SPEAKING FOR EXCELLENCE:

LANGUAGE COMPETENCIES FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING PRACTICE

Canada

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Council of Ministers of Education, Canada

Conseil des ministres de l'Éducation (Canada)

Speaking for Excellence: Language Competencies for Effective Teaching Practice

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INTRODUCTION

Language Competencies for Effective Teaching Practice

The Registrars for Teacher Certification Canada, working under the auspices of the Council of Ministers of Education, Canada (CMEC) and with support from Human Resources and Skills Development Canada (HRSDC), are developing tools to assess the language competencies of internationally educated candidates who cannot provide evidence of having completed an acceptable teacher-education program delivered in English or French.

Literature Review

As a first step toward developing a framework for teacher language competencies and benchmarks upon which an assessment can be developed, a literature review was conducted to address the following question: *What are the language competencies that K to 12 teachers in English-first-language and French-first-language schools in Canada require for effective professional practice?*

The review of the literature indicates that teachers require a broad and diverse set of language competencies to be successful in their professional practice. Teachers in English-first-language and French-first-language contexts require the same set of competencies, but the realities of different linguistic contexts can place different demands on teachers' language competencies.

Teachers need subject-specific and curricular knowledge, pedagogical and classroom management skills, and contextual awareness and understanding of their students. In the classroom, teachers use language both as a medium for and object of instruction. They require language skills that include knowledge of the structures and functions of language, as well as fluency (in speaking, writing, listening, and reading), and the ability to teach these same skills to their students. Teachers must be able to modulate their use of language to accommodate the diverse levels of language proficiency their students bring to the classroom.

Teachers require a good command of two language registers: the formal academic language of schooling and informal language that allows for effective communication and personal connections with students, parents, and colleagues. Teachers must also have mastery of the four language modalities: speaking, reading, writing, and listening.

Teachers play many different roles within and outside of the classroom. Their roles in the classroom include instructor, evaluator, manager, communicator, and model of academic language and culture. Outside of the classroom, they communicate with parents and members of a professional community. Each role and situation requires a different set of language competencies.

This review of the language competencies required of teachers for effective professional practice reveals that teachers' language competencies are diverse and extensive. The competencies identified in the literature helped inform the development of the framework for language competencies and benchmarks.

A Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks for the Teaching Profession

The development of the language competencies framework was informed by the literature review and the Canadian Language Benchmarks. The language competencies are a set of statements describing linguistic abilities in English or French in each of four modalities: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The benchmarks define three levels of proficiency: Level 1, Level 2, and Level 3.

The framework describes competencies for each language modality and, for each competency, specifies a set of performance outcomes for each of the three domains of practice: instructing and assessing, managing the classroom and student behaviour, and communicating with parents and other professionals. For example, the first competency in the writing modality is: *Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.* The associated performance outcomes in each domain of practice include:

- **Instructing and assessing:** *Write lesson plans, course outlines, course descriptions, handouts and/or teaching materials.*
- **Managing the classroom and student behaviour:** *Write summaries of classroom expectations and goals.*
- **Communicating with parents and other professionals:** *Write e-mails (with or without attached documents), letters, or reports to other professionals using technical or non-technical language.*

The framework will ultimately form the basis for the development of teaching-specific language proficiency assessment tools. In particular, the tools will assess individual performance outcomes in each of the language domains and across each of the domains of practice.

Review of the Literature

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON THE LANGUAGE COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR TEACHING IN ENGLISH OR FRENCH IN CANADA

As a first step toward developing a framework for teacher language competencies and benchmarks upon which an assessment can be developed, a literature review was conducted to address the following question: *What are the language competencies that K to 12 teachers in English-first-language and French-first-language schools in Canada require for effective professional practice?*

This review encompasses literature in both English and French and addresses the competencies required of Kindergarten to Grade 12 teachers working in both English-first-language and French-first-language school systems. It also addresses the competencies required of teachers working in majority-language (i.e., French in Quebec, English outside Quebec) and minority-language contexts (i.e., French outside Quebec, English in Quebec).

The review begins with some contextualizing comments describing the importance of language competencies in teachers' professional practice. As this review covers the literature written in both English and French, the subsequent section focuses on the importance of language competencies as they relate, in particular, to teachers working in French-first-language contexts. The remainder of the literature review is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of language use in the classroom. The second and third sections describe language competencies in more detail: the second section describes effective instructional strategies and the language competencies these require, and the third section describes different types of instructional language and the language competencies these require.

Why Teachers' Linguistic Competence Matters

Language is a critical and pervasive component of pedagogical practice. Every aspect of a teacher's work — from establishing the social and disciplinary climate of the classroom to communicating the intricate details of complex concepts — relies on the effective use of language (Mariage, Englert, & Garmon, 2000).

Teacher quality is one of the key factors that influence student achievement (Hattie, 2009), and teacher characteristics have a much larger effect on student achievement than other factors such as class size or class composition (Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2001; Sanders & Horn, 1994; Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Teacher effects are both additive and cumulative (Sanders & Rivers, 1996). While the effects of quality teaching are strong and beneficial, the effects of poor teacher quality tend to persist for years, and there is little evidence of compensatory effects of more effective teachers in subsequent years.

There are several different teacher effects that contribute to quality teaching, such as subject-matter knowledge and knowledge about teaching (Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000; Monk & King, 1994), general cognitive abilities (Darling-Hammond & Youngs, 2002; Ehrenberg & Brewer, 1995; Ferguson, 1991; Ferguson & Ladd, 1996), and relevant experience (Hanushek, 1992), but language proficiency is among the most important teacher characteristics contributing to quality teaching. There is consistent evidence connecting teachers' verbal abilities and student achievement (e.g., Ehrenberg & Brewer, 1995; Hanushek, 1992). Teacher oral language proficiency, for example, predicts student outcomes in letter naming, word reading, and phonological awareness (Cirino, Pollard-Durodola, Foorman, Carlson, & Francis, 2007). While good to excellent teachers tend to have above-average verbal skills, weaker teachers tend to have less well-developed verbal skills (Andrew, Cobb, & Giampietro, 2005).

Teachers' positive interactions with their students also contribute to quality teaching and student achievement (e.g., Birch & Ladd, 1998; Muller, 2001; Rowan, Chiang, & Miller, 1997). Positive interactions between teachers and students have both direct and indirect effects on academic performance by, for example, influencing student engagement and interest in learning (e.g., Crosnoe, Johnson, & Elder, 2004; Esposito, 1999). Fostering positive interactions with students requires excellent communication skills and competent use of language on the part of teachers.

In short, teacher language proficiency is a key contributor to student success. For teachers whose prior preparation has not been in English or French, it is critical to ensure full language proficiency in the language of instruction. The literature reviewed in the sections that follow provides a basis for specifying the language competencies required by linguistically proficient teachers in Kindergarten to Grade 12 classrooms in Canada.

Teaching in French-First-Language Contexts

In Canada, teaching in French as a first language settings is associated with a number of concerns and presents challenges that reflect the unique situation of the French language in the Canadian context (Martinet, Raymond, & Gauthier, 2001). Obviously, French is the language of the majority in Quebec and, as such, benefits from a privileged status in that province. Nonetheless, as noted in the seminal report of the *Commission des États généraux sur la situation et l'avenir de la langue française au Québec* (2001), the need to protect and promote the French language remains an ongoing concern, as are the challenges associated with the integration of new immigrants.

The aforementioned report, commonly known as the *Rapport Larose* (2001), offers a positive vision for the future of French in Quebec and identifies the school system as playing a pivotally important role in the realization of this vision:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **The promotion and influence of French, much like the ease with which it can name the modern world, rely on the ability of Quebec society to master this language, offered as a gift to all those who elect to reside within its territory.**
>
> COMMISSION DES ÉTATS GÉNÉRAUX SUR LA SITUATION ET L'AVENIR DE LA LANGUE FRANÇAISE AU QUÉBEC, 2001, p. 5

Specifically, the Rapport Larose identifies schools as the *[TRANSLATION]* "principal loci of reflection on language, [tasked] with ensuring its oral and written mastery." In fact, the report emphasizes the role of teachers' language mastery and advanced linguistic competencies as central determinants of an education system's ability to: meet the needs of parents, youth, and adults within a community; ensure effective instruction in French; promote the francisation of new immigrants; and integrate and support those with limited literacy skills, those who have left school, and those whose aspirations for educational achievement and societal participation would otherwise be compromised.

Education in francophone settings in Canada reflects the social, historical, political, and demographic conditions of French Canada. As noted in the Rapport Larose:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **The school is at the centre of knowledge transmission, of the discovery and understanding of the world in which one lives, and of learning about civic and community life. This speaks to the pivotal role of both English- and French-language educational establishments [emphasis added], from elementary to university, in the education of citizens and the eventual development of mastery of French, Quebec's official language. The school must become a place of extraordinary and rigorous discovery that nurtures curiosity, the desire to learn, and the ambition to penetrate all spheres of social, economic, scientific and cultural life through the written and spoken use of an attractive, vibrant, and creative language renowned for its quality. Mastering a language requires intimate knowledge of both its whims and its greatness. It is through a thorough understanding of its code and involvement in the cultural environment that sustains it that we understand its history, its value and its symbols.**
>
> COMMISSION DES ÉTATS GÉNÉRAUX SUR LA SITUATION ET L'AVENIR DE LA LANGUE FRANÇAISE AU QUÉBEC, 2001, p. 37, ITALIQUES AJOUTÉS

It is therefore important to maintain an awareness of the aspects of education that are uniquely influenced by the conditions specific to French-first-language communities and schools. This can be particularly true for schools located in francophone minority settings where, as discussed later in this report, the challenge all too often remains that of ensuring the linguistic vitality of the French language.[1]

We recognize the importance of the considerable challenges specific to French-first-language communities and schools. In reviewing the literature on the language competencies required of teachers, we were particularly attentive to the possibility that teachers working in French-first-language contexts might require a different set of language competencies than teachers working in English-first-language contexts. The literature suggests that context does, indeed, matter — to the extent that teachers in different linguistic contexts often rely more strongly on different aspects of their linguistic skill set. This skill set — or set of language competencies — does not, however, appear to differ significantly across linguistic contexts. For example, as discussed below, teachers

[1] *"Linguistic vitality" is an encompassing notion, the significance of which can vary in accordance with the indicators used to measure it. At its most basic level, linguistic vitality refers to the number of speakers of a language within a definable geographical entity. Linguistic vitality is also often measured in terms of the level of legal protection or the legal status afforded to a language. More broadly, linguistic vitality refers to the "power of attraction" held by a language, particularly when it has minority status. In this context, the power of attraction of a language refers to the extent to which individuals who indicate they speak it (sometimes with varying degrees of fluency and ease) are motivated to learn and to use it, as are those speakers of one or more other languages with which the minority language coexists. Finally, linguistic vitality refers to a language's "resiliency" or "persistence," particularly when in contact with other languages. In this report, the notion of "linguistic vitality" encompasses all these dimensions, notwithstanding the status of French as one of Canada's two official languages and the legal protection that is thereby conferred upon it.*

are called upon to fulfill many different roles, one of which is to act as models of academic language and culture. The specific details of linguistic and cultural modelling will obviously differ across English-first-language and French-first-language contexts, but the required competencies are the same. Commanding a wide-ranging vocabulary of academic terms is one of these competencies — the specific terms contained in the vocabulary are different, but the competency is the same in both linguistic contexts. The extent to which and the intensity with which teachers are called upon to fulfill this role may also differ across linguistic contexts. Given the need to support the linguistic vitality of the French language, teachers in French-first-language settings may feel a greater urgency attached to their role as linguistic models. Nonetheless, teachers in English-first-language contexts are also called upon to fulfill that same role.

The discussion that follows deals with two prominent sets of issues gleaned from the literature on teaching in French in Canada. The first set of issues concerns the common challenges associated with teaching in French in Canada, while the second set deals specifically with teaching in francophone minority settings. The discussion around the first set of issues also provides an overview of the different visions of teachers as language models proposed in the literature, visions that reflect, in turn, the major challenges of providing instruction in French in Canada. The discussion provided next is not exhaustive but, rather, is intended to contextualize the various language competencies specific to the teaching profession discussed later in this report in accordance with the realities and challenges of teaching in Canada.

Teaching in French: Some Common Challenges

The literature identifies the quality of the language used and mastered by teachers (Blain & Lafontaine, 2010; Ouellon, 2007; Ouellon & Dolbec, 1999; Préfontaine, Lebrun, & Nachbauer, 2000), as well as the role of language as a tool of cultural transmission, or "cultural vector" (Duchesne, 2010; Lafontaine, 2006; Lebrun & Préfontaine, 1999), as two key aspects of teaching in French in Canada. A number of sources deal specifically with the importance of teachers having advanced language skills (Armand, 2009; Ostiguy, Champagne, Gervais, & Lebrun, 2005) in order to teach effectively (Richard & Dezutter, 2006) and of the requirement, shared by all teachers and regardless of the subject being taught, to foster proper language use (Chartrand, 2007). For example, Dulude (1996) suggests effective teaching requires that teachers be able to:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **teach [students] to question, to develop hypotheses, to collect and organize data that allows for the testing of these hypotheses, to compare, to analyze and interpret facts, to assess the value of an argument, and to develop generalizations.**
>
> p. 42

Effective teaching and learning therefore require a careful and appropriate use of language by both the student and the teacher, who acts as a learning guide and model (Blaser, 2008).

Echoing a number of authors whose work we reviewed, Lebrun (2008a) goes even further in arguing for the pivotal importance of teachers' language mastery by relating it to the socioconstructivist notion that learning and teaching take place through a co-construction of knowledge between teachers and learners supported through linguistic exchanges (Aubé, 2004). These exchanges, described by Leclerq (2000) as pedagogical communication modalities, are distinguished by their reliance and focus on transmissive, constructivist, or dialogical communication. These considerations, while primarily theoretical, further speak to the complex and variable nature of language use in teaching.

The importance of language skills for teaching is also formally recognized by governments and decision makers in francophone settings, as reflected in the survey of competencies required for teaching described in the document *La formation à l'enseignement : les orientations, les compétences professionnelles* (Martinet et al., 2001), undertaken for the ministère de l'Éducation, des Loisirs et du Sport du Québec. Specifically, this document identifies one of the primary skills required for teaching as the ability to:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **communicate clearly and correctly in the language of instruction, both orally and in print, in the different practice contexts associated with the teaching profession.**

The document further identifies the components of this competency as comprising the ability by teachers to:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **(a) use an oral language register that is appropriate to their interactions with students, parents and peers; (b) respect the rules of written language in the materials they prepare for students, parents, and peers; (c) express a position, support their opinions and present arguments in a coherent, effective, constructive and respectful manner during exchanges; (d) communicate their ideas in a rigorous manner using accurate terminology and correct syntax; (e) correct students' errors in their oral and written productions; and (f) seek to continually improve on their own oral and written expression.**
>
> (MARTINET ET AL., 2001)

In addition to the quality of language use, the second major issue identified in the literature on teaching in French in Canada refers to the notion of language as a cultural vector or as a tool of cultural transmission. This notion is, moreover, particularly significant both in Quebec and in minority-language settings elsewhere in the country. As is the case in the rest of Canada, Quebec relies on immigration as an important source of population growth and renewal. Provincial immigration data suggest, for example, that Quebec received 53,985 immigrants in 2010, a figure similar to the number of immigrants welcomed in 2009 (49,489) and 2008 (45,264).[2] While Quebec has been granted the right to set specific priorities and controls over immigration in order to promote the use and adoption of French as principal language of communication, 20.4 per cent of those who immigrated to Quebec in 2010 indicated having no knowledge of either English or French, and 14.5 per cent indicated knowing only English. It is, therefore, not surprising that many Quebec students do not have French as a first language. In fact, according to McAndrew et al. (2009), 34 per cent of students attending French-first-language schools in Montreal speak French as a second language. Furthermore, as noted by Cormier, Pruneau, and Rivard (2010):

[2] This data is drawn from Quebec's statistical bulletins on permanent immigration for 2008–2010. The source documents can be accessed at http://www.micc.gouv.qc.ca/fr/recherches-statistiques/stats-immigration-recente.html.

> *[TRANSLATION]* **Given that language carries with it notions of identity … students from language backgrounds come to school accustomed to modes of communication [register, vernacular] that, in some cases, may vary considerably from the language register of the school environment or even be the register specific to another language (English, Arabic, etc.).**

Although essential, teachers' mastery of the language of instruction is therefore not the only factor that influences student learning; language as a cultural vector and the role of the teacher as an agent of cultural transmission are also important in understanding the particular relevance of language competencies for teaching. Even if fluent in French, immigrant students in French-first-language schools often bring with them a cultural heritage that differs considerably from that of francophone students born in Quebec and Canada. For example, more than 60 per cent of immigrants received by Quebec in 2010 declared that they were from an African or Asian country.

Given their role as agents of cultural transmission, teachers are at the forefront of efforts toward the development of a common culture in settings, such as Quebec, where the integration of immigrants relies on an intercultural approach (Nugent, 2006). Fulfilling this responsibility, in turn, requires that teachers have access to a wide array of cultural referents (e.g., theatre, opera, poetry, film, music, and literature; see Mottet & Gervais, 2007), that they be able to relate to and establish links with different cultures and traditions, and that they possess the language skills required for cultural exchange with their students.

In contrast, schools established in minority-language environments often represent the only setting in which students have the opportunity to communicate regularly in French. In such environments, schools also offer students the opportunity to develop and maintain a sense of francophone identity. To do this successfully, learners from minority-language settings must develop a *[TRANSLATION]* "positive relationship with the language while seeking to optimize opportunities for French-language production and exposure and fostering active enculturation" (Cormier, 2005). These circumstances further underscore the role of teachers as language and cultural models who stimulate the development by students of a positive sense of francophone identity.

The literature we reviewed suggests it is through the various responsibilities and roles assigned to them (e.g., see Lafontaine, 2006; Plessis-Bélair, 2008; Tamse, 2001) that teachers act as agents of cultural transmission and promote the acquisition of language as a cultural vector. According to Tamse (2001), when taking on the role of agent of cultural transmission, the teacher becomes a coach *[TRANSLATION]* "who supports learners in their individual and collective reflections and inquiries." This notion is also echoed by Lafontaine (2006), who suggests that:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **Regardless of the subject matter taught, the teacher is an agent of cultural transmission and, as such, heir, critic, and interpreter of cultural objects and knowledge, and of language in particular, which represents the means through which knowledge is transmitted in class and which is indistinguishable from his or her mastery [of teaching] and of various modes of communication.**

The literature reviewed clearly reflects a persistent preoccupation with these issues. It also yields two distinct conceptualizations of the roles and responsibilities of teachers with respect to teaching French and teaching in French, and of the related language skills teachers must possess. The first conceptualization reflects an ongoing concern with the quality of French (e.g., Harel, 1996; Paquot, 2001). This concern extends to the quality of both oral and written French used by francophone students in Canada and, in particular, in Quebec. It generally leads to a vision of the teacher as a model of language use who must possess in-depth knowledge of the rules and "mechanics" of language use. Such a vision tends to define the language skills of teachers in terms of the disciplinary knowledge they require to teach the language and to use it appropriately. As noted by Pilote (2008), this emphasis on appropriate use requires mastery of grammar and meaning and the capacity to produce a text (or to present arguments) coherently, to correctly construct sentences, and to spell accurately.

The emphasis on the quality of teachers' language further comprises care in the selection of registers required by different communication and learning situations (Dulude, 1996; Lebrun, 2008b; Paquot, 2001). This, according to Mottet and Gervais (2007), requires that teachers have considerable knowledge of the differences between standard or formal French and French that is more familiar or colloquial, as well as worldwide francophone cultural production in general and local francophone culture in particular. In addition, it requires that they be able to identify and recognize the language registers, the social norms and codes, and the communication situations requiring a familiar or a more formal use of language. As observed by Harel (1996, when referring to Sallenave, 1995):

> *[TRANSLATION]* **Whether at school or at home, to tolerate or, even worse, to unconsciously promote the inappropriate use of language in children represents a crime against the intellect: the gradual slide toward incorrect or unaccepted forms of language use — even assuming they will one day be accepted — furthers the deprivation of those whose access to language is otherwise limited and excludes them from access to alternative forms of expression, of thinking, and of logic when they most require them.**

The first conceptualization identified in the literature, therefore, confers upon teachers the role of *language model and technical master* principally with respect to the rules of language usage, grammar, syntax, and spelling. Without necessarily favouring a particular pedagogical approach, this conceptualization tends to define the responsibilities of teachers working in francophone settings in terms of the technical aspects of language use and presupposes advanced language mastery on the part of teachers.

The establishment of the *Test de certification en français écrit pour l'enseignement (TECFÉE)* in Quebec reflects this preoccupation with language quality and the resulting notion of teachers as language models and technical masters. The implementation of TECFÉE, in fact, stemmed from one of the principal recommendations of the Rapport Larose, mentioned earlier, and of the policy on language in teacher-education programs adopted in 2005 by the *Association des doyens, doyennes et directeurs, directrices pour l'étude et la recherche en éducation au Québec (ADEREQ)*. Quebec universities created *TECFÉE* in order to standardize the measures used to evaluate French language mastery by students completing teacher-education programs.

Successful completion of *TECFÉE* is now required for teacher certification in Quebec. *TECFÉE* is the only test currently recognized in Quebec to evaluate the mastery of written French by students completing undergraduate teacher-education programs or those in qualifying master's programs. The test is administered by the universities and features two main sections: a test evaluating mastery of the linguistic code through multiple choice questions on grammar, morphology, syntax, punctuation, spelling, and vocabulary usage; and a written essay. Since 2006, students enrolled in undergraduate teacher-education programs must pass *TECFÉE* before beginning their third practicum and achieve a minimum grade of 70 per cent in each of the two sections. Teachers trained outside Quebec in a language other than French and who cannot demonstrate their mastery of this language are also required to pass *TECFÉE*.

The second conceptualization of the role of teachers gleaned from the literature reflects the fundamental preoccupation with identity associated with French language learning and development in Canada (Aubé, 2004). Overall, the literature that reflects this conceptualization introduces an additional, more complex and more encompassing notion of language competency in teachers than that which is adopted by the first perspective described above. This literature, in fact, repeatedly raises questions about the distinct character of Quebec and Canadian French, of what French spoken and written in Canada should be in order to promote the distinct cultural identity of those who use it (Mottet, 2009), and about the role of teachers as *cultural models* for students.

This second conceptualization differs from the first in terms of how it views language competency as extending beyond technical knowledge and mastery of the language to a view of language as a tool and engine of linguistic and cultural vitality for different groups of learners. Stemming from this conceptualization is the notion of language competency as encompassing, in addition to the technical and disciplinary mastery discussed previously, access to and the knowledge and use of cultural products and referents specific to the francophone setting in which teaching occurs. Viewed from this perspective, language competency presupposes the capacity of teachers to be cultured language mediators and trainers for their students; to help students familiarize themselves with the various registers appropriate to different communication situations or suited to the communicational style of each subject area; and to value learners' cultural and linguistic traditions. As argued by Mottet and Gervais (2007):

> *[TRANSLATION]* **Cultured teachers … organize their discourse by appropriately identifying their topic and by adapting it to their audience and intended message. Paying careful attention to their audience and to the nature of the arguments they wish to present, cultured teachers carefully select the tone, speed, volume, and rhythm of their voice. Attitude, posture, gestures, and gaze contribute to the quality of their interactions with their audience. True linguistic chameleons (Corbeil, 1993), they easily adapt their spoken language to different communication situations. In listening to the discourse of those with whom they interact, they can distinguish common spoken-language patterns as well as socially acceptable or rejected variations.**

Although the preoccupation with identity is not reflected to the same degree in the literature specific to teachers in anglophone settings, similar expectations exist in those contexts. Teachers are expected to model appropriate use of language and to participate in the academic acculturation of students (Bowers, Fitts, Quirk, & Jung, 2010).

Teaching in Francophone Minority Settings

> *[TRANSLATION]* **The demographic challenges faced by francophone communities that live in minority- language settings confer added responsibilities and a broader mission upon the school system. These communities, dispersed and often isolated across the vast expanse of the Canadian territory, are subject to the influence of the majority culture and language (Cormier, 2005). In addition, these communities must deal with the effects of individuals marrying outside of their linguistic community and of low birth rates, both of which contribute to a reduction in the rate of linguistic reproduction of francophone populations in minority settings (Landry & Allard, 1997). These observations in fact lead Landry and Rousselle, as cited in Cormier (2005), to lament the "alarming degree of linguistic assimilation and progressive erosion of [francophone] communities [in minority settings]."**
>
> CONSEIL DES MINISTRES DE L'ÉDUCATION (CANADA), 2008

As suggested by the preceding quote, teachers who work in minority francophone settings are often confronted with specific circumstances that require advanced language competencies. Teaching in minority-language settings comes with its own set of challenges, including the lack of sufficient pedagogical resources and material suitable for the needs of the community, the growing demand for francisation (or language upgrading) services, as well as immigration into communities whose own sense of cultural and linguistic identity is often fragile [Conseil des ministres de l'Éducation (Canada), 2008]. Two additional issues are particularly relevant to a discussion of the importance of teachers' language competencies: the language skills of students and the invasive presence of English in schools and communities (e.g., see Lajoie & Masny, 1994).

In minority-language settings, French is not necessarily the language first spoken or understood and still used by francophone students. Only 37 per cent of francophone students residing in minority-language settings in Canada are from families in which both parents speak French (Government of Canada, 2003). Less than 15 per cent of families in which only one parent speaks French indicate that French is the principal language of communication at home (Landry, 2003). As a result, a number of francophone students residing in minority-language settings do not develop the language skills required for effective learning [Conseil des ministres de l'Éducation (Canada), 2008; Gilbert, LeTouzé, Thériault, & Landry, 2004]. A number of minority francophone communities are also too small to offer residents French-language services, for example in libraries or community centres (Ontario Ministry of Education, 2003), thereby making schools the only institution where students can immerse themselves fully in a francophone environment (Landry, Allard, & Deveau, 2007). Given such circumstances, it is not surprising that students from minority-language settings often experience difficulty mastering "the language of school," a French they perceive as decontextualized and as bearing little resemblance to the language spoken in other environments and contexts to which they are exposed (Cormier et al., 2010; cited in Cummins, 2000).

This underscores how important it is for teachers working in minority-language settings to modulate their discourse in accordance with their students' varying levels of language mastery (Faltis, Arias, & Ramirez-Marin, 2010) in classrooms that can include a range of students, from those with limited French fluency to those with full fluency (Coghlan & Thériault, 2002). It also points to the importance of teachers' role as model of academic language and culture. In minority-language settings, this role may be particularly challenging.

Students in minority-language settings can suffer from linguistic insecurity and feel uncertain about their francophone identity (Allard, Landry, & Deveau, 2005; Gilbert et al., 2004). Many, in fact, attribute the persistent use of English, frequently the dominant language, by students attending French-first-language schools to this feeling of insecurity, coupled with a preference for English by students for communicating with their peers. Thus, in addition to teaching students whose mastery of French may vary considerably, teachers who work in minority-language settings must also find the means of encouraging students to overcome their insecurity with respect to language and identity and to use their language with pride and confidence, regardless of their level of mastery (Cormier, 2005); take into consideration assimilation pressures and that students are exposed to two languages that do not occupy the same space or hold the same "identity appeal"; propose learning situations that call upon all language functions; and create the opportunity for students to develop a positive relationship with the French language and a sense of cultural identity [Conseil des ministres de l'Éducation (Canada), 2003].

Under such circumstances, teachers become the principal models of spoken and written language and must, therefore, possess the skills required to fulfill this responsibility. They play a pivotal role in the fulfillment of the identity-construction mandate that is at the heart of the activities of schools operating in francophone minority settings. They are also often called upon to raise student awareness of the dominance of English and of the dangers of linguistic and cultural assimilation.

In developing a framework of the language competencies required by teachers, it is therefore important to include competencies such as modelling correct language use and providing feedback (in a variety of forms) to students on their own use of language in such a framework. Similarly, in order to be considered valid for teachers working in minority-language settings, any assessment of teacher language proficiency must assess those types of language competencies that pertain to linguistic modelling and providing student feedback.

The following sections provide an analysis of the literature published in English and French on the language capacities that teachers in English-first-language and French-first-language contexts require in order to successfully fulfill their responsibilities. In reviewing this literature, we have been attentive to the previously discussed issues of linguistic context.

AN OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE IN THE CLASSROOM

In summarizing the literature on the language competencies required of teachers for effective professional practice, it is useful to begin with an overview of language in the classroom. This overview begins with a brief summary of the general types of competencies required by the teaching profession. This is followed by a discussion of the types of language teachers use. The section concludes with a description of the various roles fulfilled by teachers and the language competencies associated with these roles.

General Competencies of Teachers

In their classroom practice, teachers need subject-specific and curricular knowledge, pedagogical and classroom-management skills, contextual awareness, and an understanding of their students (e.g., Andrew et al., 2005; Andrews, 2003a, 2003b; Çakır & Alici, 2009; Elder, 2001; Hill, Rowan, & Ball, 2005; Troudi, 2005). All require the use of language, placing language proficiency among the most important elements in a teacher's professional repertoire.

In order to be effective, teachers must possess, along with the disciplinary knowledge required to teach the curriculum, the same language competencies they seek to develop in their students and the procedural and pedagogical competencies required to teach and to support the development of language skills (Laplante, 2000; Mottet, 2009; Paradis, 2004). Teachers use language both as a medium for and object of instruction. They require complex language skills encompassing all aspects of language required in the ordinary course of communicating with others, as well as a range of specialized skills (Elder, 2001). These skills include sound knowledge of the structures and functions of language, as well as the fluency required for the effective delivery of content material (Elder, 2001).

Teachers are often faced with the task of teaching diverse groups of students with different levels of skills and various cultural, socioeconomic and linguistic backgrounds. This diversity puts extra demands on the language competencies of teachers (den Brok, van Eerde, & Hajer, 2010). Teachers need to modulate their use of language to accommodate the diverse levels of language proficiency their students bring to the classroom (Faltis et al., 2010). To provide these students with meaningful learning experiences and to enhance their academic achievement and success in school, teachers also need to take into account and appreciate cultural and linguistic diversity in their classrooms (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

To achieve communicative competence, teachers need different types of language skills. They need to know and use appropriate language structures and forms; they need to understand the social meaning of their utterances; they need to understand how to interpret verbal and written communication in a larger context; and they need to be able to use various verbal and non-verbal communication strategies when there are barriers to, or a breakdown in, communication.

Types of Language Used by Teachers

The use of language and the meaning of language interactions depend on the context and purpose of communications as well as the roles and relationships among the participants. For teachers, full linguistic competence requires the ability to make appropriate use of a variety of language forms (ranging from formal to informal) across the four language modalities: reading, writing, speaking, and listening.

Language Forms

Teachers use formal language patterns and terms that are valued in school settings. These expand the meanings of familiar words and provide access to abstract ideas and complex concepts (Zwiers, 2007). Teachers introduce students to the formal language of schooling and help students acquire the language necessary for academic success (Bowers, Fitts, Quirk, & Jung, 2010). In both English-first-language and French-first-language contexts, this involves introducing students to an unfamiliar language register, modelling the appropriate use of that register, and providing feedback regarding student use of the formal register.

Teachers introduce students to **formal** academic language through modelling, presentations, and demonstrations that illustrate the vocabulary, language structures, rules of interaction, and ways of acting, thinking, and communicating in formal learning contexts. Teachers use academic idioms to facilitate activities and describe procedures, tasks, and cognitive processes. The idiomatic expressions used by teachers are many and varied, including "so, it all boils down to," "that answer doesn't hold water," "that's a thin argument," "that's a keen insight," "that's the crux of the matter," "now you're on the right track," "dissect the article," "support your argument," and "from the point of view of …" (Zwiers, 2007).

Teachers also require fluent **informal** language and literacy skills so they can communicate effectively and make personal connections with students and with parents, colleagues, and community members outside the classroom (Macken-Horarik, Devereux, Trimingham-Jack, & Wilson, 2006). For example, teachers are expected to communicate information about student programs and curricula to parents, which might be done in the form of parent-teacher meetings, letters, brochures, or other forms of communication in which information is expressed in informal language.

Language Modalities

Teachers must be fluent in the four language modalities: reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

Among the four language modalities discussed in the literature reviewed, **speaking** (oral communication) receives the most attention. Speaking is identified as the language modality most frequently used by teachers, who must master various speech registers, including formal and informal styles of speech (Lebrun, 2008b). They must be able to use language to *[TRANSLATION]* "present facts, explain, analyze, summarize, ask questions, give instructions, reformulate and restate, convince, etc." (Richard & Dezutter, 2006, p. 84).

To be effective speakers, teachers need to speak fluently; accurately pronounce words; produce speech at rates appropriate for classroom interaction; use stress, articulation, and tone of voice appropriate for the situation; use idiomatic expressions appropriately; incorporate the correct language structures; and use both formal and informal language (Bowers et al., 2010; Çakır & Alici, 2009; Coniam & Falvey, 2002; Sanger, Deschene, Stokely, & Belau, 2007; Viete, 1998). Teachers also use rhetorical signalling devices and simplification strategies to communicate specialized knowledge and render it comprehensible to learners (Elder, 2001).

In the context of class discussions, teachers need to be able to elaborate on the contribution of others, signal opinions, impart information or change focus, and express and defend their own opinions (Viete, 1998). When moderating class discussions, teachers use language in a variety of ways to keep the discussion focused on the topic at hand (e.g., repetition or reformulation of ideas) and to make sure all students participate (e.g., directly calling on individual students) (Mariage et al., 2000; O'Connor & Michaels, 1993; Tannen, 1989).

Teachers who work with students with disabilities, second-language students, or students with little exposure to the language of instruction outside school (e.g., in minority-language contexts) often need to modify their language use to take into account student skill level, knowledge, and prior experiences. In these classes, teachers are more likely to use procedural directives, pauses, paraphrasing, repetition, decompositions, rhetorical signalling, reduced rate of speech, and clear articulation (Elder, 2003). They often simplify vocabulary and syntax, restate messages as needed, and split the message or information into easily associated categories (Robinson & Smith, 1981).

A number of the sources we reviewed identified language competencies, sometimes with great precision, and performance indicators specific to the use of oral language by teachers. They also suggested that appropriate use of oral language by teachers includes accepting and integrating into their practice their role as models of language use (Armand, 2009; Dulude, 1996; Gervais, 2000; Harel, 1996; Lafontaine, 2004; Mottet & Gervais, 2007). Furthermore, they suggested teachers' effective use of spoken language requires the following:

- knowledge and appropriate usage of the language, such as the proper use of pronouns and the construction of plural forms (Harel, 1996);
- knowledge of the appropriate modes of address to be used with students (Duchesne, 2010) and other individuals (Beaudoin & Giasson, 1997);
- use of oral language to promote the comparison, sharing, and clarification of concepts and notions (Cormier et al., 2010; Dulude, 1994);
- identification, modulation, and adjustment of speech according to the elements of an oral communication situation (Lafontaine, 2000; Sarrasin, 1984);
- ability to provide a clear and economical explanation of their own knowledge and ideas (Dulude, 1996);
- timely and strategic use of oral language for classroom and student behaviour management (Liva, 1995; Mottet & Gervais, 2007);
- ability to distinguish between explanation, argumentation, interaction, correction, refutation, and feedback and to use them appropriately (Lebrun, 2008a; Leboulanger, 2004);
- emphasis on questioning as a tool of communication and as a tool of reflexive communicational practice (Lafontaine, 2006; Lafontaine & Marcotte, 2001-2002; Plessis-Bélair, 2008; Vanhulle, 1999);
- use of vocabulary suited to different communication situations, and use of appropriately lengthy and complex sentences with suitable prosody (Armand, 2009; Lebrun, 2008a);
- linguistic skills required for reformulation, repetition, and substitution (Armand, 2009);
- knowledge of phonetic, morphosyntaxic, grammatical, and lexical rules (Nachbauer, Préfontaine, & Lebrun, 1996; Préfontaine et al., 2000);
- knowledge of how to consider their audience, how to evaluate the level of knowledge of listeners, how to provide clarity about new terms and to summarize main ideas, and how to make explicit their intended plan for communication (Boyer, 1985; Howe, 1994; Plessis-Bélair, 2004).

Reading is a cognitive process of decoding letters and symbols to construct meaning from a variety of media and texts. Teachers of all grades and subjects must have a working knowledge of their subject-specific and general vocabulary. They must be able to read and understand a vast range of documents pertinent to their responsibilities and subject areas, such as texts of various genres, purposes, and forms, including traditional and non-traditional texts (e.g., Begoray, 2008; Henk, Moore, Marinak, & Tomasetti, 2000; Louden & Rohl, 2006).

Teachers' familiarity with a wide range of texts related to their subject area and spanning a range of reading levels (e.g., picture books, biographies, journals, scrapbooks, poetry, photo essays, newspapers, magazines, primary source documents) can help them engage students in literacy (Fisher & Ivey, 2005). Reading aloud to students is considered an effective way to engage students and to model reading and comprehension strategies, especially when working with complex texts (e.g., Gee & Rakow, 1990). Thus, teachers should be able to read fluently with appropriate pauses, intonation, pronunciation, style, accuracy, automaticity, and articulation (Elder, 2003; Gee & Rakow, 1990; Lane et al., 2009; Louden & Rohl, 2006).

All teachers are considered literacy teachers because reading and writing skills are required in all subject-area curricula. They need to know and be able to implement various reading-comprehension strategies such as predicting, identifying messages and goals, asking questions, summarizing, clarifying, analyzing, relating text to their own experiences, inferring, comparing, contrasting, evaluating, and decoding (Pressley et al., 2001; Sinatra, 2000).

For elementary and literacy teachers, language is both medium and content. In addition to being able to read and comprehend the materials, teachers must be aware of the individual skills and strategies used by competent readers in order explicitly teach them (Carreker et al., 2005). In particular, effective reading teachers need to know and include in their everyday literacy instruction topics such as phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, word identification, vocabulary, and text comprehension (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000). Literacy and language-arts teachers are also expected to understand and teach structural and contextual analysis of texts, specific comprehension skills such as recognizing text sequences, fact versus opinion, identification of main ideas, and use of print cues, as well as reading study skills such as using an index and interpreting a bar graph, among others (Blair, Rupley, & Nichols, 2007; Mariage et al., 2000; Neuhaus, Roldan, Boulware-Gooden, & Swank, 2006; Phelps, 2009).

The literature reviewed also suggests that teachers' capacity to appreciate a text's superstructure and its structural elements (Boyer, 1985; Duguay, 1999a; Leboulanger, 2004; Roberge, 1999), as well as its strengths and weaknesses (Guertin, 2008; Simard, 1999), is essential to understanding written text and being able to teach students reading comprehension and text construction strategies such as planning one's reading, the (re)construction of a text's meaning, and awareness of the emotional and intellectual reactions to a text (Chartrand, 2009; Falardeau, 2003; van Grunderbeeck, 1993).

Teachers use **writing** as part of their instructional practices (e.g., while developing presentations, posting information on the board, providing written feedback, and preparing lessons and handouts) and assembling informational materials for students, parents, and colleagues (Andrew et al., 2005; Blair et al., 2007; Lyon & Weiser, 2009). To be effective writers, teachers require knowledge of grammar, punctuation, spelling, and sentence structure.

Specific theoretical approaches to understanding teaching and learning have also influenced the understanding of writing in teachers' professional practice. For example, the perceived importance of writing for effective teaching has been influenced by the spread of socioconstructivist approaches to teaching. Explicit teaching of spelling and grammar are still, of course, viewed as important:

> *[TRANSLATION]* **The teaching of grammar helps master the use of grammar rules, but also impacts other aspects of language use. It must support students in mastering written syntax and in correctly constructing a written sentence devoid of elements specific to oral language use.**
>
> TRAN, 1992

From this perspective, the teacher's role as writer and instructor of writing has evolved from that of editor (Bilodeau & Chartrand, 2009; Le Pailleur & Boulanger, 2002) to that of audience and co-creator of students' written productions (Fortier & Préfontaine, 2004; Lafontaine, 2000; Lurcat & Cambon, 1981) and written language model for students (Longpré, 2001-2002; Pilote, 2008; Roberge, 1999; Simard, 1999). Teachers' written language competencies must, therefore, be strong enough to support the role of a language model and guide for students.

As is the case with reading, writing is part of the regular teaching routine in every grade and in every classroom. All teachers model writing strategies and approaches by writing on the board; by providing written comments and assessments on the quality of work submitted by students; by highlighting verb endings, words, and phrases; by pointing out errors; by offering grammatical explanations; by explaining the meanings of words and phrases; by offering synonyms; by spelling out words or phrases; and by conjugating verbs (Elder, 2003).

Teachers teach and model various writing styles ranging from fiction to non-fiction. Teachers demonstrate writing processes (e.g., planning, revising, and editing). Teachers help students establish writing goals, provide models of good writing, give appropriate feedback, and teach students to monitor their own written output (Duke, 1985; Kiuhara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009).

The focus of writing activities differs from subject to subject. For example, language-arts teachers introduce personal writing, narratives, informative writing, and persuasive writing (Kiuhara et al., 2009) and pay specific attention to grammar, capitalization, punctuation, and text organization. Social studies teachers tend to focus less on grammar and other language rules and more on developing and presenting an argument, as well as reteaching skills and strategies related to discipline-specific genres of writing (Kiuhara et al., 2009). In science classrooms, informational writing is prevalent.

Teachers also need to possess research skills to prepare lesson and unit plans and to be able to model research skills (e.g., note-taking, summarizing, and footnoting) for students so they learn how to write reports and research papers (Duke, 1985; McNaughton, Hamlin, McCarthy, Head-Reeves, & Schreiner, 2008).

In the classroom and beyond, **listening** is a necessary part of a teacher's vital skill set (Davis, 1994; English, 2007; Haroutunian-Gordon & Waks, 2010; McNaughton et al., 2008), yet listening receives far less attention in the literature than other language modalities, particularly speaking (Sensevy, Forest, & Barbu, 2005).

That capacity to listen helps teachers assess students' prior and newly acquired knowledge (Lafontaine, 2000), to intervene appropriately in classroom discussions (Armand, 2009; Beaudoin & Giasson, 1997; Dulude, 1996), and to evaluate and clarify anything that may have been misunderstood (Lebrun, 2008a; Léveillé & Dufour, 1999; Tremblay, 2006). In addition, the literature suggests that the capacity to listen entails knowledge of different listening techniques (e.g., note-taking, reformulation, and listening with intent) and the capacity to teach these techniques to students (Lafontaine, 2004).

In order to help students learn, teachers need to understand and interpret student responses and evaluate student understanding of topics and concepts. To listen, teachers need to recognize student points of view and perspectives and communicate compassion, empathy, and respect (Haroutunian-Gordon & Waks, 2010).

Thoughtful listening by teachers prompts students to provide thoughtful responses to questions because students tend to react positively when they sense they are being heard. This type of listening, referred to as "pedagogical listening," is based on teachers' sincere desire to hear their students' answers (Davis, 1994) and requires teachers to be open, receptive, and patient (Haroutunian-Gordon & Waks, 2010; Waks, 1998). Teachers need to be able to patiently listen to the difficulties students are able to articulate, as well as those they are not able to clearly express, in order to identify and address confusion and misunderstanding (English, 2007).

Active listening requires teachers to speak as well as listen. When actively listening, teachers ask questions, paraphrase, and provide comments and feedback in order to understand student responses and to communicate their interest in student points of view (Haroutunian-Gordon & Waks, 2010; McNaughton et al., 2008).

To be effective listeners, teachers need to possess a variety of skills, including (but not limited to) an ability to understand a range of registers, distinguish between formal and informal speech, comprehend highly contextualized speech and verbal and non-verbal cues, understand general idiomatic speech, be able to listen to a range of ideas and arrange them according to set criteria, as well as understand peers and their language (Viete, 1998).

A full mastery of language forms (formal and informal registers) and modalities (speaking, reading, writing, and listening) is required of teachers in both English-first-language and French-first-language contexts. While the language-specific details of the competencies associated with each form and modality differ across linguistic contexts, the competencies that teachers require in their respective languages are consistent in both English-first-language and French-first-language contexts.

Having explored the different types of language used by teachers, we now move on to a discussion of the many roles teachers are expected to fulfill in their professional practice.

TEACHERS' ROLES IN THE CLASSROOM AND BEYOND

In their everyday practice, teachers enact many different roles, including instructor, evaluator, manager, communicator, administrator, orchestrator, guide, guardian, encourager, demonstrator, coach, and adaptor. Each of these roles demands a particular set of language competencies (Block, Oakar, & Hurt, 2002; Fillmore & Snow, 2000; Green, 1983a, 1983b; Holbein & Harkins, 2010; Mariage et al., 2000; Mohr, 1998; Roskos, Boehlen, & Walker, 2000).

Teachers as Instructors

Teachers are responsible for instructing the topics and concepts prescribed in the curriculum. Regardless of their specific teaching assignments, teachers use language to provide instruction. They use a variety of language patterns, including presentations, discussions, demonstrations, modelling, questioning, thinking aloud, feeding back, and checking for understanding (Holbein & Harkins, 2010; Mariage et al., 2000).

Teachers as Evaluators

Teachers evaluate student progress, making judgments about student performance and learning (Green, 1983a). To assess student learning, teachers use language patterns such as questioning and prompting of student responses to gather information about student understanding of the topics or concepts. Teachers also use written tasks to assess student learning. They provide verbal and written feedback to students about what they have and have not learned (Fillmore & Snow, 2000).

Teachers as Managers

Teaching is a creative process of managing environments, activities, and situations so students can master the academic and social content of schooling (Green, 1983a). As classroom managers, teachers identify and implement strategies to achieve a variety of instructional and social goals. Specifically, teachers determine appropriate levels of participation (class, group, and individual); signal the rules of participation and interactions; and communicate their expectations regarding when and how students should talk and how they should interpret the meaning and goals of classroom conversation (Green, 1983a, 1983b). To manage classroom interactions and activities, teachers use a number of instructional strategies such as facilitating, sharing ownership, and scaffolding (Holbein & Harkins, 2010). Furthermore, teachers use language to involve individual students in class discussions (e.g., repeating, directly calling), to engage the class as a group (e.g., revoicing, rereading), and to repair relationships by helping students resolve disagreements (Mariage et al., 2000).

The classroom disciplinary climate can either foster or impede positive outcomes of learning activities. Thus, teachers must establish a classroom disciplinary climate in which teaching and learning are unimpeded by disruptive behaviour.

In short, teachers must simultaneously manage the learning activities and disciplinary aspects of every lesson (Green, 1983a). To achieve this balance, teachers use language patterns such as issuing directives and warnings; signalling approval or disapproval; explaining classroom procedures; describing the prescribed step-wise progress through learning activities; asking questions to check on progress through tasks; rephrasing or simplifying instructions; repeating and paraphrasing; providing feedback; and directing (and redirecting) attention to the task at hand (Elder, 2003; Holbein & Harkins, 2010).

In managing classroom activities and discipline, teachers use language to issue directives, including direct and indirect commands, suggestions, reasoning commands, "let's" imperatives, warnings, choice commands, and positive and negative sanctions (Bertsch, Houlihan, Lenz, & Patte, 2009). These classroom directives can be categorized by form (e.g., suggestion, interrogation, question) or by specificity [e.g., an order, rule, or question to which a specific verbal or motor response is possible ("stop kicking") or vague and unclear commands to which a response is not possible ("stop")] (Bertsch et al., 2009).

Face-to-face interactions between teachers and students in the classroom setting are governed by the rules that define the use of language (Green, 1983a, 1983b). These rules might describe, for example, how to gain access to and participate in conversations (e.g., turn-taking rules and cues). In order to manage classroom interactions, teachers must understand these rules and be able to explain and model them for students.

Teachers as Communicators

To be effective communicators, teachers need to have a working knowledge of language forms, structures, and rules. They must be comfortable with the academic language of schooling and be able to adjust their use of language in response to the language proficiency and background of individual students (Fillmore & Snow, 2000).

A teacher's use of language is not confined to the classroom or to interactions with students. Teachers should be able to communicate with parents, administrators, other professionals, and community members in a variety of ways. For example, teachers are expected to communicate with their colleagues and administrators by providing oral and written reports. Teachers need to be able to communicate with parents to build relationships with them, to report progress, and to elicit important information that will help the teacher support and instruct students (McNaughton et al., 2008). To build effective communication with parents, teachers need to master several communication competencies such as listening, empathizing and communicating respect, making statements that show their understanding of parent concerns, asking questions, taking notes of conversations, summarizing and paraphrasing information obtained from parents, and describing possible solutions to problems or concerns raised by parents.

In both English-first-language and French-first-language contexts, teachers will often have to communicate with parents who do not speak the language of instruction as a first language (if at all). In such situations, teachers must be able to monitor conversational cues to determine whether they are successfully communicating with parents.

Teachers as Models of Academic Language and Culture

Under normal circumstances, teachers play an important part in cultivating language abilities and dispositions appropriate for formal learning. In linguistically plural societies such as Canada, where many of the students are learning the language of instruction for the first time, teachers are sometimes the only models of language use in formal learning contexts. In Canada, the challenge is particularly great since population maintenance depends on immigration. The responsibility for integrating individuals who, although they may speak English or French, come from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds typically falls upon schools and, therefore, on teachers. Fulfilling this role requires that teachers possess strong language abilities as well as the ability to modulate their use of language in response to the individual language proficiencies of students. This is true in both English-first-language and French-first-language contexts. The role of linguistic and cultural model may be particularly demanding for teachers in larger cities (e.g., Toronto, Montreal, or Vancouver), where most immigrants settle, and for teachers in minority French-first-language contexts, where many students are only or primarily exposed to French in school.

A second responsibility teachers share is acculturating students for scholastic success. While many families prepare children for scholastic success, schools are the only institution that systematically and universally cultivates facility in the use of language, achievement motivation, attentiveness, personal organization, self-direction, self-confidence in learning, and the capacity to learn for intrinsic satisfaction rather than extrinsic interest. The primary means by which these norms are conveyed is the teacher's use of language.

To fulfill these roles, teachers must be able to modulate their use of language to suit the different skill levels of their students. They must be able to model the correct use of phonology, vocabulary, and syntax and understand how their use of language transmits aspects of the culture into which their students are integrating.

Teachers as Members of a Professional Community

Teachers are members of a wider professional community of educators. To provide effective instruction to students, teachers need to participate in various professional development activities, communicate with their colleagues, and examine professional literature (Elder, 2003). Professional development activities (e.g., attending professional development workshops, reading books, watching or listening to on-line podcasts, and reviewing instructional manuals) require teachers to possess a specialized pedagogical vocabulary in order to make sense of new pedagogical concepts, and map that vocabulary onto their own professional roles and teaching experiences (Macken-Horarik et al., 2006).

This section provided an overview of the types of language patterns teachers make use of in their professional practice. The next section examines teachers' role as instructors in more detail, focusing on instructional strategies and the language competencies these strategies demand.

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES

Teachers' effective professional conduct requires the use of successful instructional strategies. Table 1 lists instructional strategies that have strong empirical support; the remainder of this section discusses these strategies and describes the language competencies associated with each one.

The empirical support for each strategy is expressed in two ways: in terms of effect size (ES) and in terms of the common language equivalent effect size (CLES). ES is a standardized way of expressing the difference between two groups, one of which received a treatment (e.g., a particular instructional strategy) and a control or comparison group that did not receive the treatment.

CLES provides another way of interpreting the results in Table 1. CLES is the probability that a randomly chosen student from the treatment group will score higher than a randomly chosen student from the control group. If the treatment has no effect (i.e., the instructional strategy does not work), then CLES will be 50 per cent. Conversely, if the treatment is effective, then CLES will be greater than 50 per cent — and much greater than 50 per cent if the treatment is very effective.

Table 1 summarizes strategies identified by John Hattie (2009) as having a sizable impact on student achievement. According to Hattie (2009), in education, "almost everything works," but some strategies are very effective while others are only minimally so. To minimize the risk of adopting practices that may, in fact, make only a marginal contribution to student achievement, Hattie recommends that practitioners look for strategies that yield ES in excess of 0.40, "a level where the effects … enhance achievement in such a way that we can notice real-world differences."

According to Hattie's argument, the instructional strategies summarized in Table 1 are ones that produce meaningful differences in student achievement.

TABLE 1: INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES AND THEIR EFFECT SIZES

INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGY	EFFECT SIZE (ES)	COMMON LANGUAGE EFFECT SIZE (CLES)
Setting instructional goals	**0.56**	**65%**
Advance organizers	**0.41**	**61%**
Direct instruction	**0.59**	**66%**
Reciprocal teaching	**0.74**	**70%**
Problem solving	**0.61**	**66%**
Metacognitive strategies	**0.69**	**68%**

Setting Instructional Goals

The literature underscores the significance of establishing clear teaching objectives as an important component of effective teaching (Chamberland, 1987). Established objectives guide the learning to be undertaken (Marzano, Pickering, & Pollock, 2001). When the targeted results are identified as the teaching objectives, the results reflect strict learning and curricular norms that can be used to evaluate the expected learning outcomes (Danielson, 2007). It is often possible to improve the quality of an educational program when teachers establish appropriate objectives that are clearly communicated to students.

A number of studies have demonstrated the link between effective teaching and the formulation of appropriate learning goals (Jones, 1992). Student learning improves when: the teacher clearly states the purpose of the lesson (Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1988); the teacher gives clear instructions (Block et al., 2002); the teacher clearly identifies the objectives of the lesson to be taught (Cartier & Tardif, 2000; Henk et al., 2000; Lafontaine & Desaulniers, 2009; Langevin, 1994; Morin, 1997; Vanhulle, 1999); and the teacher articulates the goals of evaluation and assessment (Bruneau, 1994; Tardif, Brossard, & Laliberté, 1992). When teachers clearly articulate the goals of the lesson, students know what they are expected to achieve, are motivated to achieve those goals, and learn how to set goals for themselves (Marzano et al., 2001).

Teachers must be able to make clear to their students the declarative and procedural knowledge the students are meant to learn. To this end, teachers must communicate instructional goals that are challenging, and that motivate learners to align their efforts with the demands of the goal and prompt them to invest mental effort in the learning task.

Effective goal setting requires teachers to use clear language about what students are supposed to learn and how this learning will be measured. If goals are too precise, information not specifically related to the narrow goal will be ignored by students (Walberg, 1999) or limit the process of learning (Fraser, 1987). Moreover, the language used in articulating goals should reflect the diversity of skills and abilities of the students for whom the teacher is responsible (Danielson, 1996). In particular, setting clear language and content objectives is even more critical for students acquiring the language of instruction because these students have to learn not only the content of a subject, but also the language of a subject (Bowers et al., 2010; Tikunoff, 1983).

Advance Organizers

Advance organizers are presented as students are introduced to new information and concepts. Organizers present the material to be learned at an abstract level to give students a framework within which to situate the new material. Teachers use advance organizers to frame learning in the classroom and to structure learning activities and help students apply their background knowledge to learn new information and concepts (Ausubel, 1978). For example, organizers are widely used in vocabulary instruction to categorize new terms and compare them with previously learned terms (Brookbank, Grover, Kullberg, & Strawser, 1999; Downing, 1994; Englert & Mariage, 1991; Finesilver, 1994; Gay, 2008; Moore & Readence, 1984; Stone, 1983). Organizers are useful tools for providing explicit behavioural instruction and developing emotional competency in students (Rock, 2004).

Advance organizers are communicated in many different forms, such as expository (a brief written summary), narrative (telling a story), skimming (quick read), and graphic organizers (non-linguistic). They often combine linguistic (words and phrases) and non-linguistic (symbols and arrows) representations of the relationships between different aspects of a new concept.

To make effective use of advance organizers, teachers need to be able to describe, classify, and categorize information; define concepts; and predict, explain, and identify relationships between elements. Teachers often incorporate visual, verbal, and written features in their use of advance organizers, supplemented with clear instructions, explanation, and questioning techniques.

Direct Instruction

Explicit teaching involves orientation to a topic, explicit presentation of new material, guided practice, and independent practice (Moore, n.d.). Teachers begin by introducing lesson objectives and identifying relevant prior knowledge and experiences that students might have (Moore, n.d; Rosenshine, 1986). Teachers then present new material in small, sequenced steps, give instructions and explanations, and apply new procedures or concepts in a practical manner. Teachers then begin to shift responsibility to students by asking them to apply the new information in a context similar to the one modelled by the teacher. Teachers supervise the practice activities and ask questions, provide systematic feedback, correct errors (guided practice), and provide additional guidance to those students who need assistance (Wilson, Grisham, & Smetana, 2009). Once students are able to apply their skill to unfamiliar situations with minimal guidance from the teacher, students are expected to apply the skill independently, practising the skill until they are fluent in its application (Moore, n.d.; Rosenshine, 1986).

Direct instructional strategies have been shown to be beneficial for student learning. Research suggests students who receive direct instruction in primary grades tend to score higher on standardized tests, drop out less, and apply to college more frequently than students taught through other approaches (Gersten & Keating, 1987).

The use of direct instructional strategies clearly entails sophisticated language competencies on the part of teachers (Falardeau, 2003). During direct instruction, a teacher may be required to introduce the subject matter of a text or offer an explanation or definition (Blaser, 2008). The teacher may choose to explicitly identify the structure of a text or to provide clues that lead to the discovery of this structure (Boyer, 1985; Duguay, 1999b). Teachers can teach learning strategies (Lafontaine & Préfontaine, 2007) specific to the mastery and utilization of emerging communication tools and techniques such as tracking, scanning, and partial reading (Carignan & Préfontaine, 2005; Chartrand, 2009) or explicitly teach the steps involved in a learning production or process such as pre-writing, writing, correction, and revising (Fortier & Préfontaine, 2004). The teacher must also frequently model the use of learning strategies (Lusignan, 2010; Morin, 1997; Tardif et al., 1992).

The usefulness of direct instruction relies entirely on teachers' use of language. For example, teachers need to give rich verbal descriptions and examples of the material they are presenting using language appropriate to student proficiency levels (Borgen, 1998). When teaching new vocabulary, for example, teachers have to be able to define the terms and provide examples of how to use them in sentences (Dixon-Krauss, 2001). Other effective language strategies associated with direct instructional strategies include prompting, questioning, providing feedback, and checking for understanding (Coniam & Falvey, 2002; Gersten, 1986; Mariage et al., 2000; Parsons, Davis, Scales, Williams, & Kear, 2010). Slowing the teacher's rate of speech and using visual representations are also helpful.

Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal teaching is based on dialogue between teachers and students. Initially, the teacher takes the lead by modelling new knowledge or skills and guiding students through practice. The teacher then gradually transfers responsibility to the students as they become more proficient. The students take over the teacher's role and begin modelling new knowledge and skills for other students (Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Doolittle, Hicks, Triplett, Nichols, & Young, 2006; Palincsar, 1986; Palincsar & Brown, 1984).

In reciprocal teaching, the teacher's use of language involves many of the language patterns required for direct instruction as well as a number of language patterns used for guiding students as they take over the teacher's role. These include generating general and clarification questions, elaborating, predicting, simplifying, summarizing, clarifying, refining, rephrasing, and commenting (Doolittle et al., 2006).

Problem Solving

The problem-solving strategy is a student-centred approach that engages learners in defining the nature of a real-life problem and then identifying, prioritizing, and selecting approaches to its solution. The process concludes with students evaluating the application of solutions and their outcomes.

The research indicates that students acquire new knowledge more effectively when they actively participate in the learning process (Grouws, 1992) rather than passively absorbing knowledge disseminated by the teacher (Armand, 2009; Falardeau, 2003; Martel & Lévesque, 2010; Masingila, Lester, & Raymond, 2006). Learning can be very rich when the learning environment provides a natural setting for students to present various solutions to their group or class, learning through social interactions, negotiating meaning, and reaching shared understandings. Such activities help students to verbally clarify, express, and justify their ideas as well as acquire different perspectives about the concept or idea they are learning.

By learning through problem solving, students have more opportunities to engage in cognitively demanding questions (Hiebert & Wearne, 1993; Lampert, 1990) and to reason and discuss ideas and meanings (Masingila et al., 2006). Teachers adopting a problem-solving approach ask more conceptually oriented questions (e.g., by asking students to describe a strategy or explain their underlying reasoning for obtaining an answer) and fewer recall questions than do teachers in classrooms without a primary focus on problem solving.

Problem solving includes attitudinal as well as cognitive components; in order for students to solve problems, they have to be motivated and believe in their ability to do so. Effort, confidence, anxiety, persistence, and knowledge about self all play important roles in the problem-solving process (Jonassen & Tessmer, 1996).

In a problem-solving context, the role of the teacher changes from one of disseminator of knowledge to one of facilitator. Teachers use scaffolding to guide students through the process of solving problems (Hmelo-Silver, Duncan, & Chinn, 2007). Scaffolding is an instructional technique through which the teacher models and guides students in completing a task that the students would not be able to perform independently (Pentimonti & Justice, 2010; Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976). Over time, the teacher gradually shifts responsibility for the task to the students as they become more proficient and comfortable with the activity (Bruner, 1978, 1983; Stone, 1998).

Scaffolding can also be effectively used with a predicting strategy to assist students with text comprehension (Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Stauffer, 1975). For instance, teachers can guide and encourage students to make use of text information in generating predictions (Kucan, 2007).

The problem-solving approach requires different teacher competencies than approaches involving direct instruction. In particular, teachers must be skillful at deciding what questions to ask in order to challenge those with varied levels of expertise and how to provide enough support for student exploration without taking over the process of thinking for them, thereby eliminating the challenge (Ball, 1993; Hiebert et al., 1997; Lampert, 1985).

Teaching through problem solving also requires teachers to possess advanced language skills. These include the skills required to formulate and explain problems likely to support learning (Falardeau, 2003); help students define a problem and identify possible solutions (Aubé, 2004; Vanhulle, 1999); model the roles to be played by students and the strategies that can be adopted to solve problems (Lafontaine & Préfontaine, 2007; Tran, 1992; Turcotte, 2006); manage group practice and problem solving (Sensevy et al., 2005); and activate students' prior knowledge on a topic (Lafontaine & Arnold, 2009; Langevin, 1994; Leboulanger, 2004; Makdissi, Boisclair, & Sanchez, 2006; Tremblay, 2006). Teachers must also be able to provide feedback and comment, congratulate, repeat, give explanations, provide clarification, ask probing questions, and favour questioning over making declarative statements (van de Pol, Volman & Beishuizen, 2010).

Metacognitive Strategies

Research conducted in both anglophone and francophone settings has demonstrated the value of metacognitive instructional strategies (e.g., Armand, 2009; Falardeau, 2003; Fountas & Pinnell, 2006; Garner, 1987; Martel & Lévesque, 2010). Metacognition consists of thinking about thinking. It includes an awareness of one's own thinking and learning processes and control over those processes (Flavel, 1979; Leutwyler, 2009). When teachers instruct their students about metacognitive strategies, they teach them how to approach new tasks, how to evaluate their own progress, and how to monitor their comprehension of material they are learning.

Metacognitive instructional strategies are used across subjects and grades to enable students to become more flexible, self-reliant, and productive in their learning. While the focus of the activities may vary from subject to subject, these tend to include self-monitoring processes and goal setting (Baker & Brown, 1984), self-questioning (Andre & Anderson, 1979), or the use of mental imagery (Gambrell & Bales, 1986).

The teaching of metacognitive strategies relies heavily on teacher–student interactions. Teachers present, discuss, model, and "think aloud" metacognitive strategies, engage students in discussions, check for student progress and understanding, and provide feedback and assessment. In practice, metacognitive strategies are often combined with reciprocal teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984) and questioning techniques (Raphael, 1986).

Teachers also use instructional conversation to build student understanding through skillful questioning, probing, and discussing (Roskos, Boehlen, & Walker, 2000). The goal is to engage students actively in the learning conversation as students and teachers work together toward more articulated and complete understandings of ideas and texts. Such active, engaged learning leads students to develop metacognitive awareness, which is facilitated by teachers who use effective speaking and listening strategies in the classroom (Jones, 2007; Taylor, Peterson, Pearson, & Rodriguez, 2002).

In summary, the range of instructional strategies used by teachers requires a large set of language competencies. Teachers in different linguistic contexts may favour different strategies, but the associated language competencies remain the same. In the next section, these competencies are examined in greater detail through an analysis of the instructional language used by teachers.

INSTRUCTIONAL LANGUAGE

In the role of instructor, teachers use particular types of instructional language. In this section, we discuss several of these and describe their associated language competencies.

Categories of Instructional Language

The instructional language generally used by teachers shows a number of discernible patterns. For example, a typical classroom interaction follows a sequence of three turns in the initiation-response-evaluation cycle: the teacher's initiation, a student's response, and the teacher's evaluation of the response (Cazden, 2001). Within this cycle, several reliably identifiable categories of instructional language have been described (Smith & Meux, 1970). These 13 categories are largely independent of subject matter and are used across grade levels. The categories are as follows:

ARGUING: Teachers ask students to justify their positions in a debate and to present supporting facts (Lebrun, 2008a; Roy, 2008).

CLASSIFYING: Teachers ask students to place items into the group or subgroup to which the items belong, to place a group into a larger class, or to classify the steps in a procedure (Blaser, 2008). Examples: "Are oxides organic or inorganic?" "What do the words in that list have in common?"

COMPARING AND CONTRASTING: Teachers ask students to observe the similarities and differences between related concepts. Examples: "How is velocity similar to (different from) speed?" "Compare the motivations of the main characters in the play." "Is a rooster the same as a chicken?"

DEFINING: Teachers ask students to provide the meaning of a term. Example: "What does confederation mean?" "Who was Lucy Maude Montgomery?" Teachers ask students to identify the communicational intent of a text or of different communication and learning strategies as well as their purpose — for example, through oral reformulation (Lafontaine, 2000, 2004; Lafontaine & Desaulniers, 2009; Martel & Lévesque, 2010).

DESCRIBING: Teachers ask students to represent concepts, events, etc., in words, symbols, or drawings. Teachers can ask students to do the following: scan a text and identify and describe its main components (Chamberland, 1987) as well as the underlying order and structure of its main ideas (Morissette, 1999); describe the results, whether real or anticipated, of a scientific experiment (D'Entremont, 2008); describe the important elements of a role-playing scenario (Duchesne, 2010), work plan, or communication plan (Howe, 1994); use the structure and context surrounding a word to describe its meaning (Giasson, 1994); describe the strategies used to ask pertinent questions (Lafontaine, 2000); and outline the principal components of a representation or concept (Roy, 2008).

DESIGNATING: Teachers ask students to provide a name or symbol for something. Examples: "What do you call an insect that has a cephalothorax, an abdomen, and eight legs?""What do we call a system of government in which the power resides with the people?"

EVALUATING: Teachers ask students to make judgments according to the standards for determining the value of something. Examples: "Do you think it was right for that character to act that way?""Do you think filibusters are appropriate in a democratic society?""Would that be the best way to measure barometric pressure?"

EXPLAINING:[3] Explanations take many forms, but they all require an account of the conditions giving rise to something or the reasons why something has occurred. Examples: "How does a cow digest its food?""Why did the Liberals lose the 2011 election?""How would you measure the humidity in the atmosphere?"

INFERRING: Teachers ask students to formulate predictions or develop hypotheses (Beaudoin & Giasson, 1997) and to forecast the arguments others may put forth (Dulude, 1996). They also specify conditions and ask students to make inferences about what arises from those conditions. Examples: "Draw the figure as it appears from the other side.""What happens when airspeed falls below 90 km per hour?""Will a full can of diet cola float or sink?"

OPINING: Teachers seek opinions from students on a variety of issues. Examples: "What would help improve this school?""How long do you think it might take you to learn that?"

REPORTING: Teachers elicit from student accounts of what documents say, or summaries of information pertinent to some problem, or a review of an issue or question (Beaudoin & Giasson, 1997; Boyer, 1985). Examples: "What did the television documentary say about the rate of global warming?" "How would you summarize our discussion up to this point?" "What are the changes Prime Minister Harper proposes to make to the Senate?"

STATING: Teachers ask students to state the steps to follow in order to accomplish something, the issues involved in a particular situation, or the conclusions that follow from an argument. Examples: "What values do members of the Conservative Party hold?" "What is Newton's Law of Universal Gravitation?""What is the formula for calculating the area of a rectangle?"

SUBSTITUTING: Teachers, especially ones who are responsible for mathematics, ask students to perform a symbolic operation. Examples: "Add them up.""Simplify the expression."

[3] *Smith and Meux (1970) differentiate explanatory types further (e.g., causal, sequent, mechanical, etc.).*

CLASSROOM DISCUSSIONS

Classroom discussions are important to building comprehension (Gee & Rakow, 1990). Teachers use discussions to engage students and to encourage them to evaluate ideas, justify interpretations, or compare information from several sources, as well as to discuss their own ideas and feelings about what they have learned. Classroom discussions are a feature of effective, student-centred, responsive instruction (Skidmore, Perez-Parent, & Arnfield, 2003). For example, whereas elementary students typically learn new vocabulary through direct experience with concrete objects and events in the environment, high-school students typically learn new vocabulary through verbal interaction with teachers and peers. In high school, new words are generally abstract concepts that students cannot directly see or experience. For high-school students, the new word is both the means of communication and the focus or object of communication (Dixon-Krauss, 2001). By providing an impetus for communication, classroom discussions create opportunities for the introduction, exploration, and use of new vocabulary.

When teachers are able to effectively guide classroom discussions, the discussions typically move from concrete to more abstract ideas. For example, the typical discourse pattern begins with the teacher asking a fact-based question with a short right-or-wrong answer to start the discussion. The discussion then grows more abstract as the teacher moves to more cognitively challenging questions that often have a finite set of acceptable answers. The teacher asks for information that requires explanation, cause-and-effect theories, and comparison of information. Finally, the teacher moves on to even more abstract questions to which the range of potential answers is very broad and most (on-topic) answers will be considered acceptable. These questions open up the dialogue and encourage students to volunteer their responses. When the discussion becomes more academically complex, the teacher prompts students for answers that include persuasion, interpretation, and perspective-taking (Skidmore et al., 2003).

The instructional language that teachers use during classroom discussions includes focusing (focusing on the key aspects of discussion), naming (naming ideas, strategies, or phenomena), and elaborating (elaborating on comments and questions with the intent of eliciting more complex verbal responses of reasoning). In moderating classroom discussions, teachers also use the following types of instructional language: overlapping (with the comments of others to keep conversation flowing), directing (the attention of students to preserve the instructional structure of the context), and discussing (in an open-ended manner in order to build relationships) (Roskos, Boehlen, & Walker, 2000).

Teacher Questioning

Effective questioning makes a significant contribution to quality teaching and successful student learning (Çakmak, 2009). Effective teachers can engage students and elicit responses that stimulate learning through skillful **questioning** (Roskos, Boehlen, & Walker, 2000).

Questions are especially effective in eliciting higher-order thinking processes from students (Çakmak, 2009; Roskos, Boehlen, & Walker, 2000). Teachers who make effective use of questioning techniques during class or small-group discussions have greater success in encouraging student engagement and improving comprehension (Applegate, 2007; Bintz & Williams, 2005; Green, 1983b). Questioning can be used to deepen understanding, develop imaginative thinking, encourage problem solving, and prompt students to become thoughtful critics capable of supporting their judgments with knowledge and understanding (Goodwyn & Findlay, 2002; Hughes, 2005).

Teachers use questions to assess for student (mis)understanding or gaps in understanding and to guide students toward deeper understanding (Çakmak, 2009; Campbell, 1981; Capraro, Capraro, Carter, & Harbaugh, 2010; Culican, 2007; Hughes, 2005; Mohr, 1998; Parsons et al., 2010; Rogers, 2007; Sinatra, 2000; Skidmore et al., 2003). Teachers also use questions to check on progress with tasks (Elder, 2003), to keep students engaged (Mohr, 1998), and to assist students in expressing their ideas clearly and thoughtfully (Kucan, 2007; Zwiers, 2007).

Teachers use many different forms of direct questioning, asking students to retrieve information, relate and connect different ideas to each other, explain concepts, make inferences and predictions, compare and contrast different ideas or concepts, or evaluate ideas or concepts (Kucan, 2007).

Teachers also use prompts to help guide student responses without necessarily asking direct questions. Effective teachers use questions in the form of prompts to help guide student understanding. In particular, prompts are used to focus student cognitive and meta-cognitive thinking processes in order to complete a task. Unlike questions that check for understanding, prompts are intended to get the student to do the thinking required to achieve a new level of understanding (Forbes & Davis, 2009; Frey & Fisher, 2010). Teachers can use prompts to elicit background knowledge, procedural knowledge, or reflective knowledge (Frey & Fisher, 2010). Prompting questions can be used to model appropriate use of strategies to make inferences and to help correct student misunderstandings (Gersten & Carnine, 1986).

Asking good questions requires teachers to understand the purpose of questioning and the characteristics of good questions, to be proficient in the structuring and timing of questions, and to be able to give useful feedback to student responses (Hughes, 2005).

Teacher Feedback

When used effectively, **feedback** is a very powerful strategy in teaching and learning (Hattie, 2009). Feedback includes praise and validation, repetition of student answers, reward, comparisons, assessment, and correction (Mohr, 1998). Feedback is also used to praise students for their effort and attention (Davis, 1994; Holbein & Harkins, 2010; Mohr, 1998; Rogers, 2007; Wharton-McDonald, Pressley & Hampston, 1998), to prompt students to provide additional information (Mariage et al., 2000), and to keep students engaged (Saracho, 2002).

Both positive and negative feedback are informative to students. Both can foster improved learning as long as teachers avoid expressing negative emotion along with negative feedback (Campbell, 1981; Hattie & Temperley, 2007). Feedback is most effective when it allows students to recognize and take their next step in a task or learning process (Jones, 2007). This is the case when feedback is intertwined with instruction and becomes new instruction by providing information that specifically reduces the gap between what has been understood and what remains to be understood (Henk et al., 2000).

In order to be useful to students, feedback has to be clear and comprehensible, and the manner in which students should address the feedback should be obvious (Ferris, 2007).

CONCLUSION

This review of the language competencies required of teachers for effective professional practice reveals that the language competencies required are diverse and extensive. Teachers use their language skills in fulfilling a number of different roles: teaching, managing classrooms, building relationships with students, and communicating with colleagues and parents. Teachers' skilled use of language across these different roles contributes significantly to quality teaching and to student achievement and success.

This literature review is one of a number of steps in developing language competencies and benchmarks for internationally prepared teaching professionals whose prior preparation was not in French or English and who seek certification in Canada as teachers in English-first-language and French-first-language contexts. This review provides a foundation for the development of an occupational language analysis of the teaching profession. A framework of language competencies and benchmarks was developed on the basis of that analysis. That framework, which is presented in the next section, will ultimately form the basis for the development of pan-Canadian language proficiency assessment tools.

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Appendices

APPENDIX A: METHODOLOGY

This literature review was conducted to review and synthesize relevant research (indexed in commercial databases) and "fugitive" or "grey" literature (literature not necessarily indexed in commercial databases) devoted to language competencies required of teachers for effective professional practice.

Transparent Approach

Directions Evidence and Policy Research Group ensured consistency, transparency, and accountability in its review by following well-established protocols for the review and documenting all aspects of the search in a search diary. In order to reduce bias, inclusion/exclusion criteria were established prior to conducting the search, and all screening decisions were documented.

Search Strategies

The review team performed a comprehensive set of database searches to collect publications relevant to the research questions. The primary search focused on indexed databases, six of which were searched in English and three of which were searched in French:

- ERIC (EBSCOhost) – English
- Academic Search Complete (EBSCOhost) – English
- PsycINFO (EBSCOhost) – English
- Education Research Complete (EBSCOhost) – English
- ProQuest – English
- CBCA – English and French
- REPÈRE – French
- ÉRUDIT – French

The search strategies for English and French searches were similar but not identical; they are therefore described separately.

English Search Strategy

Search strategies were developed for each database using free (i.e., user-defined) and controlled (i.e., available through the thesaurus function in the on-line databases) search terms. The following terms were used when searching the indexed databases:

- ***language-related terms:*** *"language competency" or "language competencies" or "language competence" or "language proficiency" or "language proficiencies" or "language skill" or "language skills" or "language fluency" or "language ability" or "linguistic precision" or "linguistic performance" or "linguistic competency" or "linguistic competencies" or "vocabulary" or "linguistic skill" or "linguistic skills" or "clarity of speech" or "use of language" or "literacy" or "language quality" or "communicative competency" or "communicative competence" or "communication skill" or "communication skills" or "language comprehension" or "reading comprehension" or "read" or "writing" or "writing skill" or "speak" or "listen" or "verbal ability" or "verbal fluency" or "verbal competency" or "verbal competence" or "oral ability" or "oral competence" or "oral competency" or "oral fluency"*
- ***teacher-related/assessment terms:*** *"teach" or "preservice teacher program" or "pre-service teacher program" or "teacher education" or "teacher certification" or "teacher competencies" or "teacher competency" or "teacher effectiveness" or "language benchmark" or "language benchmarks" or "benchmark" or "taxonomy"*

The search was limited to specifically exclude papers related to nursing or any other medical topics, as a preliminary search indicated this exclusion criterion would eliminate a large number of irrelevant publications focused on health and development issues rather than teachers' use of language (e.g., studies that focused on students in nursing programs, issues of language development among students with disabilities, etc.).

The search was also limited by using the "Title" fields of the databases (i.e., so only papers with the search terms in their titles would be retrieved). A preliminary search of the four EBSCO databases (ERIC, Academic Search Complete, PsycINFO, and Education Research Complete) captured more than 100,000 potentially relevant papers, and the titles-only limiter ensured that the search captured a manageable number of papers (allowing for a time- and cost-effective literature review).

The following steps were taken to ensure that the scope of the search was not excessively narrowed by the titles-only limiter. First, after conducting searches in the individual databases using the terms described previously, an additional search was conducted to locate meta-analyses and reviews and syntheses of the literature. This search was conducted using the EBSCO interface that allowed us to simultaneously search four databases (ERIC, Academic Search Complete, PsychINFO, and Education Research Complete). Second, the search terms included a very general set of terms describing language competencies and strategies so that a broad selection of papers examining teachers' use of language would be captured. Third, the primary search of indexed databases was supplemented by an Internet search (Google, Google Scholar, Yahoo), by hand-searching through the reference lists of selected papers that were particularly relevant to the current literature review, and by searching the Web sites of organizations (e.g., National Centre on Educational Outcomes) for potentially relevant publications.

In total, 9,321 potentially relevant papers were captured by the database search, the Internet search, and the hand searches of reference lists. Table 2 provides details of the number of papers captured through each of the searches.

TABLE 2: CAPTURED PAPERS BY SOURCE

DATABASE	SEARCH FIELDS	LIMITERS	NUMBER OF PAPERS CAPTURED
Indexed databases			
Academic Search Complete	Title	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	2,345
Education Research Complete	Title	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	3,605
CBCA	Title	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	155
ERIC	Title	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	1,343
PsycINFO	Title	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	1,415
ProQuest	N/A	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	24
EBSCO (Academic Search Complete, Education Research Complete, ERIC, and PsycINFO databases)	N/A	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	245
Other sources			
Internet search	N/A	1980–2011	17
Hand search	N/A	Peer reviewed/1980–2011	172
TOTAL			9,321

The full set of captured articles was imported into RefWorks for citation management and EPPI-Reviewer for screening and coding. After excluding duplicates, 5,101 papers were retained for screening.

French Search Strategy

The following terms were used when searching the indexed databases in French:

"accréditation des enseignant" or "capacité langagière" or "capacité linguistique" or "clarté du discours" or "communication écrite" or "communication orale" or "communication verbale" or "compétence communication" or "compétence des enseignant" or "compétence en enseignement" or "compétence langagière" or "compétence linguistique" or "compétence orale" or "compétence rédaction" or "compétence verbale" or "compréhension en lecture" or "compréhension langagière" or "compréhension linguistique" or "écoute" or "écriture" or "efficacité des enseignants" or "efficacité en enseignement" or "enseigne" or "étudiant en programme de formation à l'enseignement" or "fluidité langagière" or "fluidité linguistique" or "formation à l'enseignement" or "habileté de lecture" or "habileté d'écriture" or "habileté en écriture" or "habileté en lecture" or "habileté langagière" or "habileté linguistique" or "habileté orale" or "habileté verbale" or "lecture" or "littéracie" or "niveau de capacité langagière or "niveau de capacité linguistique" or "niveau de compétence langagière" or "niveau de compétence linguistique" or "qualité de la langue" or "parler" or "pédagog" or "performance langagière" or "performance linguistique" or "précision langagière" or "précision linguistique" or "programme de formation à l'enseignement" or "qualité de la langue" or "usage de langue" or "utilisation de la langue" or "vocabulaire"

In order to manage the unique characteristics of individual French language databases, various strategies were used during the initial search for articles and publications. Some 218 separate searches were performed using different combinations of the aforementioned search terms. The search strategies used for each database, along with the limiters used to circumscribe the search, are reported in Table 3. Refined searches were also conducted within each database to identify search terms that captured a number of papers so large that it exceeded our capacity to include them in our review.

Such terms — deemed overly broad — were then excluded from further searches, which helped reduce the capture of papers to a manageable number. Finally, the search strategies were implemented for the REPÈRE database using "published only in Quebec or Canada" as a limiter in order to yield a manageable number of captured papers that could be reviewed within the timelines allocated to the project.

TABLE 3: INITIAL ARTICLE AND PUBLICATION SEARCH

DATABASE	SEARCH FIELDS	LIMITERS	NUMBER OF PAPERS CAPTURED
CBCA	Title	Written in French, published in peer-reviewed research or scholarly publication between 01/01/1980 and 06/01/2011*	134
ÉRUDIT	Title only	Written in French, published in peer-reviewed research or scholarly publication between 01/01/1980 and 06/01/2011	548
REPÈRE	Title only	Written in French and published in a professional publication between 01/01/1980 and 06/01/2011 in France, Belgium, Switzerland, Canada, or Quebec	1,639

* CBCA allows users to further limit searches through subject terms related to the research area of interest. We used the following subject terms selected from the list made available by CBCA to further refine our searches within this database:

> *"Teaching" or "Teachers" or "Teacher education" or "Teacher competence" or "Teacher responsibility" or "Teacher student relationship" or "Teachers Training of" or "Teaching methods" or "Language" or "Language acquisition" or "Language across the curriculum" or "Language awareness" or "Language instruction" or "Language of instruction" or "Language proficiency" or "Language usage" or "Education"*

This search strategy captured a total of 2,321 potentially relevant documents. These were retained for screening.

Screening

The titles and abstracts of the 7,422 retained papers (5,101 from the English search and 2,321 from the French search) were screened using inclusion/exclusion criteria developed by the review team. Papers included met the following criteria:

- the abstract focused on teachers' use of language;
- the population of interest included Kindergarten to Grade 12 teachers;
- the publication date was between 1980 and 2011;
- the publication language was French or English.

A detailed description of the inclusion/exclusion criteria is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4: INCLUSION/EXCLUSION CRITERIA

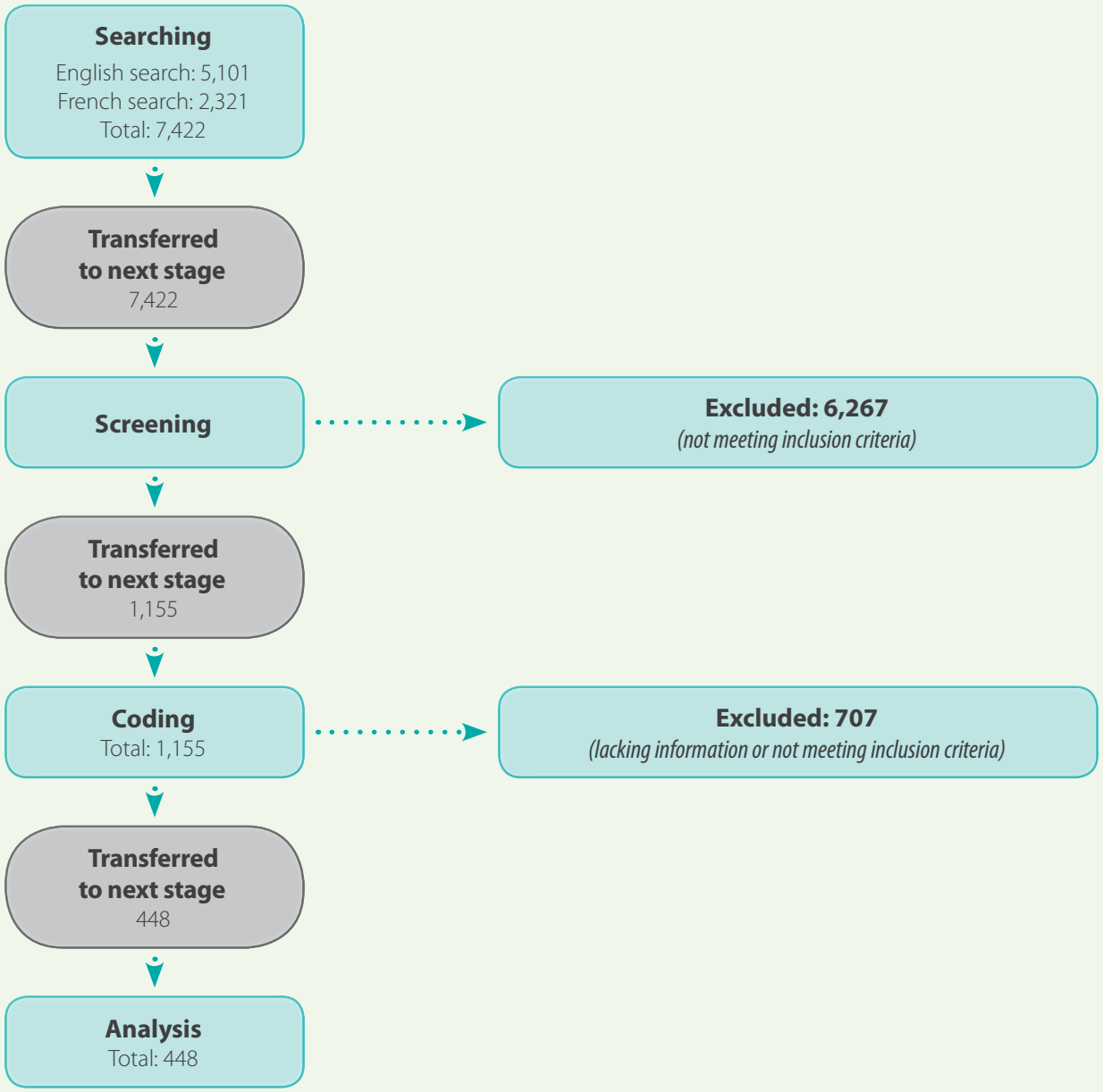
CRITERIA	DESCRIPTION
EXCLUDE publication date pre-1980	Include only papers published between 1980 and 2011.
EXCLUDE wrong language	Only studies published in English or French should be included.
EXCLUDE not on topic	This exclusion criterion is reserved for those articles that were completely off topic.
EXCLUDE wrong population	Focus on TEACHERS OF KINDERGARTEN TO GRADE 12, not university or college teachers or students.
EXCLUDE wrong outcome	Include papers that focus on language competencies of teachers.
EXCLUDE wrong publication	Include peer-reviewed papers and grey literature sources only. Editorials, book reviews, opinion pieces, and magazine articles should be excluded.
INCLUDE for second screening	Include peer-reviewed studies that look at language competencies of teachers.
Marker ENGLISH	Used to mark papers published in English.
Marker FRENCH	Used to mark papers published in French.

The potentially relevant papers were screened by three researchers. Out of 7,422 papers, 1,155 (761 English and 394 French) met the inclusion criteria and were retained for coding at the next stage of the analysis.

Coding

Coding is used to identify significant features of each study that are later summarized in the literature review. Researchers reviewed the full text of the 1,155 papers retained for coding and excluded 707 (420 English and 287 French) papers because they did not provide necessary information or because the full-text review revealed that they did not meet the inclusion/exclusion criteria from the screening phase. (See Figure 1 for an overview of the screening process through which the 7,422 papers were winnowed down to 448.) The remaining 448 papers were subjected to coding. (See Appendix B for details of the coding guidelines.) The analysis described in the following sections is based on these 448 papers.

FIGURE 1: FLOW OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW



APPENDIX B: CODING GUIDELINES

INCLUDE for ANALYSIS: Peer-reviewed studies that look at language competencies of teachers (or strategies that illustrate language competencies of teachers).

Papers for follow-up (e.g., references): Select this box if you think there are good references in the reference list we need to check out.

BACKGROUND marker: Select this box if the study is not on the topic but can be useful during the report-writing stage.

Focus of the paper

- Language competencies of teachers
- Teaching strategies

Exclude as not relevant

- Not on topic
- Wrong population
- Publication date pre-1980
- Wrong publication
- Wrong outcome
- Non-retrievable

Language

- English
- French

Country

- Canada
- United Kingdom
- Europe (English-speaking country)
- Hong Kong
- United States
- Europe (French-speaking country)
- Australia or New Zealand
- Other country

Subject area

- Language Arts/English
- ESL/EFL
- Science
- Music/Drama
- Other subject area
- Language Arts/French
- Mathematics
- Social Studies
- Physical Education

Teachers – years of experience

Grade level

Student population

- Regular
- Students with disabilities
- At-risk students (SES, minorities, low achievers)
- ESL
- Other
- Not reported

Competency-related items

Language modalities

- Speaking (e.g., oral fluency, oral competency, oral competence, oral ability, verbal competence, verbal competency, verbal fluency, verbal ability, communication skills, communication skill, communicative competence, communicative competency, clarity of speech)
- Listening
- Writing
- Reading (e.g., reading comprehension, reading fluency, reading skills)
- General language competencies (not clearly defined) (e.g., language comprehension, language quality, use of language, linguistic skills, language competency, language competence, language proficiency, language skills, language fluency, language ability, linguistic precision, linguistic performance, linguistic competencies)
- Vocabulary
- Other

Instructional talk (Smith & Meux's categories)

- Defining
- Designating/instantiating
- Reporting
- Evaluating
- Classifying
- Explaining
- Other
- Describing
- Stating
- Substituting
- Opining
- Inferring
- Comparing and contrasting

Instructional moves

- Setting instructional goals
- Direct instruction
- Teaching metacognitive strategies
- Questioning
- Using advance or behavioural organizers
- Problem-solving teaching
- Providing academic feedback (corrections, praise)
- Other

Directing and managing the classroom

- Establishing or maintaining teacher–student relationships
- Managing the disciplinary climate of the classroom
- Establishing procedures or organizing tasks
- Other

Quality of teaching: specific not provided: Indicate if a study talks about the impact of quality of teaching on students in general without giving any specific information.

Research methodology

- Qualitative
- Mixed
- Literature review/synthesis/meta-analysis
- Quantitative
- Theoretical/conceptual paper
- Other

Short summary of the paper

Limitations of the study

Issues raised in the paper

Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks

FRAMEWORK FOR LANGUAGE COMPETENCIES AND BENCHMARKS

Purpose of the Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks

The **Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks** describe the language abilities required of teachers in order to effectively perform their professional (occupation-specific) duties. The competencies and benchmarks (levels of language proficiency) will assist in the development of assessment tools in both English and French for evaluating the language competencies of internationally prepared teachers applying for certification in Canada. A common set of language competencies and benchmarks will help to support pan-Canadian labour mobility of teachers and help to ensure that internationally prepared teachers meet the high standards of the Canadian teaching profession.

What is the Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks?

The **Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks** is composed of the following: 1) a set of language competencies; and 2) a set of occupation-specific performance outcomes. It is the intersection of language proficiency applied to the occupation-specific activities in which teachers engage. **Figure 2** presents the structure of the **Framework for Language Competencies and Benchmarks.**

FIGURE 2: LANGUAGE COMPETENCIES REQUIRED FOR EFFECTIVE TEACHING

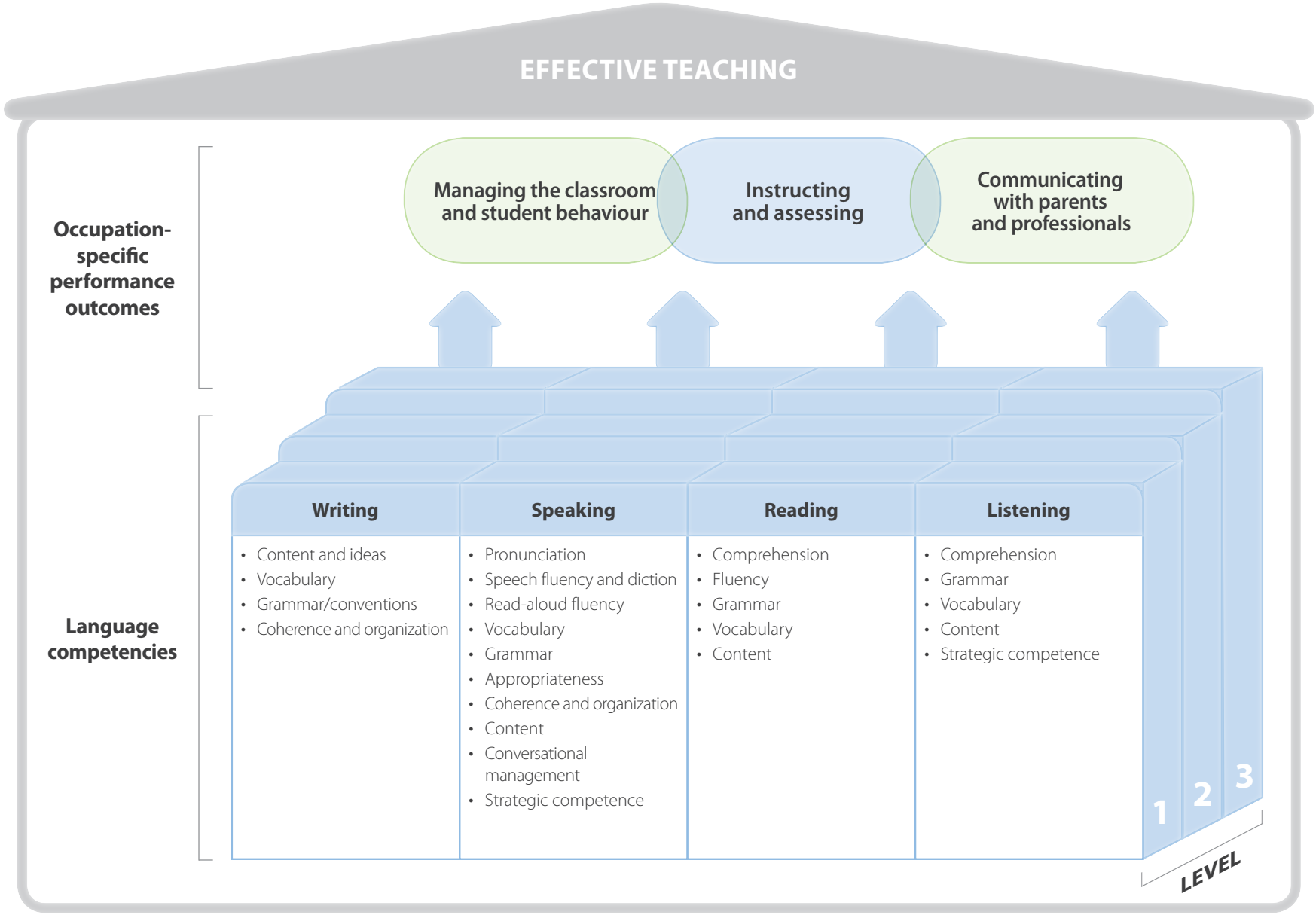


FIGURE 3: STRUCTURE OF LANGUAGE COMPETENCY

The **language competencies,** informed by the Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB), are a set of descriptive statements of communicative proficiency and general language ability required of a first language (or native) speaker in English or French in each of four modalities: speaking, writing, reading, and listening. These competencies are the foundation for the occupation-specific language abilities teachers need to perform their work. Each of the four modalities is further sub-divided into categories of key families of language competencies. Each of the categories is further subdivided into one or more features that identify specific competencies.

There are three levels of proficiency in each modality expressed as benchmarks: Level 1, Level 2, and Level 3.

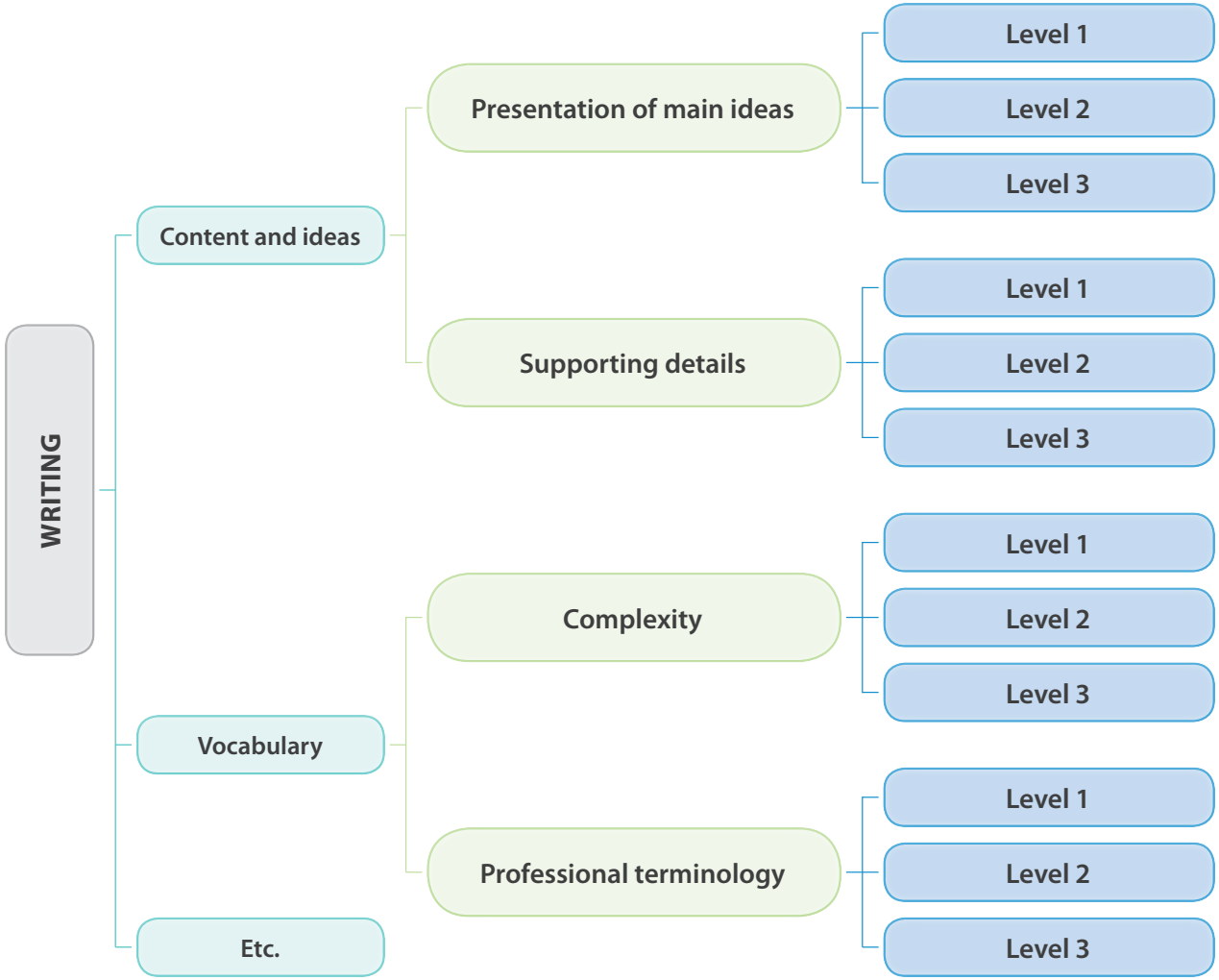
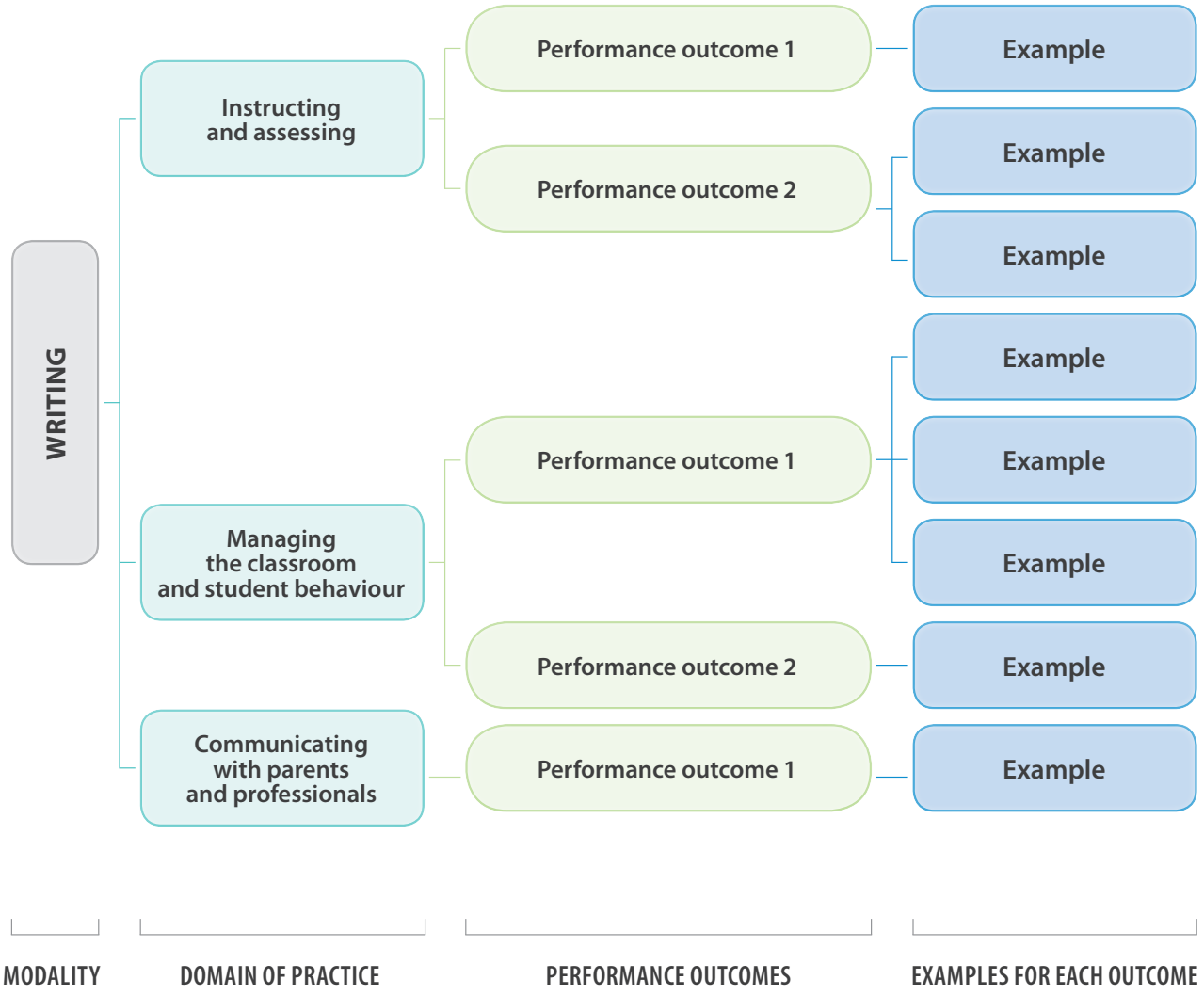


FIGURE 4: STRUCTURE OF OCCUPATION-SPECIFIC PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES

The occupation-specific performance outcomes are a set of statements describing how teachers use language in the conduct of their profession in three domains: instructing and assessing, managing the classroom and student behaviour, and communicating with parents and professionals.



Organization of the Document

This document is organized in the following manner for each language modality of writing, speaking, reading, and listening.

- **Foundational Language Benchmarks:** This table outlines the performance benchmarks for language categories and features. For each language feature, the stages of language proficiency (Level 1, Level 2, Level 3) are described.
- **Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes:** These tables summarize the language competencies for each modality for the following language domains:
  - **A: Instructing and assessing**
  - **B: Managing the classroom and student behaviour**
  - **C: Communicating with parents and professionals**
- **Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes:** Examples of language use by domain — for each competency in the framework, examples of language use in teaching are provided.

WRITING: Foundational Language Benchmarks

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Content and ideas	Presentation of main ideas	Thesis is unclear.	Thesis is clear, but imprecisely stated.	Thesis is clear and precisely stated.
	Development of ideas	Ideas are vague, lack complexity, and do not support the thesis.	Ideas are clear and support the thesis.	Ideas are clear, complex, and support the thesis.
	Provision of supporting evidence and details	Written text lacks examples, reasons, and supporting details.	Some examples, reasons, and details provided, but not sufficient to support the thesis.	Examples, reasons, and details are sufficient to support the idea or ideas presented, and are relevant, appropriate, convincing, and accurate.
	Synthesis of information	Reproduces information without reduction.	Reduces information to main points with accurate supporting details and no major omissions of important points or details.	Reduces information to main points, synthesizing information from multiple sources with accurate supporting details and no major omissions of important points or details in the form of text, table, graph, chart, diagram, slides, etc.
	Conclusion	Restates main ideas.	Summarizes main ideas.	Summarizes and evaluates the main ideas as well as the evidence and logic used to support them.
	Sense of audience and purpose	Does not use language and content appropriate to the occasion, intent, and social and professional context.	Adjusts the use of language and content for a limited range of audiences.	Adjusts the use of language and content for a broad range of audiences and situations.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Content and ideas	Complexity of written text	Writes short (one to two paragraphs), simple texts and forms.	Writes texts of limited complexity.	Writes complex, original, formal, and informal texts as needed for complex, social, technical, or specialized tasks in demanding contexts of language use.
	References	Uses few sources that are not properly cited.	Cites sources of information with some minor errors and/or omissions.	Provides complete and properly formatted references identifying the sources of information presented.
Vocabulary	Vocabulary complexity	Uses vocabulary that is inappropriate or inadequate for the task.	Uses vocabulary that is appropriate and adequate for the task.	Uses vocabulary that is sophisticated, precise, and appropriate for the task.
	Knowledge of professional terminology	Does not use or know basic subject-specific/professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/professional terminology with some inaccuracies.	Uses subject-specific/professional terminology and is able to explain differences between similar subject-specific/professional terminology.
Grammar/conventions	Spelling and usage	Spelling and usage errors interfere with communication.	Spelling and usage errors are minor and few in number.	Spelling and usage do not impede understanding; text is error-free.
	Grammar	Employs simple grammatical structures that exhibit errors that impede understanding.	Employs simple grammatical structures with minimal errors that do not impede understanding.	Employs error-free grammatical structures that complement the complexity of the task and promote clear understanding.
	Punctuation	Uses simple punctuation that exhibits errors that interfere with communication.	Uses simple punctuation with minimal errors that do not interfere with communication.	Uses error-free punctuation that complements the complexity of the task.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Coherence and organization	Sentence variety	Uses basic sentence structures and forms.	Uses a variety of sentence structures and forms that promotes clear understanding.	Uses the full range of sentence structures that complement the complexity of the task and promote clear understanding.
	Paragraph development/ transitions	Uses basic paragraph structures with insufficient transitions between paragraphs.	Uses moderately complex paragraph structures with appropriate logical connectors.	Uses complex paragraph structures with appropriate logical connectors and transitions that contribute to a compelling argument about the issue or topic.
	Text organization/format	Text is organized without regard to formatting/layout required by the genre or purpose of the document.	Text is organized and presented as a whole with a structure and layout appropriate for a limited range of genres and purposes.	Text is organized as a coherent whole with a structure that contains all the parts required by the genre (e.g., introduction, references, etc.) and presented in a layout/ format that complements the genre and purpose.
	Editorial revisions	Does limited editing and revisions.	Demonstrates adequate ability to proofread, revise, and edit own written texts for clarity and accuracy.	Effectively evaluates, proofreads, revises, and edits own or others' written texts for clarity and accuracy to create error-free texts.

WRITING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes

COMPETENCY W1	**Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** **W1A.1.** write lesson plans, course outlines, course descriptions, handouts, and/or teaching materials. **W1A.2.** provide written feedback on student assignments. **W1A.3.** record student performance and progress on standardized forms. **W1A.4.** write reports or individual education plans. **W1A.5.** model correct writing strategies and approaches specific to teacher's subject area. **W1A.6.** write questions to assess knowledge and higher-order thinking.	**Teachers use language to…** **W1B.1.** write summaries of classroom expectations and goals. **W1B.2.** write summaries of classroom procedures.	**Teachers use language to…** **W1C.1.** write e-mails (with or without attached documents), letters, or reports to other professionals using technical or non-technical language. **W1C.2.** complete administrative reports. **W1C.3.** write e-mails or letters to parents in non-technical language. **W1C.4.** take notes or write minutes and commentaries.
COMPETENCY W2	**Display information in a variety of written forms (e.g., tables, graphs, charts, slides).**		
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** **W2A.1.** create tables or other table-like text and enter information. **W2A.2.** represent information in graphic form. **W2A.3.** develop slides for presentations.	**Teachers use language to…** **W2B.1.** design a variety of data-collection and student-evaluation forms. **W2B.2.** create daily, weekly, and monthly timetables to schedule different activities. **W2B.3.** complete forms by marking check boxes, recording numerical information, or entering words, phrases, sentences, or other text.	**Teachers use language to…** **W2C.1.** write informational materials to communicate with parents or professionals.

WRITING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes: Examples of Language Use by Domain

COMPETENCY W1. **Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	W1A.1. Write lesson plans, course outlines, course descriptions, handouts, and/or teaching materials.	• Given a subject topic (e.g., the French Revolution), write a lesson plan that describes instructional objectives, materials and media, instructional procedures and activities, and formal and informal assessments, and check for understanding, taking into account individual needs of diverse learners and variations in learning styles and performance. • Write a short (one-page) handout with text, pictures, or other items, and amount of information appropriate to the grade level. • Write a course description that summarizes course content, expectations, and evaluation procedures for students. • Write a set of clear and succinct expectations for an assignment and/or examination. • Given a subject topic, write a text for a handout to present, persuade, justify, critique, analyze, or evaluate information. • Write a lesson plan for a substitute teacher who will be covering your classes in your absence the next day.
	W1A.2. Provide written feedback on student assignments.	• Provide comments (in the form of correction and criticism, command, closed question, praise, open-ended question, reader response, and lesson, explanation, or suggestion) on the overall quality of the work, meaning, organization, artistic style, effort, or process by selecting words to minimize the possibility of misinterpretation. • Review and edit a student assignment by correcting grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation and commenting on cohesion, organization, tone, and style.

COMPETENCY W1. **Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	W1A.2. Provide written feedback on student assignments *(cont'd)*.	• Given a subject topic, write a text to present, persuade, justify, critique, analyze, or evaluate information. *EXAMPLES OF WRITTEN COMMENTS (ELEMENTARY GRADES)* *"Remember to start names with a capital letter."* *"What do you mean?"* *"How do you know this?"* *"This is a very good story! I enjoyed it very much!"* *EXAMPLES OF WRITTEN COMMENTS (SECONDARY GRADES)* *"Remember proper use of quotation marks."* *"Keep consistent verb tense."* *"Read your work out loud to yourself to assist with editing."* *"Planning should also be an important part of the narrative story process."* *"Does this support your position?"* *"What do you mean?"* *"How do you know this?"* *"Your ideas need further development, as many details are left out."* *"Try to link paragraphs together with connecting sentences instead of using subheadings."* *"You must keep one idea in each paragraph."*
	W1A.3. Record student performance and progress on standardized forms.	• Complete report cards by ticking off the boxes corresponding to the student performance level in comparison to expected standard and class norms. • Comment on academic achievements, educational interventions, progress, ways of learning, socialization skills, behaviour, and self-confidence. • Complete attendance sheets.

COMPETENCY W1. **Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	W1A.4. Write reports or individual education plans.	• Write an individual education plan for a student with special needs based on the recommendations of a report by the school psychologist. • Upon review of information on a specific topic, develop a one-page summary that synthesizes and analyzes the key points from the literature and provide proper citations.
	W1A.5. Model correct writing strategies and approaches specific to teacher's subject area.	• Write an example of a literary form: a poem, a Haiku, a rap song, etc. (language arts). • Write an essay to model the structure, content, and style of lab reports and research summaries (science). • Write an essay to model the structure, content, and referencing techniques of essays and research reports in social studies (social studies). • Write a letter to demonstrate the correct letter-writing format. • Given a topic, write a blog entry for the school Web site to model form and style appropriate for on-line communication.
	W1A.6. Write questions to assess knowledge and higher-order thinking.	• Prepare questions to check for comprehension of material previously taught. • Prepare questions to focus attention on particular features of a phenomenon or concept. • Prepare quizzes and examinations. • Prepare questions to prompt students to think about a topic. • Prepare questions as an advanced lesson organizer.

COMPETENCY W1. **Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	W1B.1. Write summaries of classroom expectations and goals.	• Given the grade level of the students, create a list of rules that define acceptable behaviour in the classroom (e.g., "Ask permission to go to the bathroom." "Do not talk to strangers on the playground." "Raise your hand if you want to speak."). • Given the grade level of the students, develop a written instruction of how to behave during classroom debates (e.g., "Be respectful of other people's ideas.").
	W1B.2. Write summaries of classroom procedures.	• Prepare a chart to summarize the use of lab equipment. • Prepare a chart to summarize the due date for course assignments.
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	W1C.1. Write e-mails (with or without attached documents), letters, or reports to other professionals using technical or non-technical language.	• Respond to a colleague's request for information about strategies considered effective for a given topic or group of students. • Respond to a colleague's request for advice about pedagogical material. • Given a scenario, draft a report to school authorities describing a classroom incident. • Write a letter of recommendation to support a student's application for university admission. • Write a class newsletter.
	W1C.2. Complete administrative reports.	• Complete reports on student attendance and progress. • Record, for the purpose of referral for assessment, a student's classroom behaviour and learning strategies. • Respond to an administrator's request for a description of an accident occurring at the school. • Given a particular student's condition, draft a formal report to the appropriate school specialist such as an educational psychologist, speech-language pathologist, second-language educator, etc.

COMPETENCY W1. **Write coherent formal and informal texts by synthesizing and evaluating complex information and ideas from multiple sources.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	W1C.3. Write e-mails or letters to parents in non-technical language.	• Draft a formal letter to schedule parent-teacher meetings or to share student progress. • Draft a letter to distribute school information about upcoming field trips and solicit participation. • Respond to a parent's request for justification of the educational purpose of the field trip. • Write a letter to parents to inform them of basketball-league activities and outline expectations such as playing all games in the schedule.
	W1C.4. Take notes or write minutes and commentaries.	• Write notes or minutes of parent-teacher conferences. • Prepare an agenda for a meeting for professional discussion. • Prepare notes for a colleague unable to attend a professional-development activity or session. • Write notes of meetings and/or symposia.
COMPETENCY W2. **Display information in a variety of written forms (e.g., tables, graphs, charts, slides).**		
A. Instructing and assessing	W2A.1. Create tables or other table-like text and enter information.	• Create a table to record achievement data. • Given a content topic (e.g., weather observations), prepare a worksheet for students containing clear headers and layout for recording the requested information.
	W2A.2. Represent information in graphic form.	• Given information on a specific curricular topic (e.g., number of people living in various countries), develop a chart with a clear title and labels expressed in subject-specific language appropriate for student grade level to represent information.
	W2A.3. Develop slides for presentations.	• Given a set of materials on a specific topic, develop four to five slides that summarize the key points and concepts in point form.
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	W2B.1. Design a variety of data-collection and student-evaluation forms.	• Create a form in which students can record information for a course or class activity.
	W2B.2. Create daily, weekly, and monthly timetables to schedule different subjects and activities.	• Given the list of possible activities, develop a weekly schedule for classroom activities by using formatting, layout, and language appropriate for the grade level.

COMPETENCY W2. **Display information in a variety of written forms (e.g., tables, graphs, charts, slides).**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	W2B.3. Complete forms by marking check boxes, recording numerical information, or entering words, phrases, sentences, or other text.	• Provided with information about a student's performance or achievement, complete a student progress report form by providing two to three clear sentences responding to the form questions.
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	W2C.1. Write informational materials to communicate with parents or professionals.	• Create a report to parents that synthesizes information about their child's performance.

SPEAKING: Foundational Language Benchmarks

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	**Level 2**	**Level 3**
Pronunciation	Quality of pronunciation	Pronounces with errors that interfere with communication.	Pronounces with some minor errors that do not interfere with communication.	Produces speech that is intelligible with accurate and standard pronunciation.
Speech fluency and diction	Speech fluency, articulation, etc.	Speaks with poor intonation, pacing, and articulation marked with difficulties and silences, hesitations, repetitions, and fillers such as "um" and "uh" that disrupt the flow of communication.	Speaks almost fluently, with minor difficulties with intonation, pacing, and articulation that do not interfere with communication.	Speaks fluently at a rate appropriate for the task; uses stress, articulation, and intonation appropriate for the situation.
	Speech accuracy	Errors occur that impede understanding.	Minor errors occur that do not impede understanding.	Produces speech that is free of errors.
Read-aloud fluency	Phrasing	Reads aloud primarily in two-word phrases, giving the impression of choppy reading, with improper stress and intonation that fail to mark ends of sentences and clauses that detract from the overall structure of the story.	Reads aloud primarily in three- or four-word phrase groups with some run-ons, mid-sentence pauses for breath, and possibly some choppiness, with the majority of phrasing appropriate and preserving the syntax of the author.	Reads aloud primarily in larger, meaningful phrase groups, mostly in clause and sentence units, with accurate syntax and minor regressions, repetitions, and deviations from the text that do not detract from the overall structure of the story.
	Expression and volume	Reads aloud with little expression in a quiet voice, focusing largely on saying the words.	Reads aloud with appropriate expression and volume throughout the better part of the passage, but occasionally slips into expressionless reading.	Reads aloud with appropriate expression and volume throughout the text and is able to vary expression and volume to match his or her interpretation of the passage.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Read-aloud fluency	Expression and volume	Reads aloud with little expression in a quiet voice, focusing largely on saying the words.	Reads aloud with appropriate expression and volume throughout the better part of the passage, but occasionally slips into expressionless reading.	Reads aloud with appropriate expression and volume throughout the text and is able to vary expression and volume to match his or her interpretation of the passage.
	Pacing	Oral reading is moderately slow.	Oral reading is an uneven mixture of fast and slow reading, not always adjusted to the task requirements and the level of the audience.	Oral reading is consistently conversational and is adjusted to the task requirements and the level of the audience.
	Read-aloud accuracy	Accurately reads aloud with some errors that impede understanding.	Accurately reads aloud with minimal errors that do not impede understanding.	Accurately reads aloud without errors.
Vocabulary	Vocabulary complexity	Uses vocabulary that is inappropriate or inadequate for the task.	Uses vocabulary that is appropriate and adequate for the task.	Uses vocabulary that is sophisticated, precise, and appropriate for the task.
	Word meaning	Correctly applies (and interprets) common meanings of simple everyday words, but lacks knowledge of idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), and colloquialisms.	Correctly applies (and interprets) common meanings of general and simple professional terminology, high-frequency expressions, and idioms found across a limited range of texts; however, may require clarification of idioms and colloquialisms.	Correctly applies (and interprets) low-frequency and nuanced meanings of general and professional terminology, expressions, idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), and colloquialisms found across a broad range of texts.
	Knowledge of professional terminology	Does not use basic subject-specific/ professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology with some inaccuracy.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology and is able to explain differences between similar subject-specific/ professional terminology.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Vocabulary	Complexity of language structures	Basic language structures are inadequate for the professional task.	Uses moderately complex language structures, with only minor difficulties.	Uses full range of language structures (from basic to sophisticated).
Grammar	Grammar	Employs simple grammatical structures that exhibit some errors that impede understanding.	Employs simple grammatical structures with minimal errors that do not impede understanding.	Employs error-free grammatical structures that complement the complexity of the task and promote clear understanding.
Appropriateness	Registers/context	Given a specific context, uses formal and informal registers inappropriately.	Given a specific context, uses formal and informal registers inconsistently.	Uses formal and informal registers appropriately and consistently.
	Sense of audience and purpose	Uses one style of communication across all audiences.	Able to adjust the use of language and content for a limited range of audiences.	Able to skillfully adjust the use of language and content for a broad range of audiences.
Coherence and organization	Organization	Uses simple speech format and organization that is difficult to follow and does not take into account the genre or purpose of communication.	Speech presents simple ideas in logical sequence. However, speech is rigid in its structure, organization, and delivery style, appropriate to a limited range of genres and purposes.	Speech presents complex ideas that are well organized and presented as a coherent whole with complex, sophisticated content, organization, format, and delivery style appropriate to genre and purpose.
Content	Complexity of speech	Produces simple speech on familiar ideas and topics.	Produces moderately complex speech, including formal and informal, general, or technical talks and conversational exchanges.	Produces speech of varying complexity, including formal and informal, general, or technical talks, brief conversation exchanges, and lengthy presentations.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Content	Content	Produces brief descriptions, opinions, and explanations that lack examples or supporting details.	Produces descriptions, explanations, and summaries that include a few limited examples.	Produces sophisticated speech with a logical line of argumentation that explores relationships, includes supporting details, discusses pros and cons, summarizes and evaluates ideas, and draws conclusions or proposes solutions.
	Synthesis of information	Reproduces information without reduction.	Reduces information to main points with accurate supporting details and no major omissions of important points or details.	Reduces information to main points, synthesizing information from multiple sources with accurate supporting details and no omissions of important points or details.
Conversational management	Role in conversation	Responds to conversation initiated by others.	Leads conversations with difficulty.	Leads conversations fluently using a broad range of strategies.
	Conversational strategies	Asks and responds to simple, familiar questions.	Asks and responds to questions that are moderately complex in everyday or professional situations.	Asks (and models how to ask) and responds to closed, open, and conditional questions to retrieve, relate, explain, infer, predict, connect, compare, contrast, or evaluate information in a broad range of everyday and professional situations.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Strategic competence	Communication breakdown	Does not adjust to instances of communication breakdown.	Has limited ability to adjust language forms and structures, speed, complexity, etc., to overcome communication breakdown.	Adjusts language forms and structures, speed, complexity, etc., to overcome communication breakdown.
	Social meaning of utterances	Explains the social meaning of simple utterances and relationships among speakers.	Explains the social meaning of moderately complex utterances and relationships among speakers.	Explains the social meaning of complex utterances and relationships among speakers.

SPEAKING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes

COMPETENCY S1	**Participate in formal and informal conversational exchanges in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** S1A.1. assign new tasks, review completed tasks, and inquire about the status of student work. S1A.2. discuss with students their ideas and aspirations, answer their questions, and provide guidance, encouragement, and assistance. S1A.3. provide oral feedback to students. S1A.4. demonstrate various communication strategies when there is a breakdown in communication or when students' lack of knowledge prevents them from communicating or comprehending the information.	**Teachers use language to…** S1B.1. discuss the rules of acceptable and unacceptable classroom behaviour and procedures.	**Teachers use language to…** S1C.1. discuss student academic progress, social concerns, and other school-related issues with parents. S1C.2. discuss student- and school-related issues with other teachers, teacher aides or student teachers, school principals or administrators, psychologists, social workers, and speech-language pathologists. S1C.3. discuss student- and school-related issues with representatives from community organizations and/or professional associations.

COMPETENCY S2	**Lead and manage a variety of conversational exchanges appropriate to purpose and audience.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** S2A.1. contact demonstrations and presentations on academic subjects to students individually and in groups. S2A.2. facilitate classroom and extracurricular discussions, debates, and activities. S2A.3. explain assignments or activities by providing clear step-by-step instructions to assist students with understanding a concept and/or strategy. S2A.4. model appropriate language use.	**Teachers use language to…** S2B.1. provide clear, detailed oral information or step-by-step instructions regarding classroom rules and behaviours. S2B.2. use commands to ensure that students follow academic and behavioural classroom rules.	**Teachers use language to…** S2C.1. give presentations to small and large groups of parents and other professionals. S2C.2. lead conversations in a manner appropriate to situations and audiences.
COMPETENCY S3	**Fluently read aloud a variety of general, literary, and specialized/technical texts.***		
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** S3A.1. read aloud literary, general, and subject-specific texts of various complexity and topics as a part of instruction. S3A.2. model effective oral reading strategies for different genres, structures, and formats. S3A.3. read aloud drawings, charts, schemes, diagrams, and other visual instructions to teach procedures for class activities.	**Teachers use language to…** S3B.1. read aloud rules, procedures, schedules, or other information related to classroom management or other administrative matters. S3B.2. read aloud information on the forms or labels or in the tables.	**Teachers use language to…** S3C.1. read aloud information of various complexity and topics to parents or colleagues.

* The literature on reading aloud largely treats this competency as a component of the reading domain. However, reading aloud requires use of both reading and speaking skills. For practical purposes pertaining to the development of assessment tools, this draft of the framework locates reading aloud within the speaking domain.

SPEAKING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes: Examples of Language Use by Domain

COMPETENCY S1. **Participate in formal and informal conversational exchanges in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	S1A.1. Assign new tasks, review completed tasks, and inquire about the status of student work.	• Given an activity (e.g., mid-term exam), provide clear, detailed instructions to students. • Given a topic (e.g., molecular structures), provide detailed instruction on how to use lab equipment such as a microscope.
	S1A.2. Discuss with students their ideas and aspirations, answer their questions, and provide guidance, encouragement, and assistance.	• Given a topic, develop a set of probing and follow-up questions to lead student discussion on the topic. • Given a topic, ask questions to retrieve, relate, explain, infer, predict, connect, compare, contrast, or evaluate information. • Given a topic, develop a set of questions to determine students' prior knowledge of the topic and to assess students' understanding and gaps in understanding of new learning.
	S1A.3. Provide oral feedback to students.	• Provide an evaluation/critique of students' work and/or recommendations for improvement. • Review an example of a student's work and provide corrections.
	S1A.4. Demonstrate various communication strategies when there is a breakdown in communication or when students' lack of knowledge prevents them from communicating or comprehending the information.	• Given a situation (e.g., description of a teacher-student conversation that illustrates students' difficulty in comprehending the information), develop a set of questions to determine students' prior knowledge of the topic. • Given a concept/term, develop a three-minute explanation of the concept with age-/level-appropriate examples.
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	S1B.1. Discuss the rules of acceptable and unacceptable classroom behaviour and procedures.	• Given a situation, suggest alternative approaches or behaviours for students to discuss and respond to. • Develop a verbal summary of rules during class debate or presentation.

COMPETENCY S1. **Participate in formal and informal conversational exchanges in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	S1C.1. Discuss student academic progress, social concerns, and other school-related issues with parents.	• Review with parents student academic achievements, discuss their behaviours, strengths, needs, and support systems, determine goals to be reached by school interventions, and propose strategies. • Describe to parents how they can contribute to the success of school interventions. Messages may need to be adapted to communicate with parents who do not speak the language of instruction. • Given a situation, role-play a conversation with a parent who may be disappointed, distressed, or angry when his or her child fails to do well academically, exhibits behavioural problems, or is expelled or suspended. • Develop a three-to-five-minute presentation to solicit agreement or acceptance of ideas.
	S1C.2. Discuss student- and school-related issues with other teachers, teacher aides, or student teachers, school principals or administrators, psychologists, social workers, and speech-language pathologists.	• Given information about student progress, communicate with a psychologist or speech-language pathologist about student progress with intervention plans. • Communicate with student teachers about how tasks are to be performed in the classroom. • Provide suggestions about teaching topics such as instructional methods and styles, how to prepare for lessons, and objective grading to colleagues or student teachers. • Discuss with school faculty (e.g., at staff meetings) student performance, lesson plans, classroom activities, curriculum, new programs, administrative matters, field trips, etc. • Discuss with school principal timetables and workload, review provincial/territorial, district, and school policies, procedures, and programs.
	S1C.3. Discuss student- and school-related issues with representatives from community organizations and/or professional associations.	• Talk to representatives from charitable organizations to share information on special projects to coordinate activities such as fundraising activities. • Talk to suppliers to order or inquire about new educational materials, equipment, and software.

COMPETENCY S2. **Lead and manage a variety of conversational exchanges appropriate to purpose and audience.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	S2A.1. Give demonstrations and presentations on academic subjects to students individually and in groups.	• Given a topic, give a five-minute presentation to a group of students. • Conduct a demonstration of a science experiment. • Given a lesson and a grade level, explain a concept in more than one way using language appropriate to the abilities and grade level of the student. • Develop a five-minute presentation to describe a current event and to classify, compare, and contrast, infer, define, describe, evaluate, explain, express an opinion, report, state, or substitute information. • Prepare a list of five potential questions that students may ask, and develop brief responses to elaborate.
	S2A.2. Facilitate classroom and extracurricular discussions, debates, and activities.	• Given a topic, develop a set of probing questions for the purposes of basic recall (who, what, when, where, and why questions), making inferences (Do you think…?), vocabulary learning (What does the word X mean?), predicting (Why do you think…?), meaning-making using contextual clues (Look at the words around the word. Can you determine the meaning?), problem solving (How does X happen?), making comparisons (What do these people have in common?), understanding cause and effect (What caused X?), drawing conclusions (What do you conclude?), understanding character development (What would the character do?), sequencing (Can you explain the steps in…?), foreshadowing (What do you think is going to happen?), and comparing and contrasting (Did they look like X?). • Given a set of negatively worded statements, reframe them into positive statements to diffuse conflict. • During a class discussion, control the flow of conversation with appropriate strategies such as direct and indirect commands, suggestions, reasoning commands, "let's" imperatives, threats, choice commands, positive and negative commands, among others.

COMPETENCY S2. **Lead and manage a variety of conversational exchanges appropriate to purpose and audience.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	S2A.3. Explain assignments or activities by providing clear step-by-step instructions to assist students with understanding a concept and/or strategy.	• Given an elementary mathematics lesson (e.g., long division), develop step-by-step instructions on how to carry out the operation. • Given a high-school social studies topic, develop step-by-step instructions on how to conduct a literature review. • Given a high-school science topic, develop step-by-step instructions on how to write a lab report.
	S2A.4. Model appropriate language use.	• Given a topic (e.g., types of writing), explain the differences between argumentative and informational writing. • Model academic language through direct explanations/examples, referring to a previous discussion or explaining the answer.
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	S2B.1. Provide clear, detailed oral information or step-by-step instructions regarding classroom rules and behaviours.	• Issue instructions for organizing physical spaces, establishing relationships, facilitating interactions, motivating students, planning and giving instruction, maximizing on-task learning, maintaining order, and disciplining inappropriate behaviour. • Explain classroom rules in more than one way using language appropriate to the abilities and grade level of the students.
	S2B.2. Use commands to ensure students follow the classroom academic and behavioural rules.	• Use a variety of commands, including direct and indirect commands, suggestions, reasoning commands, "let's" imperatives, threats, choice commands, positive and negative commands, among others, that differ in form (e.g., suggestion, interrogation, question) or in specificity [e.g., an order, rule, or question to which a specific verbal or motor response is possible ("Stop kicking.""Stop talking.")], or vague and unclear commands to which a response is not possible ("Stop.").

COMPETENCY S2. **Lead and manage a variety of conversational exchanges appropriate to purpose and audience.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	S2C.1. Give presentations to small and large groups of parents and other professionals.	• Given a new reading strategy, give a 10-minute presentation at a staff meeting. • Give a presentation to colleagues to discuss pros and cons of a new learning software. • Given a student's academic profile, provide a five-minute summary of the student's progress.
	S2C.2. Lead conversations in a manner appropriate to situations and audiences.	• Using non-technical language, prepare a set of questions to elicit information from parents about a student's home activities and behaviours. • Given a topic (e.g., poor academic achievement of student), role-play a conversation with the student's parent.
COMPETENCY S3. **Fluently read aloud a variety of general, literary, and specialized/technical texts.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	S3A.1. Read aloud literary, general, and subject-specific texts of various complexity and topics as a part of instruction.	• Given a Grade 1 group of students, read aloud a storybook to the children (e.g., *The Grouchy Ladybug* by Eric Carle). • Given a Grade 1 group of students, read aloud a poem to the children (e.g., *A Giraffe and a Half* by Shel Silverstein). • Given a Grade 7 Social Studies class, read aloud a section on ancient Rome from the textbook. • Read aloud a model student's essay in response to a test question.
	S3A.2. Model effective oral reading strategies for different genres, structures, and formats.	• Read aloud a storybook to a Grade 3 group of students by employing appropriate literary devices such as pausing, questioning, surprise, excitement, etc., in correspondence with the story events.
	S3A.3. Read aloud drawings, charts, schemes, diagrams, and other visual instructions to teach procedures for class activities.	• Read aloud instructions in order to demonstrate how to build a birdhouse by following assembly drawings. • Read aloud the procedure to follow in order to conduct a science experiment on electricity.

COMPETENCY S3. **Fluently read aloud a variety of general, literary, and specialized/technical texts.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	S3B.1. Read aloud rules, procedures, schedules, or other information related to classroom management or other administrative matters.	• Read aloud to a class of students the procedures describing the behaviour rules for a field trip. • Read aloud timetables to find information about individual and group lessons to be prepared and delivered.
	S3B.2. Read aloud information on the forms or labels or in the tables.	• Read aloud directions for use on forms or labels of prescribed medications administered to children, such as how to administer a dose of injectable epinephrine if a student displays an allergic reaction to almonds.
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	S3C.1. Read aloud information of varying complexity and topics to parents and colleagues.	• Read aloud a student report card at a parent-teacher meeting. • Read aloud a presentation to school staff at a professional-development event.

READING: Foundational Language Benchmarks

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	**Level 2**	**Level 3**
Comprehension	Understanding of text content	Demonstrates a limited understanding of the text, its overall meaning and purpose, and limited number of specific details.	Demonstrates a partial understanding of the text, its purpose, main idea, and the essential elements, including some inferred meanings.	Demonstrates a thorough understanding of the text, its purpose, main idea, and the essential elements, including stated/unstated meanings.
	Demands on background knowledge	Makes simple connections between text and prior knowledge but cannot explain them, or the connections are irrelevant to the text.	Relates background knowledge/experience to the text and expands the interpretation of the text.	Evaluates and/or applies prior knowledge of the content and situation, including cultural understanding, relates it to the text, and makes connections beyond life experience and the immediate text.
	Comprehension monitoring	Identifies comprehension at word level and focuses primarily on "sounding out" the word properly.	Identifies comprehension problems at word and sentence level; articulates and uses a strategy to fix comprehension breakdown, usually at the word or sentence level.	Identifies comprehension problems at word, sentence, or text level; uses more than one appropriate strategy to build meaning when comprehension breaks down.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Comprehension	Locate/recall	Locates and describes/restates the overall meaning of the text, its purpose, and some key details.	Locates specific pieces of information in visually complex texts (e.g., tables, directories) or across paragraphs or sections of text and describes/restates the purpose, idea, factual details, communicative value of the text, and some inferred meanings from the text.	Locates comprehensive, relevant current information, ideas, and opinions about familiar and unfamiliar abstract and conceptual topics from primary and secondary propositionally, linguistically, stylistically, and culturally complex texts in demanding contexts of study and work and describes/restates the purpose, idea, factual details, communicative value, and stated/unstated facts, opinions, and attitudes relating to the text.
	Integrate/interpret	Is unable to make inferences and/or predictions from textual material.	Uses textual and contextual clues to interpret text and to make simple inferences and predictions.	Uses a broad range of complex and dense displays of information to develop sophisticated inferences and predictions.
	Critique/evaluate	Is unable to critique or evaluate the qualities of the text or information.	Uses simple criteria to evaluate or critique text or information.	Uses sophisticated criteria to evaluate or critique text or information.
Grammar	Grammatical structures	Reads and comprehends basic compound and short complex sentences and grammatical structures.	Reads and comprehends lengthy sentences and grammatical structures sometimes composed of multiple clauses.	Reads and comprehends lengthy or "packed" sentences with complicated syntax and a broad range of grammatical structures specific to general, academic, and professional domains.
Vocabulary	Vocabulary complexity	Follows and comprehends vocabulary that is inappropriate or inadequate for the task.	Follows and comprehends vocabulary that is appropriate and adequate for the task.	Follows and comprehends vocabulary that is sophisticated, precise, and appropriate to the task.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Vocabulary	Knowledge of professional terminology	Is unable to use basic subject-specific/professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology and is able to explain differences between similar subject-specific/professional terminology.
	Word recognition	Correctly recognizes "on sight" most high-frequency, phonetically regular words found in simple everyday texts.	Correctly recognizes "on sight" most multi-syllabic words and abbreviations found in everyday professional texts.	Correctly recognizes "on sight" complex multi-syllabic and technical words, abbreviations, and acronyms found in advanced work, community, and professional texts.
	Word parts	Correctly recognizes "on sight" print-sound correspondences in common two- and three-syllable words, but is unable to identify syllable patterns in more complex words.	Correctly recognizes "on sight" syllable patterns/ types, base words, and affixes in common and familiar multi-syllabic words.	Correctly recognizes "on sight" syllable patterns/ types, root words, and affixes in common and unfamiliar multi-syllabic words.
	Word meaning	Correctly applies (and interprets) common meanings of simple everyday words, but lacks knowledge of idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), and colloquialisms.	Correctly applies (and interprets) common meanings of general and simple professional terminology, high-frequency expressions and idioms found across a limited range of texts; however, may require clarification of idioms and colloquialisms.	Correctly applies (and interprets) low-frequency and nuanced meanings of general and professional terminology, expressions, idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), and colloquialisms found across a broad range of texts.
Content	Range of texts	Reads a range of personal and simple everyday and community texts.	Reads a limited range of introductory academic and professional texts and everyday and community documents.	Reads a broad range of general, literary, and specialized or technical (academic and professional) texts in own field.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Content	Complexity of texts	Reads brief, simple, connected texts with obvious, simple organizational structures (e.g., sequence, description).	Reads multi-page general, abstract, conceptual, or technical texts with moderately complex connected paragraphs with common organizational structures (e.g., cause/effect; compare/contrast).	Reads lengthy, dense, abstract, and/or complex connected texts with complex and unique organizational structures.
	Visual information	Reads some simple tables, graphs, maps, and diagrams conveying limited information.	Reads somewhat complex tables, graphs, maps, diagrams, political cartoons, and other visual presentations carrying several levels of information/ideas.	Reads complex tables, graphs, maps, diagrams, political cartoons, and other visual presentations carrying multiple levels of information/ideas.

READING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes

COMPETENCY R1	**Fluently read a variety of printed forms for high-level comprehension, critical appraisal, interpretation, evaluation, and synthesis.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** R1A.1. read and evaluate a variety of primary and secondary subject-specific sources that use a range of visual, tabular, and textual information to gain subject expertise and to select materials for classroom study. R1A.2. read policy and procedure manuals, curriculum guides, performance standards, and other documents that specify teaching procedures, curriculum content, and assessment criteria.	**Teachers use language to…** R1B.1. read policies, manuals, and other documents related to classroom management or other administrative matters.	**Teachers use language to…** R1C.1. read e-mails and letters from parents. R1C.2. read e-mails, handwritten notes, and short memos from administration and co-workers. R1C.3. read provincial/territorial, district, and school bulletins, manuals, and reports outlining provincial/territorial standards, policy and procedure changes, and announcements of upcoming events.

COMPETENCY R1	**Fluently read a variety of printed forms for high-level comprehension, critical appraisal, interpretation, evaluation, and synthesis.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** R1A.3. read, evaluate, and criticize a wide variety of stories, essays, and other texts written by students in order to provide feedback and assess performance and progress. R1A.4. read, evaluate, and synthesize student performance and progress on tracking forms and students' written assignments. R1A.5. identify reading materials that are at the student's instructional level.		

READING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes: Examples of Language Use by Domain

COMPETENCY R1. **Fluently read a variety of printed forms for high-level comprehension, critical appraisal, interpretation, evaluation, and synthesis.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	R1A.1. Read and evaluate a variety of primary and secondary subject-specific sources that use a range of visual, tabular, and textual information to gain subject expertise and to select materials for classroom study.	• Read about calculus and analytic geometry using various sources such as textbooks, trade journals, newspaper articles, and Internet Web sites in order to critique, evaluate, and synthesize the information in preparation for teaching an introductory unit. • Read Northrop Frye's *Anatomy of Criticism: Four Essays* to find specific examples to illustrate a thematic unit exploring the concept of forgiveness in Canadian literature. • Read and evaluate the quality of information contained in a *Wikipedia* article on Canadian Confederation to determine its usefulness as a supplementary resource.

COMPETENCY R1. **Fluently read a variety of printed forms for high-level comprehension, critical appraisal, interpretation, evaluation, and synthesis.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	R1A.2. Read policy and procedure manuals, curriculum guides, performance standards, and other documents that specify teaching procedures, curriculum content, and assessment criteria.	• Given a school subject (e.g., History), read the curriculum guide, learning objectives, performance standards, and evaluation criteria for an assigned grade level to extract information in preparation for the lesson. • Given a new job in a new school district, read material about such matters as the procedures for the maintenance of a teacher's day book, the preparation of lesson plans for supply or substitute teachers, the assignment of marks, or the return or retention of student work.
	R1A.3. Read, evaluate, and criticize a wide variety of stories, essays, and other texts written by students in order to provide feedback and assess performance and progress.	• Read student essays in order to critique features such as logical organization, word selection, and sentence construction.
	R1A.4. Read, evaluate, and synthesize student performance and progress on tracking forms and students' written assignments.	• Read, evaluate, and synthesize information from various student assignments across different subject areas to determine overall academic achievement, requirement for educational interventions, and overall development. • Read a new student's previous school records, paying close attention to aspects such as achievements at the academic and social levels, challenges faced, and assessments made by specialist physicians, psychologists, social workers, speech-language pathologists, and other specialists in order to adapt the learning environment to meet the student's needs.
	R1A.5. Identify reading materials that are at the student's instructional level.	• Read and review a variety of reading materials to determine which ones are appropriate for a Grade 5 second-language student with learning difficulties.

COMPETENCY R1. **Fluently read a variety of printed forms for high-level comprehension, critical appraisal, interpretation, evaluation, and synthesis.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	R1B.1. Read policies, manuals, and other documents related to classroom management or other administrative matters.	• Given a new job in a new school district, read the policy and procedures manual to learn the school's procedures for recording absences, submitting grades, referring students to educational services (e.g., mental-health specialist, second-language specialist, learning specialist, etc.). • Prior to supervising an after-school extracurricular activity, read the policy and procedures manual to learn about teachers' responsibilities and liabilities.
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	R1C.1. Read e-mails and letters from parents.	• Read and respond to an e-mail from a parent enquiring about supplementary materials for a Grade 2 student who is struggling with mathematics.
	R1C.2. Read e-mails, handwritten notes, and short memos from administration and co-workers.	• Read a memo from the school principal recommending a new textbook for Grade 12 chemistry and describing suggested class activities.
	R1C.3. Read provincial/territorial, district, and school bulletins, manuals, and reports outlining provincial/territorial standards, policy and procedure changes, and announcements of upcoming events.	• Read a district bulletin describing upcoming reforms to elementary education or new procedures for referring students with learning and psychosocial difficulties to psychologists and other professionals.

LISTENING: Foundational Language Benchmarks

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Comprehension	Understanding of the purpose/content of the speech input	Demonstrates a limited understanding of the speech, its overall meaning and purpose, and a limited number of specific details.	Demonstrates a partial understanding of the speech, its purpose, main idea, and the essential elements, including some inferred meanings.	Demonstrates a thorough understanding of the speech, its purpose, main idea, and essential elements, including stated/unstated meanings.
	Demands on background knowledge	Makes simple connections between the spoken input and prior knowledge but cannot explain them, or the connections are irrelevant to the speech input.	Relates background knowledge/experience, including social and some professional knowledge, to speech input and expands the interpretations of the speech input.	Evaluates and/or applies prior knowledge of the content and situation, including cultural understanding, academic and professional knowledge, relates it to the speech input, makes connections beyond life experience and the immediate speech, and anticipates and prepares for interactions.
	Comprehension monitoring	Does not identify comprehension problems.	Can identify comprehension problems but not their source.	Can identify comprehension problems and their source.
	Stress and intonation	Recognizes common instances of how stress, intonation, rhythm, and pauses are used to convey emphasis, mood, meaning, or intention in familiar situations.	Recognizes some instances of how stress, intonation, rhythm, and pauses are used to convey emphasis, mood, meaning, or intention in familiar and unfamiliar situations.	Recognizes a broad range of instances of how stress, intonation, rhythm, and pauses are used to convey emphasis, mood, meaning, or intention in familiar and unfamiliar situations.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Comprehension	Locate/recall	Locates and describes/ restates the overall meaning and purpose of the speech input and some key details.	Locates specific pieces of information in moderately complex speech inputs or across various conversations/ oral discourses and describes/restates the purpose, idea, factual details, communicative value of the oral discourse, and some inferred meanings from the speech input.	Locates comprehensive, relevant current information, ideas, and opinions on familiar and unfamiliar abstract and conceptual topics from a wide variety of propositionally, linguistically, stylistically, and culturally complex oral discourses in demanding contexts of study and work, and describes/restates the purpose, idea, factual details, communicative value, and stated/unstated facts, opinions, and attitudes relating to the speech input.
	Integrate/interpret	Is unable to make inferences and/or predictions from oral information.	Uses contextual clues to interpret oral information to make simple inferences and predictions.	Uses contextual clues to interpret oral information to develop sophisticated inferences and predictions.
	Critique/evaluate	Is unable to critique or evaluate the qualities of oral information.	Uses simple criteria to evaluate or critique oral information.	Uses sophisticated criteria to evaluate or critique oral information.
Grammar	Grammatical structures	Follows and comprehends basic compound and short grammatical structures.	Follows and comprehends some lengthy sentences and somewhat complex grammatical structures.	Follows and comprehends lengthy or "packed" sentences with complicated syntax and a broad range of complex grammatical structures specific to general, academic, and professional domains.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Vocabulary	Vocabulary complexity	Vocabulary comprehension is inappropriate or inadequate for the task.	Follows and comprehends vocabulary that is appropriate and adequate for the task.	Follows and comprehends vocabulary that is sophisticated, precise, and appropriate for the task.
	Knowledge of professional terminology	Is unable to use basic subject-specific/ professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology.	Uses subject-specific/ professional terminology and is able to explain differences between similar subject-specific/ professional terminology.
	Word recognition	Correctly recognizes the pronunciation of most high-frequency, phonetically regular words found in simplified everyday oral communications.	Correctly recognizes the pronunciation of most multi-syllabic words and abbreviations found in everyday and in simple professional oral communications.	Correctly recognizes the pronunciation of complex multi-syllabic and technical words, abbreviations, and acronyms found in advanced work, community, and professional communications.
	Word meaning	Correctly interprets common meanings of simple everyday words but lacks knowledge of idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), colloquialisms, and sociocultural references.	Correctly interprets common meanings of general and simple professional terminology, high-frequency expressions and idioms found across a limited range of texts; however, may require clarification of idioms, colloquialisms, and of various cultural references.	Correctly interprets appropriate and nuanced meanings of general and professional terminology, expressions, idioms, symbolic language (e.g., metaphors), colloquialisms, abbreviations, and various sociocultural references found across a broad range of texts.

CATEGORIES	FEATURES	STAGES OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY		
		Level 1	Level 2	Level 3
Context	Range of input	Follows, although with considerable effort, simple formal and informal conversations and other listening texts/discourse on topics of immediate personal relevance.	Follows most formal and informal general conversations and some technical, work-related discourse in own field.	Competently and fluently interprets all spoken discourse, formal and informal, general, and technical, in a broad range of demanding social, literary, academic, and professional contexts.
	Complexity of input	Follows short monologues, presentations, and dialogues (several exchange turns).	Follows relatively short monologues/presentations and dialogues.	Follows lengthy monologues, dialogues, and multiple dialogues.
Strategic competence	Communication breakdown	Fails to recognize instances of communication breakdown.	Recognizes instances of obvious communication breakdown.	Recognizes instances of subtle communication breakdown.

LISTENING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes

COMPETENCY L1	**Skillfully listen to formal and informal oral discourses in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** L1A.1. listen to and assess student recall of information in response to a question during a lesson. L1A.2. listen to, interpret, and assess student answers to open-ended questions expressed in their own words. L1A.3. listen to and interpret class discussion.	**Teachers use language to…** L1B.1. listen to the classroom to ensure students are behaving and on task. L1B.2. listen to input or concerns from students.	**Teachers use language to…** L1C.1. listen to parents' concerns about the academic achievement or behavioural issues of their child. L1C.2. listen to messages from the school principal, teachers, or administrators at regular staff meetings.

LISTENING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes

COMPETENCY L1	**Skillfully listen to formal and informal oral discourses in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
DOMAINS	**A. Instructing and assessing**	**B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour**	**C. Communicating with parents and professionals**
PERFORMANCE OUTCOMES	**Teachers use language to…** L1A.4. listen to and assess student reading skills during a read-aloud lesson. L1A.5. listen to, watch, extract, and evaluate information related to curricular topics from various sources such as newscasts, videos, audiobooks, etc.		**Teachers use language to…** L1C.3. listen to recommendations from educational specialists such as second-language teachers, speech-language pathologists, mental-health counsellors, etc., in regard to a student's performance. L1C.4. listen to speakers at conferences or professional development events.

LISTENING: Occupation-Specific Performance Outcomes: Examples of Language Use by Domain

COMPETENCY L1. **Skillfully listen to formal and informal oral discourses in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	L1A.1. Listen to and assess student recall of information in response to a question during a lesson.	• During a mathematics lesson, listen to students' oral responses to multiplication questions. • During a social studies lesson, listen to students' explanations of events of the French Revolution.
	L1A.2. Listen to, interpret, and assess student answers to open-ended questions expressed in their own words.	• During a science lesson, listen to a student explain the difference between weather and climate with the purpose of providing comments and feedback or to prompt for more information to check for understanding of concepts.
	L1A.3. Listen to and interpret class discussion.	• During a class discussion on a selected topic, listen to students debate whether they are for or against with the purpose of providing comment and feedback or to prompt for more information to check for high-level understanding of issues.

COMPETENCY L1. **Skillfully listen to formal and informal oral discourses in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
A. Instructing and assessing	L1A.4. Listen to and assess student reading skills during a read-aloud lesson.	• During a language arts class, listen to a student read from a storybook with the purpose of providing feedback and modelling on vocabulary, pronunciation, stress, intonation, rhythm, and pausing.
	L1A.5. Listen to, watch, extract, and evaluate information related to curricular topics from various sources such as newscasts, videos, audiobooks, etc.	• Watch a newscast of current events in preparation for a social studies lesson. • Watch a National Geographic video to prepare a lesson about African lions.
B. Managing the classroom and student behaviour	L1B.1. Listen to the classroom to ensure students are behaving and on task.	• While presenting instructions on conducting a science experiment, passively listen to the students to ensure they are paying attention. • Listen to the classroom while students work on their own to ensure all students are on task.
	L1B.2. Listen to input or concerns from students.	• Listen to a student explain why he or she got into an argument with another student. • Listen to a student explain why his or her homework is not done.
C. Communicating with parents and professionals	L1C.1. Listen to parents' concerns about the academic achievement or behavioural issues of their child.	• Listen to the parent of a special-needs child explain his or her child's physical or intellectual capabilities. • Listen to the parents of a low-achieving student describe their child's behavioural or academic problems.
	L1C.2. Listen to messages from the school principal, teachers, or administrators at regular staff meetings.	• Listen to the principal discuss changes to the policy for school absences. • Listen to teachers present a new teaching strategy adopted by the school district for students at risk of reading difficulties.

COMPETENCY L1. **Skillfully listen to formal and informal oral discourses in a broad range of situations using technical or non-technical language.**		
Domains	**Performance outcomes**	**Examples of language use**
C. Communicating with parents and professionals *(cont'd)*	L1C.3. Listen to recommendations from educational specialists such as second-language teachers, speech-language pathologists, mental-health counsellors, etc., in regard to a student's performance.	• Listen to recommendations from a speech-language pathologist for facilitating the teaching of reading to a special-needs student. • Listen to suggestions from an educational specialist about a reading intervention for students at risk of reading difficulties. • Listen to input from a mental-health counsellor in regard to a student who is acting out due to parental separation.
	L1C.4. Listen to speakers at conferences or professional development events.	• Listen to a presentation by a group of researchers at an educational research conference about a study assessing the impact of a mathematics intervention. • Listen to a group of teachers presenting new educational resources for science teachers at a professional development workshop.

This framework will ultimately form the basis for the development of teaching-specific language-proficiency assessment tools. In particular, the tools will assess the individual performance outcomes in each of the language domains and across each of the domains of practice.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