Language policy, ideology and educational practices in a globalized world

An introduction to the book

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1 Globalization: New challenges for languages, policies and education

For a number of years now, "globalization" has been a catchphrase which people have been using without really thinking about its precise meaning. The *Online Etymology Dictionary* (Harper, n.d.) dates the first use of the verb "globalize" (in American English) back to 1953 with the meaning "making something worldwide", and the corresponding noun "globalization" to 1961. Scholte (2008) observed that the term only became commonly used in different fields of academia in the 1980s, noting in particular that the term could have at least four different meanings depending on the field of specialization. The first meaning is that of *internationalization*, in reference to a "growth of transactions and interdependence between countries" (p. 1473). The second meaning, *liberalization*, has to do with the opening up of markets and restrictions, "in order to form an 'open' and 'borderless' world economy" (p. 1475). In its third meaning, *universalization,* it is nearly synonymous with the idea of uniformization, such as in the case of the ubiquity of fast-food chains (Starbucks, McDonalds, Pizza Hut, Kentucky Fried Chicken, and so on) around the world. The final meaning, *westernization*, has a similar connotation to the previous meaning, with an emphasis on the influence of Western values (gender equality, freedom of speech and other ideas inspired by the West) over the rest of the world.

In this book, we shall be using the term "globalization" as a blend of ideas covered by all four meanings. In different teaching situations, different aspects might be emphasised or present depending on the needs of the students. For example, in relation to language and education, one role of educators might be to meet the needs of global companies as far as their personnel and communications (internal or external)

are concerned (Walker *et al.*, this volume). This includes preparing students for a world where transnational collaboration is gradually becoming the norm, and where international borders are being erased or eased, be it for foreign trade and investments, or overseas educational exchanges. This is evident in the Japanese buzzword *gurōbaru jinzai* (グローバル 人材), meaning "global human resources".

In the past century, the economic, political, social and cultural landscape of the world had been constantly evolving, and this has led to important changes internationally. In Europe, for example, as a culmination of the tendency for the Eastern bloc countries to open up their borders and loosen their political and economic regulations, there was an increase in collaborative activities between European states, universities and businesses. Membership of the European Union also started to grow quickly, making Europe more uniform and diverse at the same time. Much of the global evolution is expedited by the general spread of the use and accessibility of the Internet, contributing to the individual's feeling of being a part of the seemingly infinite worldwide community, in an ever more interconnected world, where even faraway places and otherwise inaccessible information can be made available with a single click on the computer.

As many of these changes are still on-going, educators and policy makers are faced, more than ever before, with new challenges of satisfying the needs of the relevant stakeholders of education. For instance, in individual states, education policy makers have to think about what knowledge, skills and competencies future generations would be expected to develop by the time they become contributing citizens. Similarly, foreign language educators are increasingly concerned with the development of key competencies in their students to embrace the challenges in the future (Walker *et al.*, 2018). One of the most pressing issues in trying to do this is to provide high quality teachers who can assure that the desired educational outcomes are attained. Furthermore, as part of the attempt to promote equality for every individual on a global level, a number of international organizations and governments have strived to assist minority groups in their endeavour to keep their identities and rights to be recognised and educated in their own language. Similarly, to make communication easier and smoother among and between cultures, it has become imperative that people be educated about and become aware of similarities and differences between them and to accept these without judgement. In order to meet these and other challenges, an understanding of how education and language policies, educational practices and technology play a part is vital.

The challenges posed by globalization for languages, policies and education form the basis of this collection of selected doubly-blind peer-reviewed articles, which have been put together following the 2014 PLIDAM conference on "Policies and ideologies in language teaching: Actors and discourses". This volume aims to contribute to the knowledge, discussion and debate about the impact that globalization has had on languages, policies and education in a wide variety of contexts.

2 Globalization and policies in language teaching and learning

One way in which globalization has affected language education around the world is the increasing need to equip students with the ability to communicate in different languages, either in their increasingly multilingual or multicultural world (as a result of heightened mobility of people, goods, information and technology) or in their future workplaces, wherever that might be on the planet. Language education policies aiming to facilitate international trade, businesses and economic development are thus often determined by the strategies of an individual state in international relations, national integration or nation building. Correspondingly, the training of language teachers has to remain relevant by aligning with the social and economic contexts of the world (as defined in Section 1 above).

However, while education policies are focussed on the achievement of certain desired educational outcomes, those favouring or promoting the teaching and learning of certain important languages may inadvertently lead to undesirable side effects. These include the possibility of endangerment or loss of minority, indigenous or mother tongue languages, and indirectly, a violation of the rights of their speakers (see Section 3). In other cases, they lead to certain unexpected paradoxes. One peculiar example has been given by Chan (this volume, Chapter 1), of how official language policy impositions in Singapore may lead to the study of a foreign language as an official "mother tongue", particularly when the choices of languages offered in the educational system is limited and restricted to only those that present an economic advantage to the country's future development. Another case in point is demonstrated by Cognini (this volume, Chapter 2) through the example of how the policy of attracting more foreign students to Italian universities as well as the increase in foreign student enrolment do not seem to be reciprocated with a greater, more consistent and more adapted offering of Italian language classes.

Another indispensable aspect of language education policy that must not be forgotten is the role that teacher training plays in meeting the needs of a globalized education. To do this, it is necessary that teacher training and the corresponding teacher-training tools measure up to the demands of an evolving world driven by the forces of globalization as well. Interestingly, while globalization has led to the requirement for renewed teacher training programmes, the relevant tools for teacher education are more easily available because of globalization in the first place. This was pointed out by Loumanis (this volume, Chapter 3), who argued that the existence of the European Union (consisting of 28 countries at the time of press) has enabled common frameworks and unifying education policies with the ultimate goal of sustaining and enhancing economic development and competitiveness at the world level.

3 Globalization, language policies and ideologies

Globalization has also had an impact on language policies and ideologies regarding minority, indigenous or mother tongue languages around the world. Language policies often depend on ideologies related to historical, social and economic circumstances as well as current political situations. They may concern more specifically the code of a

given language (for instance, standardization) or its status. Regarding the status of languages, policies are meant either to enforce the position of one or several dominant languages in order to maintain national unity, political stability, economic development, or to give minority languages a chance of survival and development, whether they are indigenous, local, or mother tongues. Yet, not all minority languages are taken into account in active language policies. Depending on the current or prevailing ideologies, minority languages are often considered to have either little or no importance. This may be because of the small number of speakers of these languages, or of their status as dialectal or substandard varieties. Even the mere fact that a particular language is endangered may not be motivating enough for the authorities to take proactive measures.

Nevertheless, some minority languages are being protected by policies so as to save their cultural wealth and resources. These policies may include the encouragement of the use and development of these languages through bilingual or multilingual education and sometimes also through their use in local government bodies. On the other hand, for dominant or majority languages that have the status of official, national or federal languages, policies would consist in sustaining them through all forms of institutional support. They are used as media of instruction and/or as subjects of study in education. They are the languages of the mass media, communication and international relations. Some of these languages play generally the role of regional *lingua franca*, as is the case, for example, of Swahili in Eastern and Central Africa, Hindi in Southern Asia, and English in many parts of the world.

Currently, English has the highest status in the hierarchy of international languages due to the growing number of learners and users throughout the world (Hamel, 2010), along with the spread of its use as official or working language. Even in French-speaking countries such as the Republic of Rwanda, English has replaced French as the language of education since 2008. The case of Rwanda clearly shows the close relationships between ideology, politics and language policy. Indeed, it is the ideology of reconciliation that prevailed and led the post-genocide government of Rwanda to institutionalise English as an official language (Maffi, 2002), temporarily creating a situation of multilingualism (English, French and Kinyarwanda) in a country where the indigenous language, Kinyarwanda, is spoken by more than 90% of the population (Samuelson & Freedman, 2010). This example demonstrates how important ideology can be in the orientation and choice of a language policy. It also shows that, regardless of whether bilingualism (first language and English, or national language and English) or multilingualism (local language, official language and English) is adopted as the basis of a language policy, it is seldom long-lasting if we consider the fact that within less than ten years, Rwanda's language policy has changed again and Swahili has recently become its forth official language.

Policies change under ideological and political pressures (Mtavangu, Chapter 5 in this volume) or under ideological and socio-economic constraints (Liddicoat, Chapter 4 in this volume). Aside from policies, the life and survival of a language depend also on the value the language is given by its speakers. Because of the lack of value in the perception that speakers have of their mother tongue, they may progressively shift to

another language more extensively used in the mass media, hence endangering their own language and culture (Kumar Bhatt, Chapter 6 in this volume).

Finally, policies in favour of the development or conservation of minority languages may also evolve, given that language consciousness and struggles for linguistic rights are growing and that language and culture diversity is more and more regarded as a necessity to humanity as is biodiversity (Maffi, 2002).

4 Globalization and the study of foreign languages across cultures

In the relatively distant past, foreign languages were taught mainly for simpler reasons of cultural and scholarly pursuits. In the Christian world for instance, the learning of foreign languages was generally synonymous with the learning of Latin and Greek, as the knowledge of these languages was part of being educated in that culture. Firstly, the knowledge of Latin and Greek was necessary to read classical literature written in these languages, which an educated person was expected to be able to do. Secondly, it was widely believed that learning these languages was good for training the brain and for better understanding grammar, including the grammar of one's own mother tongue. However, not only were these languages long gone as national languages, the cultures they were related to have also vanished. As a result, education has emphasised mainly on reading skills in these languages, while knowledge of the target cultures meant understanding the references to these in the text. Yet, it is interesting to note that although Latin has largely disappeared as a means of communication many centuries ago, it was still used for real communication, for example, in the Diet of Hungary until the end of the 18th century (Szijártó, 2010), and by educated individuals as a *lingua franca* until much later.

The situation has changed with the advent of globalization, as there is now a greater need than ever for the study of foreign languages and cultures. A mutual effect can be observed between the teaching and learning of language and culture on one hand, and globalization on the other: globalization requires the knowledge of foreign languages and culture, while the knowledge of foreign languages and culture makes globalization possible. They seem to complement and reinforce each other. And as more and more people become pluricultural and fluent in foreign languages, the scale of globalization has also grown. This can be seen in the increase in the number of people with the chance to move around in the world, not only as tourists, but also for work, study or migratory reasons.

4.1 The dynamic relationships between different languages or cultures

The ability and spread of communication among people with different language and cultural backgrounds can seem to be either or both a blessing and a threat at the same time. If it is assumed that people actually benefit from globalization, then it seems to be a blessing, but if not, the threat of "colonization" is very real. Indeed, the double-edged character of a language that overtakes the role of the original language or languages in important situations in everyday life (education, work, entertainment, etc.) can be seen as a threat, akin to that of colonization. Within a multilingual

community, it is inevitable that one or more languages will be become the dominant language(s), reflecting the language(s) has the most power in that community. The same applies within a country where multiple languages are spoken, or among a group of different countries, or in the worldwide community for that matter. This power can be based on traditions, culture, politics, or economics, just to name the most important factors. A clear example is that of Latin, which used to be the means of communication among nations until the mid-17th century. In a way, it was a neutral language as it was not a national language of any one country. When French became the language of diplomacy during the reign of Louis XIV, Latin continued to be important to a certain extent but was gradually losing ground, especially as the language of culture and erudition. English clearly took over the role of *lingua franca* in the second half of the 20th century. While Latin and French were not used by people from all walks of life, English, however, seems to have been more "democratically" distributed among non-native speakers. Mobility in great numbers, such as tourism, has also played a great part in the spread of English, whereas tourism was "not in fashion" when Latin and French served as the *lingua franca*.

The book entitled *Linguistic Imperialism* (Phillipson, 1992) was the first one to draw attention to and to discuss systematically the effects and the way English had spread around and "taken over" the world. In fact, in the 1990s, a number of linguists (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 1998; Kachru, 1997; McArthur, 1998) discussed issues related to this topic. The main concern was that the inequality of languages and cultures would very likely result in the loss of values and languages in the case of the weaker. Globalization and its effects have been a popular topic, and the literature is abundant, including Phillipson's *Linguistic Imperialism Continued*, which was published in 2010.

And this dynamic situation continues to and will continue to evolve. While globalization and English becoming a "global" language went hand in hand for a long time, there is growing concern that globalization may have been over, and deglobalization can be expected or is already on its way. Economic and social changes have affected the spread of languages, so one might wonder whether deglobalization would have any or what kind of effect on English. Will there be another global language in the future?

4.2 Intercultural communication and the study of foreign languages and cultures

To keep up with the ever-evolving word, language educators have had to adjust their goals of teaching and learning of modern languages and culture, such that they become more geared towards intercultural communication. Globalization has led to the need for effective intercultural communication, and this has influenced the current approaches to foreign language teaching. The importance of the intercultural communicative approach in foreign language teaching cannot be understated, especially now that two people communicating with each other in a foreign language are more likely than ever to have different mother tongues and belong to different cultures. This is the case of English, as a world language, spoken by non-native speakers with each other, with neither of them belonging to the culture of the language used for the communication.

To give an example of how misunderstandings can easily arise if we neglect the intercultural aspect of communication, we consider the following daily situation between two neighbours, A and B, at least one of which speaks English as a non-native language. A sees B leaving his home and asks B "*Where are you going?*". How should B reply? Would "*It's none of your business*" be appropriate? Or "*Not very far*"? Would B tell them A where exactly he was going? Or would B find the question itself too inquisitive in the first place in English? In Japan, the polite answer would be: ちょっと そこ まで *Chotto soko made*, meaning "nowhere, really" or "just down the road". In Japanese, the question is meant as an act of politeness, to make small talk. It is not a real question and they do not expect you to answer it truthfully. If you did that, the Japanese person would just be as surprised at your answer as you might be if you hear the question in English. Unless, of course, you really want to tell them in detail and carry on chatting with them for the next 5–10 minutes.

This was just one example that shows that understanding the literal meaning of utterances in a foreign language does not mean that the non-native speaker can understand the intentions of the native speaker and can answer appropriately. Obviously, monolingual native speakers who have not been exposed to a lot of contact with non-native speakers, may be less flexible and understanding when language learners make *faux pas*, especially if they are advanced learners of the language. People get hurt much easier when social or politeness rules are broken and care less about grammar mistakes.

Pragmatic and socio-cultural knowledge is very important for learners of a foreign language if they want to be successful at communicating in that language, especially with native speakers. They need this even more if they plan to live, study or work in the target culture. Some languages —English is probably the best example— are spoken on different continents and the cultures of native speakers of English can be very different from each other. That really means that even native speakers have to learn about the cultures of other native English speakers if they want to act and communicate properly in other cultures than theirs. They should check grammatical and lexical differences, otherwise they might end up using words that would be normal in their own culture but vulgar in another. As the saying goes, "When in Rome, do as the Romans do". If one wants to communicate successfully in a foreign language, then one should speak, act, and behave in the way that everybody, including oneself, is expected to do so by and in that language community. Language is full of clichés and rituals. Knowing them can give self-insurance and reduce anxiety, as the learner does not have to invent or create an appropriate utterance on his or her own, worrying about the appropriateness. A recent publication, Szende's (2014) comprehensive book on *second culture*, as used in the title, not only discusses the theoretical issues of teaching and learning it, but gives plenty of classroom examples from a variety of languages, including Arabic, Chinese, Russian, and Hungarian.

While it is true that the more the learners know about the target language culture, the better chance they have for communicating successfully in "speaking the same language" with the native speakers, intercultural communication takes place most often between people who speak a language (say, English) as a non-native language. If this

is the case, does the knowledge of the target language culture help communication? It would if both parties possess that common pool of cultural knowledge. In fact, if the speakers are culturally very different, using English, and behaving according to the rules expected when speaking English can serve as a bridge between the different cultures. However, in real life, it is very unlikely that people who had studied the same foreign language in different faraway places would have the same cultural and pragmatic knowledge. One of the most important goals of language education should then be to raise the awareness of and respect for other cultures. Without that, no matter how many words a person knows or how correctly he can use grammar, he will not be equipped with the necessary knowledge to communicate successfully in a variety of situations with a variety of people. Flexibility, the ability to negotiate meaning, being able to adjust to different pronunciations, and sometimes a lot of patience, would be the qualities needed for effective intercultural communication.

The teaching and learning of languages across cultures is the central theme for three of the chapters in this volume, which contribute to the discussion on intercultural language teaching and learning. This is the case for Singaporean students learning Business Japanese (Walker, this volume, Chapter 7), foreign students undergoing an intercultural language course to help them assimilate into the Hungarian culture during their undergraduate programmes in Hungary (Szita, this volume, Chapter 8), and foreign students of diverse cultural background learning Mandarin Chinese in the same classroom (Lin, this volume, Chapter 9).

5 Globalization and the evolution of technology for foreign language teaching and learning

Technology has not only facilitated the growth of globalization, and also enabled new and improved approaches to the teaching and learning of foreign language and culture. The emergence of technology for foreign language teaching and learning has had a long history, and it is probably not exaggerated to say that in modern times scientific and technological inventions have typically been first used by the military. As time goes by, those innovations were gradually introduced into business companies, and finally, with a considerable delay, they trickled down into schools and family homes. Computers, which people tend to think of immediately when technology is mentioned, were no exception to this course of events. The first computers were so bulky that they filled an entire room. Running programmes required punch cards and took days to complete (McCartney, 1999). Now, we carry them in our pockets, on our wrists, and we get frustrated if running a piece of software needs more time than the split of a second. The evolution of computers took place within the span of about 60 years, which is the lifetime of a person. However, the use of technology in the classroom did not start with computers, but with audio recording and playback tools.

5.1 Pre-Internet technology for foreign language teaching and learning

Indeed, when people learn foreign languages, they usually want to use the language in all kinds of real-life situations, and that means that learners need not only reading and writing skills, which used to be the focus of classical languages like Latin

and Greek, but also speaking and listening skills as well. However, pronunciation and listening comprehension are difficult to practise with the sole use of textbooks, and without the help of a native speaker. Naturally, the first use of technology in language education was to facilitate the improvement of pronunciation and listening skills. One of the most famous companies producing wax cylinders and later records for language learners was *Linguaphone*, which was established in 1901 (Linguaphone Group, n.d.). These records were originally meant for self-study, but could also be used in classrooms. Even after the spread of tape recorders and cassette players, thin plastic records, called flexi-disc or sound sheet, fastened into a journal were a cheap and easy way of delivering sound to the audience of several language teaching related journals.

One professional publication using this method to help teachers of French as a second or foreign language was *Le Français dans le monde*. The *English Teaching Forum* also supported teachers of English outside the United States in the same way even in the 1990s. Records could also be used to teach traditional or popular songs as well, both for teaching the language *per se*, and the target culture. In addition, popular songs played an important role in raising the motivation of students. Tape and cassette recorders made it possible not only to use pre-recorded materials, but also to record students' performances, or other materials created by the teacher. The introduction of sound and the possibility to make recordings had a great effect not only on language learning, but also on language teaching: the tools that are at the disposal of the teachers will have a tremendous effect on *how* they are used, and what methodology is used in general in the classroom.

At this point, however, a very important issue should be raised. Although technological inventions may have been created and used in some countries or some institutions within a country quite early, there were huge differences in their use from country to country. Simply looking at a general historical account of technology in education may sometimes give a false impression, as individuals in different countries may have very different experiences. As an example, let us have a look at the language laboratory, which, according to Roby (2008), was first created in 1908, although "1946 is considered to mark the beginning of the modern language laboratory movement" in the USA (p. 525). Yet, there have been language learners who may never have had the chance to receive any language instruction as a learner in a language lab. In many countries, language labs have probably never even been introduced for varying reasons, one of which was financial.

Another technological innovation that has impacted language teaching and learning involves the use of television and radio to deliver educational programmes, including language courses to learners, in a relatively easy and cost-free manner. Even nowadays, in a developed country such as Japan, educational television programmes have remained very popular (Himeta & Ohki, 2014). Language learning is supported and reinforced by accompanying textbooks that can be bought in any bookshop, and nowadays even in electronic format on the TV company's website. Similarly, video players have been a big step in enabling users to stop, rewind and review recorded language learning materials. Most players were also capable of recording from the

television, such that popular TV programmes could also be recorded and used later as teaching material without any temporal or spatial constraint. For instance, *Stop, Look, Listen*, a popular programme by the Independent Television for Schools and Colleges in Britain had 10-minute episodes which were easy to understand and contained the vocabulary needed to discuss a certain topic. Besides the language content, information about British culture and everyday life could be passed on to the viewers. The website *Broadcast for Schools* (Broadcast for Schools, n.d.) gives an interesting overview of educational programmes dating all the way back to the 1920s. Although such resources are easily available, what is missing from these means of dissemination is interactivity and feedback. This was overcome with the use of portable video cameras, which allow students to develop and hone their language expression skills. Producing television news was a popular task, which made co-operation and sharing responsibilities necessary for group members, and encouraged students to meet outside of class in order to refine and practise their performance. Creating guides for visitors was also an exciting and useful task for students.

Finally, computers were probably the technological tool with the biggest impact on language teaching and learning, since it could do everything that has been mentioned above, straight from their first appearance in education, with the exception of video recording. At the very beginning, the teaching of writing seemed to be the most natural activity in a computer lab. Grammar drills became relatively popular as the students could get immediate feedback without losing face. This also meant that students could work more independently, and outside of class as well. Some specialised computer programmes could help improve pronunciation by making sound visible, which enabled users to adjust their pronunciation to the model even if they could not hear the difference in sound. Of course, language-learning games became very popular and motivating, and while CD-ROM encyclopaedias, dictionaries, and other products introducing cultural treasures became accessible to students.

5.2 Internet and the quantum leap in educational technology

Globalization would most likely never have happened so quickly without the Internet. The Internet erased borders and geographical distances or limitations. People who would never have had the chance to exchange information even once in their lifetime started communicating with each other on a regular basis. Information that would never have been available otherwise was suddenly at arm's length. Video conferencing could be included in regular classes even if time difference may have caused some difficulty. Rather than getting information from their teacher in their classroom, students could have student exchanges with other students in a different country, who would act as their own private "tutor", providing information about their everyday life, popular culture, fashion, and anything else they were interested in. Wang-Szilas, Berger and Zhang's contribution (in this volume, Chapter 10) describes such a situation.

Once computers appeared in most households, students had complete liberty about when, where, what and how they wanted to learn. Teaching philosophies and methods have also changed considerably. First of all, due to the fast pace of changes in society, schools and universities have been preparing students for ideas and activities that do not exist yet. As a result, the emphasis has shifted from learning to thinking. In the

past, students felt that their studies were going to end when they graduate from the university. Now, they realise that university just enables them to set off on the path of lifelong learning.

As we approach the present day, it becomes more and more difficult to describe changes, especially while keeping a chronological order, because there have been so many changes within a relatively short time, and many of them happening at the same time. Let us just mention the most important ones, and leave the reader to further investigate the ones they are most interested in.

Mobile technology is a relatively recent and wide-reaching technology that has changed the way of lives of people all around the world. If the Internet has enabled people to communicate using their computer in the comfort of their room, mobile phones and mobile devices have made it possible to communicate and exchange information with anyone, anywhere, and any time in the entire world. Smart phones have almost become extensions of the human hand. Obviously, education and educators need to take advantage of anything that can promote learning. For example, in the past, schools had to buy encyclopaedias and dictionaries on CD-ROMs but nowadays many of them can be accessed for free on the Internet. In many other countries around the world, students have stopped bringing their dictionaries to class, using instead their mobile phones to access the mobile or online dictionaries. Letting students use their mobile phones in class has had several benefits for the schools as well. First, there is no more need to buy expensive dictionaries in multiple copies for the library. Many universities have even created mobile-enabled websites, learning management systems or virtual learning environments in order to provide up-to-date information for the students about classes or changes in schedule, to disseminate information about entrance examinations, or to engage students in their learning outside of the classroom. Teaching materials and textbooks have also become available for tablets and mobile devices.

The general introduction of technology into education has made an impact on the way teaching and learning occurs now. The new medium requires new methodology, and new strategies. The presence of *information and communications technology* (ICT) in education together with a teacher in the flesh resulted in *blended learning.* It means that some part of the course is online, and the student has some control over the accomplishment of these online tasks. *The Handbook of Blended Learning: Global Perspectives, Local Designs* (Bonk & Graham, 2005) may be a good start to investigate this new way of teaching.

Traditional lecture-style instruction has been replaced in many universities by the *flipped classroom,* which requires students to study a given topic on their own *before* it is actually dealt with in class. Then, class time is used for discussion, clarification, and other activities. *The Handbook of Research on Active Learning and the Flipped Classroom Model in the Digital Age* (Keengwe & Onchwari, 2015) provides an overview and guidance on how to implement this new way of teaching. In the flipped classroom, most of the time, the study materials that students are required to cover before the class are available through the Internet, very often within the framework of a *learning management system* (LMS). These systems make it possible

for the teacher to gather detailed information about the students' learning process and other relevant information (Brudermann, in this volume, Chapter 11). One such popular LMS is called Moodle. However, many companies publishing textbooks also create their own learning management systems, where the content is already there for specific textbooks. This can be a strong selling point for teachers adopting those textbooks. Similarly, massive open online courses (MOOCs) have been designed to provide courses and learning material for a wide range of audiences. Many universities or groups of universities provide free courses that are available throughout the world. Some of the courses may not be free, while others may offer certificates for a fee or link to degree programmes.

With the appearance of each technological innovation, doubts have been raised about the survival of traditional teaching aids and methods. For example, when the first CD-ROMs and DVDs appeared, people started questioning the need for printed books or making films for the cinema. The appearance of Kindle and other electronic reading devices also led many to think that books would soon disappear. Some even believe that teachers can and will be replaced by machines in the classroom soon. Obviously, every piece of innovation has an overshadowing effect on its predecessor. As technological advancements follow an exponential growth curve, there have probably been more technological changes in the last 10 or 20 years than in the previous 100 years put together. Educators will have to meet future challenges and take advantage of them by welcoming and incorporating them as soon as possible into mainstream educational practices.

6 The structure of this book

The chapters collected in this book revolve around the four broad themes mentioned above, converging on the wider topic of globalization, namely:

(I) Policies in language teaching and learnin

(II) Language policy, ideology and minority languages

(III) Language teaching and learning across cultures

(IV) Language teaching and learning with technology

The first three sections of the book contain three chapters each, while the last section contains two chapters.

6.1 Globalization and policies in language teaching and learning

In Chapter 1, "Challenges facing the language education policy in Singapore", Daniel Kwang Guan Chan describes the various changes and refinement of the unique language education policy in Singapore over the past decades. Starting with a plan for a trilingual education in secondary schools in the pre-independence era, the education system then adopted an "English-knowing bilingualism" (term used by Pakir, 1997),

which involved a "Mother-Tongue Language" (MTL) requirement on top of a compulsory English language education for all. But it was not long before the forces of globalization led to a push for a development of trilingualism again, this time among only a selected group of elite secondary students that make up the top ten per cent of their cohort. As globalization continued to change the social and demographic landscape of the country, the foreign language programmes are beginning to face challenges, with an increasing number of students having to take a foreign language in lieu of a MTL, thereby raising the question of whether it is time for language education policy to be reviewed and refined further.

In Chapter 2, "Italian at the crossroad of internationalization: Language policy discourse of an expanding language", Edith Cognini contributes to the debate concerning the interplay between language education policy and the internationalization of higher education in the framework of European macro-strategies, focusing on the case of Italian as a non-native language. After discussing the reasons why Italian can be considered an expanding language in the global language market, she then analyses the promotional strategies and discourse of its recent language policy to attract foreign students to study Italian and enrol in Italian institutes of higher education. Focusing her attention on some Italian higher education programmes for international students and on a case study on the offer of Italian as a second language in a medium-sized University, she discusses the impact of these economy-driven policies and actions on a local level, presenting some of the possible risks that they may entail as far as language teaching is concerned, with regard to Chinese students in particular

In Chapter 3, "Teacher training in the area of foreign languages and cultures in the European Union: A historical perspective and review", Sophie Loumanis examines the question of education and professionalization within the member states of the European Union (EU), and across the continent as a whole, the ultimate goal being economic development for greater and sustainable competitiveness at the global scale. Initiatives have been taken by the EU for promoting exchanges and geographic mobility amongst its citizens, for the purposes of studies, work, culture and language. The multilingual and multicultural factor of the EU has led us to examine the educational and professionalization issues through the foreign language and culture (particularly English) teaching and learning entry point, and more particularly through the very foundation of the teaching and learning process, language teacher training (TT): its evolution and ideological influences in recent years, as the EU seeks to maintain its political status and economic standing. As a frame of reference, the implementation of EU educational policy is examined more concretely through English TT at the secondary level of the French public sector: through issues that beginning teachers are likely faced with in an increasingly complex profession, and possible solutions explored through research and innovative training programmes.

6.2 Language policy, ideology and minority languages

In Chapter 4, "Ideologies of value and the place of Australian indigenous languages in education", Anthony J. Liddicoat discusses language ideologies in relation to "non-dominant languages" such as the Australian indigenous languages. Focusing on the Northern Territory, where indigenous languages are more widely spoken than in most

other parts of the country, he discussed how bilingual education was first introduced in 1973 for indigenous children to be first be taught in their indigenous language before they were introduced to English as their official national language. However, with budgetary cuts and a weakened support for bilingual education, many of bilingual education programs were eventually shut down and the other programs were given lesser attention, in favour of a "English-only" education programs. Explains the reasoning behind such a policy change and how this leads to lower value attributed to other languages, Liddicoat argues that the value held in the society by languages is seen as a product of the ideology upheld by policy makers, while influencing education policy at the same time.

In Chapter 5, "The Tanzanian multilingual state: Hostility towards it and strategy to protect It", Norbert Mtavangu looks at the multilingual society of Tanzania, one of East African countries with around 150 languages, mostly from the Bantu family. English and Swahili are official languages; while Ethnic Community Languages (ECLs) do not have any specific role. Besides the natural process of language shift, the multilingual and multicultural situation is further suppressed by deliberate ideological efforts that favour the two official languages and narrow flourishing opportunities of others on basis of building national unity. The proof can be seen in general public statements and in several official documents related to national language policy. In that light, Mtavangu discloses the philosophical background and the itinerary of hostility towards multilingualism as well as the hesitations of the public domain to nurture the linguistic *status quo*. On the other hand, drawing examples from the Language of Tanzania Project (LOT) an institution which was attached to the University of Dar es Salaam, he highlights challenges that the latter faced in promoting research, publication and use of ECLs. The chapter concludes that in Tanzanian context, inculcating unity through Swahili does not logically contradict with maintaining the existing linguistic diversity.

In Chapter 6, "Garhwali, an endangered Himalayan language: Police, policies and struggle for recognition", Sunil Kumar Bhatt discusses the situation of Garhwali; a language is spoken in the Garhwali region of the Uttarakhand state in India. Although it is spoken by more than 1.5 million speakers, it does not have any official status in the Indian constitution. In 2001 census, Garhwali is listed as one of the mother tongues under Hindi. In fact, according to the UNESCO Atlas of World's Languages in Danger, Garhwali is an endangered language that belongs to the category of "vulnerable language". Kumar Bhatt questions the status of this language in the era of globalization, its endangerment, efforts and chances of its survival.

6.3 Language teaching and learning across cultures

In Chapter 7, "Project-based business Japanese curricula corresponding to the globalization of Japan", Izumi Walker describes how the course in Japanese was set up at the National University of Singapore in order to improve students' communicative skills in general, and especially in business communication. The focus of the chapter is the "Company Visit Project" that the author has integrated into the Business Japanese course curriculum. The goals, reasons and methods of the course are clearly explained, and many examples are given. Teachers in similar situations can easily fol-

low the same or similar steps presented in the chapter in order to set up a motivating project with a positive outcome for their own students.

In Chapter 8, "Integration without language skills: A utopia (promoting language learning, integration and intercultural awareness)", Szilvia Szita takes us to the University of Pécs, Hungary, where a Hungarian language course was designed for foreign students wishing to enrol into undergraduate programmes in Hungary. As their university programmes are not in Hungarian, they only need the language for everyday life situations, and for integration into their environment. The chapter describes the language course, the textbook series used in the course, the teacher's role in raising intercultural awareness, and how teachers try to build a bridge between the classroom and society through the use of guided interactions. Just like Walker's chapter, this one as well clearly shows the educational value of outside of class projects and tasks.

In Chapter 9, "Teaching in a multi-cultural classroom", Chiung Yao Lin looks at a Chinese language course at the National University of Singapore, and examines how the learning environment changes due to the presence of international or exchange students. The learning styles of the students, the skills learners with different cultural background consider important are also presented based on questionnaires. Reading examples taken straight from the answers in the questionnaire are very colourful and thought-provoking. The author makes the final evaluation easy for the readers by providing clear answers to the five original research questions.

6.4 Language teaching and learning with technology

In Chapter 10, "Issues on integrating eTandem Learning in foreign language curriculum", Jue Wang-Szilas, Claudia Berger and Ling Zhang describes the use of technology in a project where students in three countries, Switzerland, France and China were involved in online learning. The chapter focuses on the potentials, especially on the improvement of the intercultural communicative competence and autonomous learning. Moodle was used as the learning environment. The chapter does not only describe the project in detail but also provides a brief theoretical background to the project.

In Chapter 11, "Large-scale individual ESP instruction: Interim report on ICT-based practice", Cédric Brudermann discusses the use of an online learning system, which was essential in providing individualized instruction and feedback to undergraduate students who were required to reach the B1 level in English according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) (Council of Europe, 2001). The results of the study show that regular autonomous learners were more likely to reach their goals than students who only had traditional classroom instruction.

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