot read or write in any language and who therefore lack basic skills, such as the ability to express themselves in writing and to understand and use written language in everyday life. People aged 16 and over who have attended school but do not have sufficient mastery of the written word in any language to cope with the minimum demands of occupational, social, cultural and personal life are considered to be functionally illiterate. |
| integrated learning | There are a range of ways in which integrated learning is conceptualised. The most common way with workplace learning is to talk about the integration of language and vocational learning. Some other conceptualisations include the integration of language with organisational culture and, in terms of migrants, the integration of migrant culture with the dominant culture. |
| key skills | These are methodological and social competencies overlapping specific vocational and language skills which constitute the general capacity to act not only in working life. Key skills include: creativity, problem-solving skills, punctuality, responsibility, self-reliance, communication skills, tolerance, the skill to work in a team, etc. |
| literacy / basic skills | Adult literacy and basic skills provision covers reading/writing courses at different levels, numeracy, basic computer skills, language in and out of the workplace, preparation for educational courses as well as learning to learn. |
| measurement | The term refers to an analysis of test results to quantify and scale quality or competence. |
| intercultural/ multicultural education | These are interdisciplinary collective terms for learning with and between different cultures. |
| occupational certificate | In the Netherlands , you need a occupational certificate (professional diploma) to get a qualified job: for example, you need an “assistant engineer” certificate to get a qualified job in a garage. |

| | |
|--------------------------------------|---|
| partnership | <p>“<i>Partnership</i>” is the co-operation between different persons or organisations, each contributing in their way to one or more phases of the organisation of second language learning at the workplace/vocational training place, all motivated by the existence of a win-win situation, namely a common goal which offers them profit in one way or another.</p> |
| participant orientation | <p>This refers to the didactic key principle which assumes that provision in adult education is not normally defined by a fixed curriculum for the topic but by the requirements and expectations of those who these provisions are meant for.</p> |
| practitioner | <p>This term refers to people teaching in adult education.</p> |
| second language (acquisition) | <p>This is a generic term for the lingual expression of speakers who acquired or acquire the respective language as a foreign language in the country and for most part outside of the classroom. Speakers of this variation of the respective language mostly belong to the groups of migrants, repatriates and refugees. Second language underlines the specific existential importance next to the first language.</p> <p>The term “<i>second language acquisition</i>” refers to the learning of a second language and to the specifics of language learning outside the classroom as well as to the everyday and specific language needs of the respective target groups.</p> <p>Not everywhere is there a distinction made between “<i>second language</i>” and “<i>foreign language</i>”. In Poland, for instance, only the term “<i>foreign language</i>” is in use. This refers in the same way to the use of the term “<i>second language acquisition</i>”.</p> <p>In Spain, according to Santos Gargallo (1999), a second language is the language that has a social and institutional function in the linguistic community in which it is learnt and is necessary for official, commercial, social and educational activities. The second language is generally learnt out of necessity and is spoken in the immediate environment.</p> <p>A foreign language is learnt in a context which lacks social and institutional function (outside the country). It is not spoken in the immediate environment and is generally learnt in a classroom.</p> |

| | |
|--|--|
| scenario | A scenario can be defined as “predictable sequences of communicative acts (either purely verbal, purely non-verbal, or a mixture of the two). Scenarios acquire their coherence from shared schematic knowledge.” The concept of “communicative act” is primary. “ <i>Scenario</i> ” is an attractive term precisely because it is associated with scene, stage, play, acting, etc. |
| shadowing | The term refers to an analysis of the linguistic demands through “ <i>shadowing</i> ” the future learners at the workplace, namely accompanying them during their daily work in order to examine linguistic skills and needs before the learning process starts. |
| support agency | The term refers to an institution supporting providers with expert guidance (namely, research, development and professional development). |
| technical language | Technical language is primarily the language of a field or subject (for example, law, medicine, etc.), and accordingly manifests itself in technical texts. The specifics of technical language lie in its special vocabulary, in the use of specific morphological and syntactic means as well as specific forms of phonetic and graphic realisation. |
| test | An instrument used for assessment which gives a score, grade or rating which can be statistically analysed. In Latvia , the term “ <i>test</i> ” (“ <i>tests</i> ”) refers only to a special kind of test with answers. |
| vocational training | Training at or for the workplace, which develops abilities to perform a specific kind of work. |
| vocation- / work-oriented materials | This term refers to language training and training manuals that aim to teach young and adult language learners the language in the context of the workplace. There is a notable differentiation between the so-called technical second or foreign language teaching and the connected issues, because these commonly mean provision for students or for qualified or executive foreign personnel. |

3. Terms that refer to the workplace

| Term | Explanation |
|------------------------------|--|
| community of practice | This term is taken from work investigating how people practice language and literacy within particular contexts such as the workplace. It has been found that in order for a new worker to be properly integrated into an organisation, they need to understand the language, written and unwritten rules, formal and informal expectations, etc. There may be a number of communities of practice (or “discourse communities”) within one workplace. |
| micro-enterprises | Enterprises with up to 10 employees. |
| small enterprises | Enterprises with between 11 and 49 employees. |
| Medium enterprises | In Germany , enterprises with between 50 and 500 employees; in the United Kingdom , enterprises with between 50 and 250 employees. |
| large enterprises | In Germany , enterprises with more than 500 employees; in the United Kingdom , enterprises with more than 250 employees. |
| Uitzendbureau | <p>An <i>Uitzendbureau</i> is a type of company which mediates between people who seek employment and employers who seek employees on a temporary basis. An employer who needs one or more workers for a short period, ranging from one day to half a year, can contact an <i>Uitzendbureau</i> which matches the request of the employer with people in their files. The employer pays the <i>Uitzendbureau</i> per hour of work and the <i>Uitzendbureau</i> pays the worker.</p> <p>This system of mediation of workers and employers is partly a result of the rules of employment in the Netherlands, where it is very difficult to fire workers and thus a risk to employ workers directly when it is clear beforehand that the firm will not need them after a certain period.</p> |

workplace culture This refers to the way things should be done in a particular workplace, the vision and beliefs that shape how people think and act in that workplace. Not all aspects of the culture are always made explicit, but come to be known through engagement in the organisation.

work experience The term “*work experience*” can include an apprenticeship, a training place or a practical work placement.

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