

# GUIDE FOR THE DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF CURRICULA FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION



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COUNCIL OF EUROPE



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## Foreword to the first edition

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**T**he decision to prepare, discuss and distribute this text was one of the results of the Intergovernmental Policy Forum, organised in Strasbourg on 6-8 February 2007<sup>1</sup> by the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division and focused on "The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the development of language policies: challenges and responsibilities".

The discussion and exchange at that forum certainly showed beyond question that the CEFR had succeeded at the European level. But they also showed that the uses made of it tapped only part of its considerable potential and even, in some cases, disregarded certain values which the Council of Europe's member states promote, and which underlie the approaches it describes. This obvious imbalance in implementation of the CEFR's provisions chiefly affects plurilingual and intercultural education, although this is one of the CEFR's main emphases. In fact, few language curricula are consistently geared to such education. Participants at the forum stressed the need for a document which would expound the various aspects of that dimension and explain how it could be implemented, taking as a basis the CEFR and other Council of Europe texts, particularly the "Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe".

Work on this text really began at a seminar hosted in Amsterdam on 31 January-1 February 2008 by the SLO, the Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development, and co-organised by the CIDREE (Consortium of Institutions for Development and Research in Education in Europe) and the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division. The Amsterdam seminar set the ball rolling, but preparation of this text also drew on work subsequently done by the Language Policy Division, particularly on the contribution made by languages of schooling to pupil success in all school subjects. This work is part of the Division's project Languages in Education – Languages for Education, whose insights and first results were made generally available in a "Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education"<sup>2</sup>. They suggest new approaches supplementing those detailed in the above texts – and this one seeks to draw first lessons from them.

This document is aimed at all those involved in teaching foreign languages or languages of schooling, and particularly those responsible for curriculum planning at national, regional, local and also school level.

It is divided into three parts, and the first gives readers a general picture of the components of plurilingual and intercultural education, possible approaches to implementing them, and the conditions governing their inclusion in curricula (Chapter 1). Subsequent chapters discuss two basic questions raised in the first one: preparation phases and content of a curriculum focused on plurilingual and intercultural education (Chapter 2); distribution of this content and these aims throughout schooling with the help of curriculum scenarios (Chapter 3). Five appendices deal with specific points in greater detail.

This first version will be circulated at the Language Policy Forum in Geneva on 2-4 November 2010 ("The right of learners to quality and equity in education – the role of language and intercultural competences"). Extensive consultation has helped to expand, refine and clarify its content.

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1. [www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR) → Forum 2007.

2. [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform).



## Foreword to the second edition

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**F**ive years have elapsed since the Geneva Conference (2010). On the timescale of educational change, that is not a long period, but it was enough to prompt the authors of the initial version of this Guide to return to the drawing board, and to take into account the feedback received. More importantly, they felt that they should incorporate the many inputs provided by subsequent work on the role of languages in learner education.

They drew on seminars centred on the Guide and related topics, including:

- ▶ Curriculum convergences for plurilingual and intercultural education (29-30 November 2011);
- ▶ Plurilingual and intercultural education in vocational education and training curricula (10-11 May 2012);
- ▶ Plurilingual and intercultural education in primary education (22-23 November 2012) and the Intergovernmental Conference on Quality and Inclusion: the unique role of language (18-19 September 2013).<sup>3</sup>

Thinking on languages of schooling in conjunction with the concept of subject literacy began to develop before the Guide came into being, but it took on an added dimension after 2010 with, in particular, the drafting of another guide, entitled “The language dimension in all subjects – A guide for curriculum development and teacher training”, presented at an Intergovernmental Conference in October 2015. This new version will reflect both those concerns and the emergence, in the field, of the notion of mediation (2.7), a notion also discussed in another Council of Europe paper entitled “Education, mobility, otherness – The mediation function of schools”<sup>4</sup>

These differences of emphases and the appearance of new themes of study have not resulted in a drastically new version of the Guide. Its general structure has been preserved, with three main sections, and it retains the appendices (which have been updated). Chapter 2 has undergone the most conspicuous changes in this updating: it has been expanded to give a clearer and more concrete picture of what plurilingual and intercultural education can be when translated into practice (as opposed to grand ideas), in other words when incorporated into curricula and teaching activities. These new “modules” describe the cross-cutting elements that need to be promoted in order to try to interlink the different kinds of language teaching, without this leading to the disappearance of traditional school subjects. In its revised version, Chapter 3 offers an approach to the issue by level or stage of education and an insight into the curriculum development process, as well as discussing curriculum scenarios.

Like the first, this second version does not provide descriptions of activities that could be used directly in the classroom. The authors feel, however, that it contains enough strategic guidance to enable certain activities to be designed and thus help towards the development of plurilingual and intercultural education in education systems, as an indispensable factor in the social cohesion of contemporary European societies.

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3. The programmes, including presentations, and reports of these seminars and the conference are available at [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Events 2012 and 2013.

4. See Coste, D. and Cavalli, M. (2015), *Education, mobility, otherness – The mediation function of schools*,. Council of Europe, Strasbourg: [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.





# Executive summary

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**T**his Guide is intended to facilitate improved implementation of the values and principles of plurilingual and intercultural education in the teaching of all languages – foreign, regional or minority, classical, and language(s) of schooling.

Plurilingual and intercultural education is a response to the needs and requirements of quality education, covering: acquisition of competences, knowledge, dispositions and attitudes, diversity of learning experiences, and construction of individual and collective cultural identities. Its aim is to make teaching more effective and increase the contribution it makes both to school success for the most vulnerable learners and to social cohesion.

The ideas and proposals put forward in the text form part of the Council of Europe Language Policy Unit's project Languages in Education – Languages for Education, contributions to which are published on a "Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education"<sup>5</sup>.

The text comprises three chapters. The first provides a general picture of the issues and principles involved in designing and/or improving curricula, and of pedagogical and didactic approaches which open the way to fuller realisation of the general aim of plurilingual and intercultural education. The next two chapters look more closely at two basic questions raised in the first: what is the specific content of plurilingual and intercultural education and what are its specific aims? How can they be assessed and promoted in teacher training? How can they be gradually incorporated into curricula at the different stages of education while respecting the specific content and aims of teaching individual languages? How can curriculum scenarios be used to plan the distribution over time of this content and these objectives? Finally, several appendices provide tools and reference lists. All of this can also be supplemented by consulting the ancillary documents available on the above-mentioned Platform.

Some approaches to learning, such as the use of the *European Language Portfolio* or the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, receive little mention in the body of the text and are dealt with in the appendices. They are nevertheless implicit throughout, and should be a natural concomitant of progress towards plurilingual and intercultural education.

This document is a revised and expanded version of the one circulated at the Language Policy Forum in Geneva (2-4 November 2010).

## Chapter 1 – Designing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

The text's vision of the curriculum can be summed up as follows:<sup>6</sup>

- ▶ The school ("educational") curriculum, which organises learning, is itself part of an "experiential" and "existential" curriculum which extends beyond the school.
- ▶ The development and implementation of a curriculum cover numerous activities on various levels of the education system: international (supra), national/regional (macro), school (meso), class, teaching group or teacher (micro) or even individual (nano). These levels interact, and curriculum planning must allow for all of them.
- ▶ To ensure its overall coherence, curriculum planning must cover various aspects of schooling (general aims, specific aims/competences, teaching content, approaches and activities, groupings, spatio-temporal dimensions, materials and resources, role of teachers, co-operation, assessment). Decisions on these issues are taken on many different levels, and the societal context and status of the languages concerned must be analysed closely in each case.

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5. [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform).

6. This vision of the curriculum is based on the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* and on the work of the SLO (Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development: [www.slo.nl](http://www.slo.nl)).

- ▶ To be efficient, school curricula must co-ordinate the pace of competence acquisition in the various subjects taught and identify transferable competences which promote (longitudinal and horizontal) coherence between them.

**Plurilingual and intercultural competence** is the ability to use a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources to meet communication needs or interact with other people, and enrich that repertoire while doing so. Plurilingual competence refers to the repertoire of resources which individual learners acquire in all the languages they know or have learned, and which also relate to the cultures associated with those languages (languages of schooling, regional/minority and migration languages, modern or classical languages); pluriculturality denotes the ability to participate in different cultures, *inter alia* by acquiring several languages. Intercultural competence, for its part, is the ability to experience otherness and cultural diversity, to analyse that experience and to derive benefit from it. Once acquired, intercultural competence makes it easier to understand otherness, establish cognitive and affective links between past and new experiences of otherness, mediate between members of two (or more) social groups and their cultures, and question the assumptions of one's own cultural group and environment.

In curriculum development, the aims must accordingly be both specific to the teaching of individual languages and their cultures, and transferable to the teaching of other subjects too. These aims are to:

- ▶ make the teaching approaches of different subjects (content, methods, terminology) more consistent with one another;
- ▶ identify bridges between subjects, and pace learning to ensure such coherence;
- ▶ highlight language components shared by the various subjects learned;
- ▶ promote awareness of possible transfers;
- ▶ link knowledge and skills for the purpose of developing intercultural competence.

**The given educational context** determines the relative importance – at various stages in the curriculum – of communication competences, intercultural competences, aesthetic and literary experiences, developing reflective abilities, devising strategies applicable to various subjects, promoting autonomy, and cognitive development.

Context also determines the extent to which plurilingual and intercultural education can be integrated within the curriculum. This can range from:

- ▶ working towards increased synergy between the teaching of modern and classical languages, and greater co-ordination between teachers, to
- ▶ making plurilingual and intercultural education an explicit general aim, treating all teaching of/in languages (including languages of schooling) as a single process, encouraging teachers to work closely together, and attaching equal importance to openness to languages and cultures, communication and (inter)cultural competences, learner autonomy and cross-cutting competences.

To accommodate plurilingual and intercultural education, existing curricula may have to be modified substantially – but without abandoning the aims of the previous curriculum. Any initiative in one of the directions we have indicated is a positive step towards plurilingual and intercultural education.

## **Chapter 2 – Establishing points of convergence and encouraging cross-cutting links between all the languages taught at school**

The central element in plurilingual and intercultural education is the establishment of cross-linkages between the language(s) of schooling (main language, regional/minority language or foreign language in the case of bi-/plurilingual teaching) and foreign languages as subjects, as well as other subjects, whose linguistic dimensions must not be overlooked. Based on the agreed goals, specific aims will need to be defined at least partially on the basis of identical categories or comparable activities (for example, strategies for understanding written texts, strategies for improvising non-interactive oral texts, reflective observation and analysis of linguistic phenomena); also to be identified are transferable intercultural competences and activities or tasks, particularly comparison activities, which involve using other languages. This chapter describes cross-cutting elements that need to be promoted in order to try to interlink the different kinds of language teaching, without this leading to the disappearance of the identity of traditional school subjects.

The **CEFR descriptors (2.1)** can obviously be used to define target competences in foreign languages. In the language of schooling, these will vary with levels of schooling and the needs of certain groups. In general, "levels" should be dropped in favour of **competence profiles**, which provide a more accurate picture of learners' actual

skills in their languages. A single document should be prepared in each context, laying down an integrated competence profile for all languages, while emphasising the special role of each, *inter alia* for intercultural competence. The CEFR typology (general competences and communicative language competences) and the typology for language communication activities can together serve as a starting point. Proposals contained in the “Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education”<sup>7</sup> can be added to cover literary texts and identity-building functions of languages. This typology also takes account of the language dimensions of learning strategies which are valid for various **subjects (2.2)**.

One important point of contact between subjects is **linguistic reflexivity (2.3)**, whose purpose is to objectify learners’ intuitions concerning the way in which languages work. Reflexivity helps to create a distancing effect in relation to languages, in the form of a certain awareness of the processes involved in learning. The learners make their own learning or experience a subject of analysis and self-knowledge. It is generally agreed that this distancing enhances knowledge acquisition and transfer skills and makes for better control of the use of competences acquired, or in the process of being acquired, and this applies to all subjects (maths, history, biology, etc.). Metalinguistic reflexivity in learners may have a bearing on their communicative resources, in less technical ways than grammatical analysis, on their language repertoire, on the diversity of textual genres or on their awareness of the variability of sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms. Reflexivity also has an influence on cultural and intercultural discoveries (including the “awakened” experience of otherness).

Particular attention is paid to **approaches encouraging reflexivity in grammar teaching (2.4)**. What are traditionally known as grammatical activities are present in many educational cultures, for the language(s) of schooling as subject(s) as much as for foreign languages. The main language of schooling should be linked more closely with the foreign languages taught, because this decentering process brings out the workings of the different languages by contrast. These activities are viewed from the angle of the reflexivity which it is their role to develop, the techniques for analysing language and the different forms which grammatical reflexivity may take depending on the extent to which it is reflected in teaching (“external” grammar) or actually taken on board by learners, with varying degrees of involvement.

The school curriculum and its experiential path provide learners with an insight into the interplay between **norms and variation (2.5)**. This is something which needs to be made explicit and given careful consideration rather than passed over in silence or reduced to its most codified aspects. This Guide does not take the view that linguistic education should initially involve the imposition of a “standard” to which variations could subsequently be added, but rather that norms are assimilated by working on, and making use of, variation. Each school subject has its own agenda in terms of the knowledge and competences it is intended to instil, its internal use of linguistic variation and the norms it applies in that context. Each subject’s interaction formats, textual genres and semiotic representations, and the related linguistic resources, need to be highlighted by teachers in order to be brought to the attention of pupils. This applies in particular to classes comprising pupils from varied linguistic and social backgrounds. Lastly, to emphasise the plurality of norms and the functional role it plays in teaching and learning is also to open the way to a plurality of assessment goals and methods, including, for example, the recognition of error as a necessary part of the acquisition process.

The development of cross-linkages calls for utilisation of the **similarity and dissimilarity between languages (2.6)** in the curriculum. On the one hand, this means facilitating transfer between repertoire resources – linguistic resources proper in the case of closely related languages or cross-cutting cognitive processes in the case of more distantly related languages. On the other hand, contrastive methodology will also bring out the distinctive features and the differences. This process of decompartmentalisation may also apply to subjects other than languages. The implementation of this approach involves the use of learning activities such as intercomprehension (i.e. the ability of two speakers each speaking their language to understand one another). Furthermore, the design of learning goals and experiential paths should reflect a concern for efficiency, contrary to common current practice. For example, if the languages to be learned are closely related (same language group, neighbouring languages in geographical terms), progression can be much faster and goals more ambitious than in the case of more distantly related languages.

**Mediation (2.7)** may be defined as an operation aimed at reducing the distance between two poles of otherness. Developing the ability to build bridges or narrow the gap between different individuals, contexts or communities forms part of the mission of every education system. Mediation is also central to the teaching–learning process, not only in the context of teacher–learner interaction but also in that of interaction between learners or between teaching materials and learners. Although part of the teaching and learning of all subjects, it manifests itself differently in each one. In modern language teaching, presented as an emblematic example,

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7. [www.coe.int/lang-platform/](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform/).

mediation may be defined as an interface between comprehension and production. The strong emphasis on both the plurilingual and the cultural dimension in foreign language mediation activities means that mediation is an important part of any curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education.

**Textual genres (2.8)** are one possible link between subjects. A person's discourse repertoire comprises the genres which he or she can deploy in one or more languages, to varying degrees and for various purposes, at a given moment. The communicative profile aimed at in language teaching must include all the genres which a learner is expected to be capable of using for reception and/or production in verbal communication.

**Intercultural education (2.9)** aims to develop open, reflective and critical attitudes in order to learn to take a positive view of, and derive benefit from, all forms of contact with otherness. It seeks to mitigate the ego-/ethnocentric attitudes which arise from encounters with the unknown. Necessarily cross-cutting in nature, intercultural education is not associated exclusively with language teaching, which is, however, the domain *par excellence* for contact with cultural otherness. The knowledge and scientific approaches involved in subjects such as maths and history must also be regarded as cultural in nature. Their task is to help learners to progress from ordinary world views to scientifically based representations, particularly as regards life in society, and also to usher them into a new culture of communication. Teaching in all subjects therefore has a combined responsibility to give learners the opportunity for new cultural experiences, prepare them for participatory citizenship and educate them in otherness.

**Section 2.10** deals with assessment issues. **Assessment of learners' achievements** is necessary, but caution is needed in reaching conclusions. Summative or certification assessment is possible, using stringent methods, but most assessment will be formative, and emphasise self-assessment. It may be based on exercises which are aimed at a specific language, but can highlight cross-cutting competences when similar tests are used in different languages or the ability of learners to switch between languages in an appropriate manner is mobilised.

**Evaluating implementation of the curriculum** and its effects on teaching methods is also a complex undertaking. Analysis of the results achieved must take account of factors outside the classroom, and the criteria applied must include the impact of holistic teaching on curriculum effectiveness, de-compartmentalisation of subjects and the emergence in schools of genuine educational communities – which obviously implies gradual change, and not “curriculum revolution”.

**Teacher training** is crucial to doing all this (2.11). In particular, it is desirable to work on social perceptions of plurilingualism, and especially on the development of plurilingual repertoires, to identify the most strategic or accessible points of contact between teachers of different subjects, as well as “points of professional interest”, which can be used as a focus for interdisciplinary transfers and complementarities.

The importance attached to cross-linkages between subjects in no way implies that the place and role of specific school subjects are being challenged. The intention is, rather, to organise them in cohesive activity groups, and even introduce new subjects (for example, language awareness, particularly at pre-primary and primary level). Another aim is to build curricula around types of activity which promote exchange between teachers, teachers and learners, and learners – and encourage learners not to restrict themselves to certain languages.

### **Chapter 3 – Organising a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education**

This chapter gives a more detailed description of ways in which certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education can be gradually brought into existing curricula. It proposes an **approach to this issue by educational level (3.1)**. It therefore deals with the chronological – “vertical” – distribution of the content and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education, the convergences between languages and between subjects, to be established by level and by year, and the overall coherence of curricular choices. The word “curriculum” necessarily implies continuity of the teaching and learning process, but also its synchronic – “horizontal” – coherence, by level and by year. Another thing to be considered here is the **experiential aspect** of any curriculum which seeks to ensure quality education: for a language-learning culture to emerge, learners must experience a range of different learning modes. In other words, approaches to learning and teaching languages must both be varied. A plurilingual and intercultural education project needs to specify not only the aims and levels to be achieved, but also types of experience to which learners will be exposed in order to pursue their school careers under favourable conditions.

**Regarding the curriculum development process (3.2 to 3.6)**, a number of basic principles are posited:

- ▶ Analysing the existing situation (particularly resources available) is an essential preliminary if innovation is to be a step-by-step and not an all-or-nothing process.

- ▶ Once the decision-making levels involved have been identified, all the players (including national and regional authority representatives) must be informed, brought into the process and given any training they require, the aim being to create a school ethos and promote networking. Communication and co-ordination with civil society and the local community are also desirable.
- ▶ Analysing the sociolinguistic context and school culture is particularly important: language varieties present, perceptions of languages and plurilingualism, requirements and existing ways of meeting them, teaching traditions, verbal behaviour expected, etc.
- ▶ Before aims and content are defined, thought must be given to the choice of the language(s) of schooling, to which explicit general aims are assigned, to the languages offered and the order in which they are introduced, to the status of regional/minority or migration languages, and to the possible effects – some of them unintended – of those choices.
- ▶ Coherence must be sought both within each year of education and in the course for each subject, and also between subjects. Identifying language needs, and target competences and levels for each language activity, devising curriculum scenarios to co-ordinate courses over time, preparing syllabus documents, monitoring quality of implementation, etc. – these are all necessary stages in the process.

The chapter emphasises the **differentiation of approaches** according to the target group, with particular reference to **pupils from migration or underprivileged socio-economic backgrounds (3.7)**. There is, in fact, a broad area where the two groups intersect, even though they must be distinguished, and are not covered by any one “prototypical case”; they are entitled, like others, to the learning experiences referred to above, and their syllabus must not be reduced, depriving them of skills, knowledge and perspectives on the world from which other pupils benefit. Children from underprivileged backgrounds have needs which make it essential to expose them to all forms of expression, emphasise the relationship between variation and norms, and focus on diversity of language systems and of the rules which govern their social uses. Children with migrant backgrounds are not, for their part, a homogeneous group; indeed, they exemplify the increasing heterogeneity of school populations. Nonetheless, it should be noted, regarding the status of these children’s languages of origin, that: these languages are a resource which schools can turn to good account in educating all pupils, and not simply a barrier to success for children who speak them; the life and career plans of children in this category cannot be prejudged; and schools must also ensure that the price of integrating them within the host country’s school system and community is not sudden, total severance from their first environment.

Plurilingual and intercultural education depends on spreading specific aims and teaching content over the whole schooling process, thus promoting vertical and horizontal coherence. **“Curriculum scenarios” embody a forward-looking approach (3.8)** which can be used to link general aims with curriculum features which help to realise them, and find the type of curriculum best suited to the requirements and possibilities of a given context. Curriculum scenarios offer models for the chronological division of these experiences between the different stages of schooling. To take just one example, the scenario for pre-primary education proposes the following types of experience suited to the age of pupils and the period of cognitive, affective and social development through which they are passing:

- ▶ experience of linguistic and cultural diversity, and particularly that present in the class;
- ▶ experience of listening to others, of interaction norms, etc., as part of educating pupils to respect others;
- ▶ experience of the ways in which forms of expression can vary (spatial expression in gesture and movement, first forms of oralised literacy, register variation, etc.);
- ▶ multimodal and multisensorial experiences (contact with various semiological and graphic systems, restitution of a message via another sense, gestures preparatory to writing, etc.);
- ▶ initial experience of the first foreign language and culture (counting rhymes, etc.);
- ▶ first experience of thinking about languages, human communication and cultural identities, in terms which children of that age can grasp.

Obviously, these lists, which are neither exhaustive nor ranked in order of importance, become fuller and more complex as learners advance to upper secondary level, while questions relating to assessment and expected competence profiles are answered differently on different levels.

The division of aims and content between stages in schooling and levels of teaching must respect the given context. **Four prototypical cases (3.9)** are used to illustrate this principle, and outline scenarios are presented for each: introduction of the first foreign language at primary level, and the second at secondary level (the commonest pattern in Europe); language teaching at secondary vocational level; teaching of regional languages; bilingual education.

The basic scenario for the first prototypical case indicates aims and methods suited to each stage in schooling, provides for the gradual introduction of several languages, makes the language of schooling a part of plurilingual and intercultural education, diversifies learning methods and use of these languages, promotes reflection on variations between and within them, emphasises bridges between subjects, and takes due account of the aims of intercultural education.

For the other cases, two types of scenarios are given: the first type is primarily based on the gradual building of synergies between different language courses; the second is more broadly based on the overall dynamics of the curriculum.

All these specimen scenarios have certain common features:

- ▶ they adopt a holistic approach, in which curriculum planning covers learners' repertoire languages, languages in their environment and languages taught in schools;
- ▶ they respect the linguistic and cultural rights of learners, including the most vulnerable;
- ▶ they give all teaching of languages and other subjects an intercultural dimension;
- ▶ they set out to generate synergies between the teaching of various languages, with a view to coherent and efficient learning, including "partial" competences and inter-/translingual strategies;
- ▶ they allow for the function of languages as a knowledge-building instrument.

**Coherence does not mean, however, that approaches and methods are standardised.** Target competence profiles and aims can vary greatly. Similarly, spreading the hours available over the school week is not necessarily the only temporal format. Globalisation of hours devoted to languages, modules, parallel or staggered learning of different languages and suspension of teaching and/or changes in perspective are possible alternatives.

## Chapter 1

# Designing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

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**T**his chapter sets out the main lines of a curriculum designed to realise the goal of plurilingual and intercultural education for all learners, whether plurilingual by origin or plurilingual through schooling. After explaining the aims and values of this type of education (1.1), the chapter offers an overall vision of the curriculum. It describes certain curriculum components falling under different levels of responsibility (international, state/region, school, class, individual) involved in the planning and development of a curriculum, and gives an overview of the main aspects that should be taken into account (1.2). Some key concepts, such as plurilingualism, repertoire, cross-cutting competences and curricular coherence, are then defined (1.3). The chapter goes on to discuss the requirements for developing a plurilingual and intercultural education curriculum (1.4) and ends with a description of several possible forms of convergence between languages incorporating the principles outlined in the curriculum (1.5).

### 1.1. AIMS AND VALUES OF PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

Plurilingual and intercultural education is a concept developed by the Council of Europe's Language Policy Unit since the late 1990s as the basis for an education in and through cultural and linguistic diversity in societies marked by increasing mobility, plurality and complexity.

#### 1.1.1. Plurilingual and intercultural education – quality education

Plurilingual and intercultural education is an overall linguistic education cutting across all school languages and all subject areas and guided by the values upheld by the Council of Europe. It is neither a revolution in nor a new methodology for language teaching. It incorporates all of the languages taught at school into an overall conceptual framework, but does not take the place of the teaching methods specific to each. Plurilingual and intercultural education takes into account the educational and language needs of all pupils, whatever path they are taking through school. It takes the form of an overarching educational project which gives access to all pupils – especially those likely to encounter most difficulty at school – to equity and quality of education.

Plurilingual and intercultural education has two aims. First, it facilitates the acquisition of linguistic and intercultural abilities: this involves adding to the linguistic and cultural resources which make up individual repertoires, using the available means efficiently. It covers the teaching of all languages, be they languages of schooling, foreign languages, regional or minority languages, or classical languages. Aims differ according to learners' needs, languages and contexts.

Secondly, it promotes personal development, so that individuals can realise their full potential: this involves encouraging them to respect and accept diversity of languages and cultures in a multilingual and multicultural society, and helping to make them aware of the extent of their own competences and development potential.

Participation in democratic and social processes is facilitated if every citizen possesses plurilingual competence. Effective learning of one or more languages, awareness of the value of diversity and otherness, and recognition of the utility of any (even partial) competence are necessary for anyone who, as an active member



of the community, has to exercise his or her democratic citizenship in a multilingual and multicultural society. Democratic citizenship “is a right and indeed a responsibility to participate in the cultural, social and economic life and in public affairs of the community together with others”<sup>8</sup>

The aims of plurilingual and intercultural education, proposed to the member states as a response to the growing plurality of our societies, have been defined in numerous Council of Europe documents.<sup>9</sup> It needs to be viewed in relation to the right of every individual to education.<sup>10</sup> The acquisition of competences in the language of schooling contributes to pupils’ academic success and to equality of opportunity; the goal pursued is to give everyone the highest possible standard, with equality of results as the horizon of expectation. The acquisition of language-related competences, knowledge, dispositions and attitudes also helps to build individual and collective cultural identities that are at once aware, diverse and open. These different components of plurilingual and intercultural education tend to foster inclusion and social cohesion; they are a preparation for democratic citizenship and contribute to the establishment of a knowledge society.

### **1.1.2. Characteristics of a curriculum meeting the aims and values of plurilingual and intercultural education**

The characteristics of a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum derive from the values and principles on which this vision of education is based. Such curricula will enable every learner to maintain, recognise the value of and expand his or her language repertoire. This applies as much to learners who become plurilingual through schooling as to those who have other languages in their repertoire through their family background. Learners will gain by having the opportunity to utilise the resources of their initial repertoire, whatever it may be, to build the other language competences necessary for community living: in the first instance, the language of schooling, foreign languages and, in the case of learners who are plurilingual by origin, if they and/or their parents so wish, their first language (language of the home), whether it is a dialect, a regional or minority language or a migration language. Learners will derive benefit from being enabled to perceive the creative potential of every language, making it possible for them to create new linguistic forms and giving access to the world of the imagination. Lastly, they will be given the opportunity to acquire the resources needed for access to the specific textual genres – associated with social practices and other matters – which are essential to their academic success.

Such a curriculum is ideally based on a number of conditions which it would be unrealistic to regard as being met from the outset and all together. Here, it is more a question of future perspectives, as curricula have to be built from what already exists, in a gradual and phased manner, adapting to needs and priorities in relation to pupils and educational contexts: some concrete options for the gradual introduction of such a curriculum will be presented further on (Chapter 3).

Attention is focused chiefly on the goal of quality education, and not solely on the duties and responsibilities of learners, especially in the case of those from underprivileged backgrounds or with learning difficulties. The emphasis is therefore placed on the school’s responsibility.

The first key requirement is accordingly to utilise the full potential of learners’ linguistic and cultural repertoires (1.3.2). This is done through the integration, convergence or cross-cutting organisation of all language teaching. Convergence-oriented teaching processes could, for example, provide for different types of integration according to the context: an initial approach to learners’ repertoires by language(s) of schooling; integration between foreign, regional, minority, migration and, when they are taught at school, classical languages and/or between these languages and the language(s) of schooling; integration between language teaching and the teaching of other subjects. In this last case, special attention paid to the linguistic dimensions of subjects other than languages provides learners with the resources – needed for success in their studies – which they

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8. Council of Europe (2008), *White Paper on intercultural dialogue – Living together as equals in dignity*, p. 28, [www.coe.int/dialogue](http://www.coe.int/dialogue). See also: Council of Europe (forthcoming), *Living together as equals in culturally diverse democratic societies: a model of the competences required for democratic culture*.

9. See *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*, Chapter 8 and *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*, 5.1; Coste D. (ed.) (2007), *A European reference document for languages of education?*; Coste D. et al. (2009), *Plurilingual and intercultural education as a right*; Cavalli M. et al. (2009), *Plurilingual and intercultural education as a project* (all at [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang)).

10. See Recommendation CM/Rec (2012)13 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on ensuring quality education, [www.coe.int/cm](http://www.coe.int/cm) → Adopted texts.

are entitled to expect from school.<sup>11</sup> Accommodating the initial repertoire is a particularly delicate matter, and all the more necessary when that repertoire includes a variety of the language of schooling which has no legitimacy at school, as in the case of vernacular varieties: the need not to stigmatise this type of variety must be combined with the need to enrich and diversify each pupil's repertoire resources to the greatest extent possible.

Taking the initial repertoire as a basis with a view to expanding it means enlisting the resources of which it is composed and putting in place language interaction activities which will enable learners to master other varieties, including the language in which subjects are taught. This work on interaction between languages means abandoning the still very widespread strictly monolingual approach in favour of the adoption of an extensively bi-/plurilingual view of language teaching–learning processes.

A central place should be given to the reflexivity and increased autonomy of pupils with respect to language learning, in order to prepare them for future learning (2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.6). Contact with languages and textual genres at school is not solely intended to ensure that learners develop the forms of mastery needed for community living (2.8): the common goal of all teaching is to produce critically-minded citizens who are open to all forms of otherness, that is everything which is different, new, alien or unfamiliar (1.3.1). A further responsibility of school is to stimulate thought about how communication through language represents and builds ideas, opinions, norms (2.5), information and knowledge. School must ensure a clear perception of how it functions, its historical development, its diversity and variability, its creative potential, and also the related power and domination issues (2.5). Language teaching thus contributes to, and is a precondition for, the development of the individual and his or her critical faculties.<sup>12</sup>

Curricula are defined not only in terms of knowledge and competences, but also in terms of varied learning experiences at all stages of schooling (1.2.4 and Chapter 2). Particular care must be taken to ensure that language teaching is not confined to functional and practical skills, even if that appears to be the priority in some contexts, and the need for this is by no means called into question. Also important are creative, play-oriented, literary or imagination skills, which are less directly utilitarian, enrich the repertoire in various ways and show that languages have functions other than communication (poetic function). Existential competences underpin all knowledge and skills and contribute in a specific way to personal development.

In the plurilingual and intercultural education perspective, forms of assessment are in line with the educational goals and the development of learner autonomy (2.10), and teacher training attaches importance to this educational perspective and its implications for classroom activities (2.11).

In particular, decisions need to be taken regarding the emphasis to be given to the different dimensions of language at a particular level or in a particular subject. For example, it will be necessary to decide on the relative importance to be given – at different stages of the curriculum – to communicative competence, intercultural competence, aesthetic and literary experiences and the development of reflective capacity. The idea is not to define a sequence but to strike a balance, which may be different depending on the stage in the curriculum. The development of curriculum scenarios (3.8) may be of great assistance in creating this longitudinal coherence in the curriculum.

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11. See Beacco J.-C., Coste D., van de Ven P.-H. and Vollmer H. (2010), *Languages and school subjects – Linguistic dimensions of knowledge building in school curricula*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; Beacco J.-C. (2010), *Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for learning/teaching history (end of obligatory education) – An approach with reference points*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; Vollmer H. (2010), *Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for learning/teaching science (end of obligatory education) – An approach with reference points*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; Pieper I. (2011), *Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for learning/teaching literature (end of obligatory education) – An approach with reference points*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg; Linneweber-Lammerskitten H. (2012), *Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for learning/teaching mathematics (end of obligatory education) – An approach with reference points*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) in other subjects; *The language dimension in all subjects: a handbook for curriculum development and teacher training* (2015), Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

12. See Recommendation CM/Rec(2012)13 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on ensuring quality education, [www.coe.int/cm](http://www.coe.int/cm) → Adopted texts.

## 1.2. CURRICULUM DESIGN

### 1.2.1. What do we mean by curriculum?

“Curriculum” is a difficult concept to pin down, and a common agreed definition of it is still a long way off. Here, we shall use it very broadly to mean a tool for organising learning. The *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (hereafter CEFR) stresses that the school curriculum is part of a wider curriculum, a “path travelled by a learner through a sequence of educational experiences, whether under the control of an institution or not” (CEFR, 8.4). It accordingly sees the “educational” curriculum as part of an “experiential” and “existential” curriculum, which starts before schooling, develops alongside it, and continues after it.<sup>13</sup> It encompasses all the learning experiences acquired by the individual as a social player in establishing relations with other individuals and groups; these experiences will enable the each individual to develop their personality and identity and, to some extent, their linguistic and cultural repertoire (CEFR, 1.1).

The main emphasis in the following pages will be on the planning and institutional implementation of the learner’s path through school for the purpose of developing plurilingual and intercultural competence.<sup>14</sup> An overall picture will be given of the various levels in the school system, and the part they play in design of the curriculum and the various components of curriculum planning. The existential dimension will remain present throughout, insofar as plurilingual and intercultural education sets out to harness and build on all the learner’s linguistic and cultural resources (1.2.4).

### 1.2.2. Development levels and implementation of the curriculum

Developing and implementing a curriculum involve numerous activities – political piloting, planning and development, implementation, evaluation – on several levels of the school system, from the “supra” to the “nano”,<sup>15</sup> where various curriculum instruments are used:

#### The curriculum on different levels of the education system

##### **INTERNATIONAL, comparative (SUPRA)**

e.g. international reference instruments, such as the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, international evaluation studies like the PISA survey or the European Indicator of Language Competence, analyses carried out by international experts (Language Education Policy Profiles), study visits to other countries

##### **NATIONAL/EDUCATION SYSTEM, state, region (MACRO)**

e.g. study plan, syllabus, strategic specific aims, common core, training standards

##### **SCHOOL, institution (MESO)**

e.g. adjustment of the school curriculum or study plan to match the specific profile of a school, developments in partnership with businesses

##### **CLASS, group, teaching sequence, teacher (MICRO)**

e.g. course, textbook used, resources

##### **INDIVIDUAL (NANO)**

e.g. individual experience of learning, lifelong (autonomous) personal development

13. “Curriculum” is used here as a generic concept. The terms used to denote different types of curriculum – including syllabus, study plan or programme – are vague and vary from language to language, and indeed country to country. Discussing this point in detail is not our concern here.

14. The concept of competence – as used in this text – is expounded and discussed in the following contribution available on the *Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education: the use of descriptors in learning, teaching and assessment*, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Curricula and evaluation.

15. This level-based approach derives from the work of the SLO (Netherlands Institute for Curriculum Development); see, in particular, Thijs A. and van den Akker J. (2009), *Curriculum in development*, SLO, Enschede.

The extent to which the “macro” and “meso” levels are involved in, and determine, decision making varies with national and/or regional contexts, where plurality of decision-making centres may indeed be a source of tension. However centralised curriculum policy may be, schools (“meso” level) and class teachers (“micro” level) always play a decisive part in implementing the curriculum.

### 1.2.3. The components of curriculum planning

Careful scrutiny of the various components in curriculum planning and consideration of the relevance of each to the various organisational levels listed above (from “nano” to “supra”) may help to provide the clarity needed to improve teaching–learning processes. The 10 components<sup>16</sup> listed below reflect a learner-centred approach.

**Table 1: Components of curriculum planning**

Components			Commonest level
1	General aims	What is/are the learner's/s' aim/s in learning?	MACRO (nation, state, region)
2	Specific aims/ competences	What aims are they pursuing/are assigned to them?	
3	Content	What are they required to learn?	
4	Approaches and activities	How are they required to learn?	MICRO (class) and MESO (school)
5	Grouping and location	Where, and with whom, do they learn?	
6	Time	When do they learn? How much time do they have?	
7	Aids and resources	With what do they learn?	
8	Role of teachers	How do teachers promote, organise and facilitate learning processes?	
9	Co-operation	What types of co-operation, particularly between teachers, are needed to facilitate learning?	
10	Evaluation	How are progress and acquired competences evaluated?	From NANO (individual) to SUPRA (international)

As the previous section has shown, responsibilities may be differently divided in different school systems. Thus, teaching aids (component 7) may also be considered at “macro” level, for example when a particular aid is used throughout a region. Similarly, the “macro” level may be less involved in determining curriculum content and activities (components 3 and 4), and schools (“meso”) or even teachers (“micro”) may be given more freedom of choice.

Some of these components play a central role, and may extend beyond the one level indicated. For example, general aims (component 1) are the central dimension on which all the others must be focused. Another example: evaluation of competences acquired (component 10) may be a major factor for curriculum change since it serves to link the specific aims/competences at issue on all levels, from the individual's learning process (self-evaluation) to curricula designed by national authorities (for example, national standards) or based on international standards (for example, language diplomas).

With a view to efficient curriculum management (1.4.3), co-operation (component 9), especially between teachers of various language and “non-language” subjects, is particularly important at “meso” level in schools.

Of course, all the issues which arise in curriculum planning are closely interlinked, and any attempt to take decisions on one component without taking full account of the other parameters listed in this table is certain to fail.

Finally, planning decisions in this area must always be taken in a specific societal context, and that context must itself be carefully analysed (3.3). When language curricula are being designed (“first”, “second”, “foreign”,

16. The components and questions relating to each of them are based on the work of the SLO; see, in particular, van den Akker J. (2006), “Curriculum development re-invented: evolving challenges”, in Letschert J. (ed.), *Curriculum development re-invented*, SLO, Enschede.

“classical” languages, etc.), the status of all the languages present or spoken on a given territory (state, region, major city), and the needs generated by specific situations (neighbourhood, migrant population, economic partners, cultural or language policies, border area) are among the factors which must be considered. Analysis of these factors will decisively influence specific aims (including choice of languages and levels of competence aimed at), and the curriculum measures needed to achieve them.<sup>17</sup>

#### **1.2.4. Experiential dimension of the curriculum and quality education**

A quality education depends on learners experiencing a range of different learning modes. Because certain methods are dominant, it is not uncommon for a whole generation of pupils to encounter just one approach throughout their schooling, particularly in the case of foreign languages. However, with a view to effectiveness (maintaining motivation, avoiding the ceiling effect) and also to making future learning more autonomous, it is better to vary learning methods and use a series of different approaches – first experienced, then reflected on – in teaching pupils languages and showing them how they work. This diversification also includes the linkage between guided learning and more autonomous use of languages. These are learning experiences which school must guarantee with a view to ensuring quality education. These experiences combine various curriculum components: specific aims and competences, approaches and activities, content and location.

A plurilingual and intercultural education project must therefore not only define specific aims and levels to be reached, and basic knowledge/key competences to be acquired, but must also indicate the kinds of experiences which learners will need to be provided with in order to continue to learn in favourable conditions and build solid competences. Practical information regarding the experiential dimension will be given in Chapter 2.

### **1.3. SOME KEY CONCEPTS RELATING TO PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION**

Once the educational project has been generally positioned in relation to the general aims pursued (1.1), the development of a school curriculum as a tool for organising learning calls in the first place for clarification of the specific aims. The specific aims to be pursued for the purpose of developing plurilingual and intercultural competences are in line with the thinking initiated in the CEFR. At this stage it may be useful to clarify some key concepts.

#### **1.3.1. Plurilingualism, multilingualism, pluriculturality, interculturality**

The concept of plurilingual competence refers to the Council of Europe’s standard distinction between plurilingualism and multilingualism: plurilingualism is the ability to use more than one language – and accordingly sees languages from the standpoint of speakers and learners. Multilingualism, on the other hand, refers to the presence of several languages in a given geographical area, regardless of those who speak them. In other words, the presence of two or more languages in an area does not necessarily imply that people in that area can use several of them; some use only one.

Plurilingual competence is defined as the ability to use a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources to meet communication needs or interact with people from other backgrounds and contexts, and enrich that repertoire while doing so. The repertoire consists of resources which individual learners have acquired in all the languages they know or have learned, and which also relate to the cultures associated with those languages (languages of schooling, regional/minority and migration languages, modern or classical languages). The plurilingual perspective centres on learners and the development of their individual plurilingual repertoire, and not each specific language to be learned.

The plurilingual approach to learning would be incomplete without its pluricultural and intercultural dimensions. Pluriculturality denotes the ability to participate in different cultures, *inter alia* by acquiring several languages. Interculturality denotes the ability to experience otherness and diversity, analyse that experience and derive benefit from it. The intercultural competence acquired from doing this helps individuals to understand otherness better, establish cognitive and affective links between past and future experiences of that

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17. For further information, see van den Akker J., Fasoglio D. and Mulder H. (2010), *A curriculum perspective on plurilingual education*, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Curricula and evaluation.

otherness, mediate between members of different social groups, and question the assumptions of their own cultural group and milieu.

Pluriculturalism – identification with two (or more) social groups and their cultures – and interculturality – the competences for critical awareness of other cultures – may complement each other: active discovery of one or more other cultures may help learners to develop intercultural competence.<sup>18</sup>

### **1.3.2. The repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources**

Every speaker has the ability to build up a plural linguistic and cultural repertoire. The CEFR defines this repertoire as all the linguistic and cultural resources available to the speaker. These include:

- ▶ the majority or official language(s) of schooling and the cultures transmitted in a given educational context;
- ▶ regional and minority or migration languages and the corresponding cultures;
- ▶ modern or classical languages and the cultures taught with them;
- ▶ any language variety spoken in the family, whether it is a language of schooling, a regional or minority language or a migration language.

The resources in this repertoire, which the CEFR treats as a whole, derive from various sources (family, out-of-school, school, etc.). They are acquired informally (often implicitly) or formally (usually explicitly) in the socialisation and schooling process. The language of schooling, which is often the official language of the country or region, occupies a key position here: it is often the core around which this repertoire takes shape, unless this role is shared with one or more home languages which are not the language of schooling.

These resources comprise knowledge and skills: knowledge and skills linked with each specific language, and also cross-cutting knowledge and skills, which can be transferred from one language to another, or help to forge links between languages. The attitudes and personal qualities of individuals (their “existential competences”) are the dominant factor in development and mobilisation of the resources in their plurilingual repertoire. These resources develop throughout a person’s life, depending on how he or she uses different languages or language varieties in various contexts. They may develop in different ways: increased knowledge and competences in one or more specific languages, development of competences applying to several languages, or acquisition of knowledge or competences which help to make these resources complementary. Sometimes, when they are not used, they may stagnate – or even deteriorate.

Anyone can build up a linguistic and cultural repertoire, since doing so does not depend on having special talents, as the following examples show. The main difference between them is the situations which enabled the people concerned to build up such a repertoire.

#### **Shamima**

##### *Repertoire developed as a result of a family strategy*

Shamima (11) lives in Leicester, a city in the British East Midlands. Her parents come from Gujarat, a province in western India, and are Muslims. She attends a state primary school. The language of the home is Gujarati. Her parents are themselves plurilingual, and are anxious to pass on their own cultural and religious heritage. They send her to evening classes at her school, where she learns to read and write Gujarati, using Indian script. English and Gujarati are both used in these classes, which play an important part in integrating the home and host cultures. Moreover, Shamima spends one afternoon a week at the mosque, where she learns to read and write Urdu – the language of religious observance, which uses Arabic characters – and to recite Koranic verses in Arabic. The main emphasis in her language learning is clearly on English, which is not banned from the home, and is her “best” language. From early childhood, however, and largely thanks to the educational strategies adopted by her parents, who know how to use the various institutional facilities on offer to develop their daughter’s pluriculturality, Shamima learned that her various languages were associated with different cultural practices, in the fields of reading and writing, among others.

18. For further information, see Byram M. (2009), *Multicultural societies, pluricultural people and the project of intercultural education*, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Publications and documents.

## Anaïs

### *Repertoire developed at school*

Anaïs (16) lives in a French-speaking family in France. Like most of her classmates, her first experience of language learning came at the age of 8, when she started English. Secondary school gave her the chance to study German and English in parallel. In her school, the German teacher and one of the English teachers work closely together, sometimes sharing classes, keeping a joint record for both languages and co-ordinating progress. Exploiting similarities between the two languages, and the acquired habit of transferring knowledge and strategies, allowed her to make significant progress. By the time she reached the end of her lower secondary education, she had acquired similar competences in both languages. At 15, she took a proficiency test in German organised by her school, scoring a B1 in three language activities and an A2 in written language. On her teachers' advice, she decided to start studying another modern language (Italian) in upper secondary school, while keeping up her German and English. She is convinced that these experiences of learning, and the competences she has acquired, will be very useful later, although she does not intend to study languages.

## Mehmet

### *Repertoire developed in adulthood*

Mehmet (35) is a Turkish national. He moved to Germany at the age of 22 to join some of his family and (he hoped) to find work more easily. For several months, he made do with a very limited knowledge of German, working mainly with fellow Turks and other immigrants in his firm. Wishing to remain in Germany and integrate within his new environment, he then followed the example of one of his work-mates and registered for German evening classes at the local *Volkshochschule* (adult education centre). He was encouraged and supported in this by his family, who had several children in German schools. As his German improved, he spent more time watching German television, and began to make contacts with German neighbours. Although his command of the language is still imperfect, he now feels able to cope with a wide range of communication situations which arise in his working and private life. He is particularly proud of being able to help newly arrived Turkish colleagues in situations when knowing no German can cause problems. Increasingly, he is called upon to act as an intercultural mediator.

## Mirko

### *Enhanced capacity to add to the resources of the repertoire*

Mirko (31), a computer specialist from Slovenia, moved to Stockholm with his Swedish wife. His first language was a dialect of Slovenian. At school, he learned the standard form of that language, and English as well – but it was only when he went to university, where some of the courses were given in English, that he acquired a practical command of the latter. He found learning Swedish difficult. When his wife took a job in the Netherlands, the couple moved there. Mirko had doubts about this, as the thought of again changing language and culture alarmed him. However, a teacher gradually helped him to see that the Dutch language's many similarities with Swedish and English made it easy to learn. Finding that he could make good use of the existing resources in his repertoire gave him a new attitude to learning other languages – including the Slav languages closely related to his own – and helped him to develop a feeling for his new host country's culture.

## Hiroshi

### *Repertoire acquired through forced mobility*

Hiroshi (40) is trilingual (Japanese, French and English). He lives in Japan, but his work as a designer obliges him to divide his time between his home country, the United States and France. At the age of 9 he came to France, where his artist parents had taken up residence. At school he discovered that he was different: “No way of hiding it, it was written all over my face.” He remembers the mocking tones of his classmates as they poked fun at him: “Chiiiiin ... tok” (French slang term for Chinese people). His school results were not great. The teachers called his parents to a meeting and asked them to abandon the use of Japanese in the family. His parents rejected this advice, but said they would find someone to speak French with him: Hiroshi spent his afternoons with a neighbour, doing his homework. After his parents had gone back to Japan, Hiroshi was enrolled in an international school in Switzerland: another uprooting, but a context where the mix of pupils made him feel less “exotic”. In Switzerland he improved his French and English. He eventually went to university in Japan, where it was his proficiency in Japanese which was found wanting. He now feels it is useful to be able to use his plurilingualism for his work, but he wonders if it compensates for his difficulties at school and, above all, his identity issues.

## **1.4. A CURRICULUM GEARED TO PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION**

The following section, and the two remaining chapters of this publication, are based on the instruments and elements contained in the CEFR, the “Guide for users of the CEFR”, the “Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe” (main version and executive version), and also in the texts included in the “Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education”,<sup>19</sup> focused on curriculum development.

### **1.4.1. Plurilingual and intercultural education across the curriculum**

Plurilingual and intercultural education can be promoted by curricular action on various levels (1.2): definition of goals, aims and competences to be acquired, content and activities, evaluation methods, approaches and methods, teaching aids, and training priorities for teachers and school principals. Specifically, this will involve:

- ▶ promoting co-ordination of lessons, with a view to greater coherence and synergy between the learning of foreign, regional, minority and classical languages, the language(s) of schooling, and also the language dimension of all subjects;
- ▶ identifying the intercultural competences appropriate to any course of study, promoting awareness of them and working to integrate them within the learning process;
- ▶ encouraging learners to think more about the components of their plurilingual repertoire, their intercultural competences, the ways in which languages and cultures work, and the best ways of profiting from their personal or collective experience of using and learning languages.

Attempting to give plurilingual and intercultural education its rightful place in the curriculum may mean changing it radically. However, the changes will not necessarily mark a total break with the goals pursued by education systems or schools in their former curricula. There will be no question, for example, of abandoning the goal of acquiring competences in the languages taught or mastering the subjects on the curriculum. On the contrary, the changes will be based on existing curricula, and these will determine how far they can – and cannot – go. In return, the changes will help curricula to cover all aspects of schooling more fully – on which their effectiveness depends.

### **1.4.2. The individual’s repertoire as a basis for developing plurilingual and intercultural competence: specific and cross-cutting aims**

Though closely connected, repertoire and competence are not the same thing: plurilingual and intercultural competence can be defined as the ability to mobilise – in a manner suited to the circumstances – the

19. See also [www.coe.int/lang-platform/](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform/) and Appendix IV.



repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources, for purposes of communication, interacting with others, and also for expanding the repertoire itself. These aims defined in terms of competences will make it possible to undertake formative assessment of teaching/learning processes as they develop and summative assessment of their results. We will therefore make a distinction between:

- ▶ aims specific to the teaching of a given language and its associated cultural dimensions:
  - language competence: linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge, skills and existential competences;
  - cultural competence: knowledge, skills and existential competences relevant to social groups who speak a given language and their cultures.
- ▶ aims applying to the teaching of various subjects:
  - intercultural competence: knowledge, skills and existential competences relevant to an understanding of other cultures and cultural diversity, prompting reflective and critical thinking about one's own culture;
  - specifically plurilingual competence: knowledge and existential competences (*savoir-faire* and *savoir-être*) related to the simultaneous use of several languages and plurality of languages; the ability to learn (self-constructions of the resources of one's plurilingual repertoire).

It is also vital, in considering these questions, not to forget the part played by language teaching in developing intercultural competences. Not only does it help learners to develop the functional competences they need to interact with people belonging to other social groups in a national/regional or other context, and speaking the same or a different language. It also helps to shape them, both as individuals and as active members of a community. Some aspects of intercultural competence are specifically linked to knowledge of a particular social group or its language, while others are general and transferable. This underlines the usefulness, when defining the competences aimed at in language-as-subject teaching as well as in other subjects (2.9), of including, on the basis of recognised common values, co-ordinated and consistent aims for the development of intercultural competence via the language curriculum – and doing this in such a way that they can be taken into account when evaluation and monitoring of learning progress is being planned.

### **1.4.3. Aims, competences and efficient curriculum management**

Nowadays, most school curricula are planned with reference to specific aims, that is, competences to be acquired. This is also the approach adopted by the CEFR, which seeks to help all Europeans to develop competences in several languages, for the purpose of promoting mutual understanding in Europe, facilitating personal mobility and enhancing linguistic and cultural diversity (1.1). These competences are often defined in terms of a scale of levels for each language. As described above, for the purposes of the approach recommended in this Guide and with a view to the cross-cutting development of each individual's full repertoire, they would need to be supplemented by specifically plurilingual and intercultural competences (knowledge, skills and existential competences).

The wide range of linguistic and cultural competences which schooling must now cover, and, generally, the ever-increasing number of school subjects, are making curriculum management increasingly important. Subjects are being decompartmentalised and brought together in subject areas, competence acquisition is being co-ordinated across the subject spectrum, and cross-cutting competences are being incorporated in curricula – all for the purpose of linking learning processes, making them more efficient and systematically helping pupils to transfer competences usefully from one subject to another. These rationalisation measures apply both to links between languages as subjects (modern foreign<sup>20</sup> and classical languages, as well as languages of schooling, or minority and migration languages), and also between languages and other subjects.

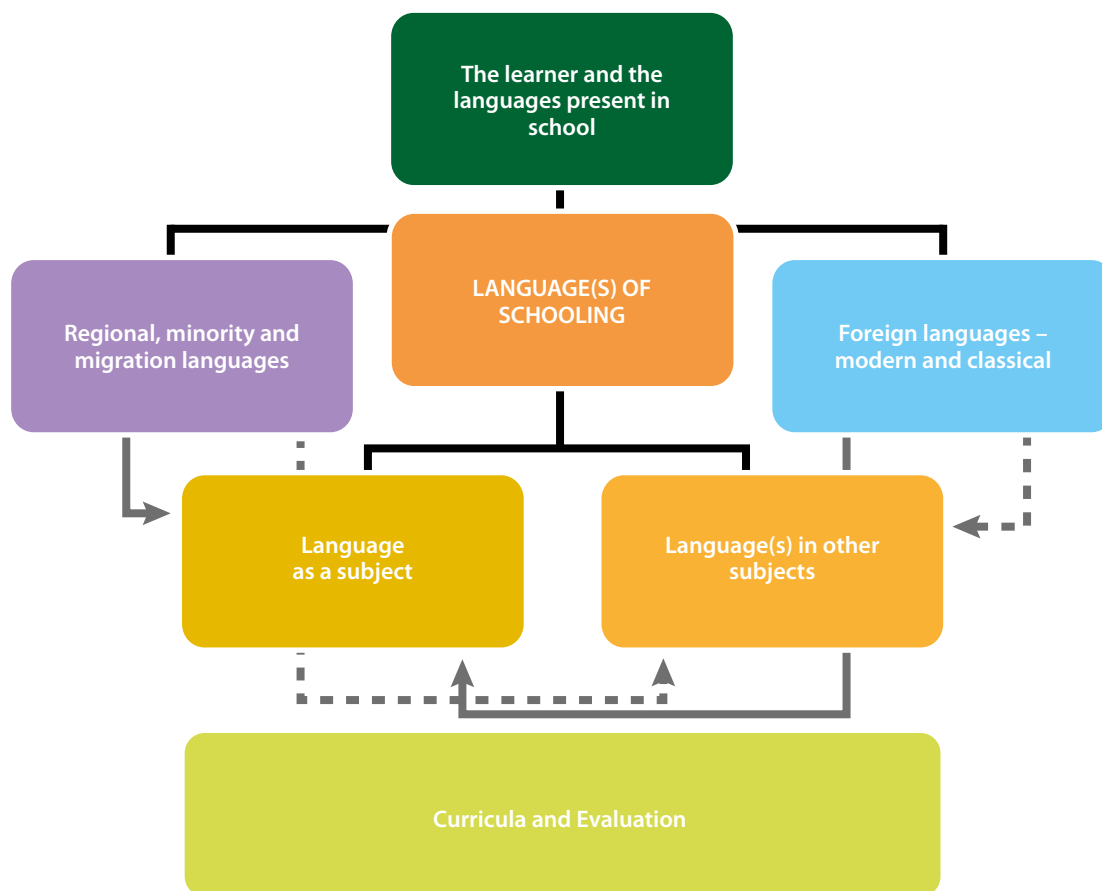
The following diagram (Figure 1) – which appears on the Council of Europe Language Policy Unit's Platform of resources<sup>21</sup> – illustrates this holistic, integrated approach.

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20. In the rest of this text, "foreign language" will denote any modern language other than the language of the home or the language of schooling.

21. [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform).

Figure 1: Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education



At the top of the diagram, in the centre, stands the learner with his or her linguistic and cultural repertoire and specific characteristics, including linguistic and cultural characteristics. The learner is the central protagonist and the starting point: all the rest is the work of the education system. In some contexts, the languages in pupils' repertoires may be taught at school either as subjects in their own right or as subject languages. In the latter case, they become languages of schooling together with the main language of schooling, giving rise to bilingual education systems. This is more often the case with regional and minority languages enjoying special protection<sup>22</sup> than with migration languages, although some experiments are starting to appear. All these languages, with widely varying sociolinguistic statuses, are represented in the diagram in the box to the left of the central box. The latter places the language of schooling at the heart of this system, in a pivotal position owing to its decisive and defining role in the learner's education and its cross-cutting dimension in teaching/learning processes; it is the language shared and mainly, if not exclusively, used by all children attending school. The diagram shows the language of schooling in the twofold guise of language as subject, with its specific content and activities, and language used to transmit and build knowledge in and through other subjects. Lastly, to the right of the central box, the diagram mentions other – modern and classical – languages with a more clearly academic status, but of considerable political, economic and/or cultural status.

#### 1.4.4. Cross-cutting competences and curriculum coherence to make teaching more effective

Making teaching more effective may be the main purpose of bringing plurilingual and intercultural education into the curriculum. The focus may be on subject and lifelong learning, or on ways in which subject teaching can help the most vulnerable pupils to succeed at school and contribute to social cohesion in general.

22. See European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages: [www.coe.int/minlang](http://www.coe.int/minlang).

The central element in plurilingual and intercultural education is the establishment of cross-linkages between “languages as school subjects” in a way which respects the single nature of human language proficiency (see the whole of Chapter 2, dealing with cross-cutting competences). The following measures can make the existing system more effective and coherent:

**Table 2: Measures to make teaching more effective**

<p><i>Increased coherence between content, methods and terminologies</i></p>	<p>The various language courses on the curriculum, and particularly their methods and terminologies, can be made more cohesive. A consistent, across-the-board approach to language content, supervised acquisition of learning strategies and tackling of communication tasks obviously does much to save time and resources. It also helps learners to understand and master content, strategies and tasks more easily, showing them that content or techniques used in one learning situation can also be used in others, or differently – and also the extent to which this is possible. Obviously, awareness of specifics is inseparably a part of this teaching approach.</p> <p>Following the longstanding tradition of project-based pedagogy, for example, is one way of achieving such coherence. That approach involves deliberate use on cross-disciplinary projects of competences already acquired in one or more subjects, or direct, simultaneous study of several subjects, the aim in both cases being to promote learner autonomy.</p>
<p><i>Identifying bridges and organising learning paths</i></p>	<p>The first stage in improving coherence is to look at content and methods in the various subjects and in the languages taught (or used), with a view to identifying all the possible bridges, harmonising the contributions of each, and scheduling lessons in a way which ensures that teaching is cohesive, both vertically (or longitudinally) and horizontally (3.8.1).</p>
<p><i>Highlighting the language components common to the various learning processes</i></p>	<p>Effectiveness can also be measured by highlighting the language components of comprehension and expression activities in all the subjects taught, cognitive operations with a language dimension (identifying, locating, recounting, describing, arguing, etc.) and the textual genres used in the work required of pupils. The aim here is to see whether any of these components are obstacles which need removing for all pupils to succeed. The language components of learning processes can accordingly be dealt with in a co-ordinated manner by teachers, while also being recognised by learners. This can apply to widely differing activities, e.g. describing an experiment in a science class, speaking in a debate in a history class, describing a picture in an art class. At the same time, analysis will also focus on the specific way in which each subject treats these common language components.</p>
<p><i>Promoting awareness of possible transfers</i></p>	<p>Every opportunity for encouraging pupils to use knowledge and competences acquired in languages they are taught or know must be seized, with a view to revealing points of convergence, helping them to understand how languages work, and managing development of their plurilingual repertoires to optimum effect.</p>
<p><i>Linking subject-specific knowledge and competences, for the purpose of developing intercultural competence</i></p>	<p>Linking cultural and intercultural knowledge and competences derived from the study of various language and other subjects helps learners to build up a system of (inter)cultural references which they can mobilise in dealing responsibly and effectively with later intercultural encounters, both direct (exchanges, meetings, etc.) and indirect (media, books, films, etc.).</p>

Clearly, this is an area where decisions, initiatives and recommendations do not all emanate from the same decision-making levels, and cannot all take the same form. They are most effective when a maximum number of these components are implemented. However, any initiative – even a partial one – in one of these directions is a positive step towards plurilingual and intercultural education.

### 1.5. WAYS OF BRINGING PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION INTO THE CURRICULUM

An essential precondition of doing this is to examine the existing curriculum with three questions in mind:

How can the implications of the CEFR’s definition of plurilingual and intercultural education help us to use that instrument more consistently (1.3)?

- ▶ How should we allow for the language of schooling's central place – in terms of the work of education systems – in every learner's language repertoire and its basic importance for success at school?
- ▶ How can we help learners to develop the intercultural competence they need to play an active, responsible and independent role in a plurilingual and multicultural society?
- ▶ Plurilingual and intercultural education can be realised in the most varied contexts, regardless of the extent to which the various language subjects and language learning processes have already been integrated. Several examples reflecting different approaches to integration serve to illustrate this point.

### **1.5.1. First approach to integration: gearing the curriculum to increased synergy between modern and classical language teaching**

In addition to the language of schooling, several other languages are frequently taught as compulsory or optional subjects. Usually, the content and aims of these various language courses are defined without reference to one another. The aims cover acquisition of cultural knowledge and the ability to communicate in each of these languages – an ability defined, in the case of modern languages, with the help of the reference levels specified in the CEFR. These aims can be geared to specific comprehension or (oral and/or written) expression activities, with the use of competence descriptors already providing some degree of consistency. It is thus possible to outline the linguistic profile expected for each language (2.1).

The results achieved do not necessarily match these specified aims alone. The knowledge and skills acquired in the language(s) learned are added to the learner's own repertoire, which is already well stocked with knowledge and competences derived from the language of schooling and any other language(s) of origin. These effects are not negligible, but they need to be reinforced or expanded by co-ordinating the various language courses or, more ambitiously, systematically aiming at coherence and efficiency in language teaching. These two approaches can be described as follows.

To co-ordinate the teaching of different languages, initiatives or decisions must be taken on teaching content, specifying in particular the language and (inter)cultural competences aimed at in each language. This issue can be addressed in programmes, study plans or recommendations at "macro" level. Co-ordination is mainly achieved through consultation between teachers of the different languages. It may concern the aims pursued at different stages in the course with the same pupils, the phasing of competence development, the most appropriate teaching methods, lesson content, classroom aids, and ways of assessing progress. This co-ordination creates a horizontal coherence (3.8.1) in learning and these cross-linkages should enable learners to transfer knowledge and competences from one course/learning process to another.

A convergent and efficient approach to the teaching of different languages requires that the learning aims embodied in the language profile be defined, not separately for each language, but with a view to complementarity of the acquired competences in the individual's plurilingual repertoire. For some language varieties, partial competences (for example, comprehension) may also be the goal. Pupils are encouraged to draw explicitly on acquired linguistic and (inter)cultural knowledge and skills. Teachers use materials specifically designed to foster this coherence and seek to develop pupils' learning autonomy through such approaches as that of the *European Language Portfolio* and/or the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, or by adopting similar approaches in studying the language of schooling as a subject or other subjects. All this depends on co-operation between teachers that opens the way to joint planning of progress and approaches in the light of learner profiles, and to harmonisation of assessment practices, acquired mediation competences being taken into account throughout.

The various language courses will thus set out to give learners the ability to communicate in several foreign languages, at levels of proficiency which may vary with the language varieties concerned, their proximity to languages which pupils already know or are learning, pupil characteristics (age, specific needs, etc.) and teaching situations (length and number of lessons, scope for contact with/use of the language outside language lessons, etc.).

These two approaches are different, but have the same starting point. Both improve the initial situation along the lines described here, and can even be used in parallel, allowing teachers to adopt the one best suited to their own training and preference, and to the scope for co-ordination and co-operation which exists within their teaching team. The main difference between the two is, perhaps, that the first focuses on making teaching more effective, while the second adds a clear educational objective.

### **1.5.2. Second approach to integration: plurilingual and intercultural education as an explicit aim in the curriculum**

With a view to inclusive education for all children and social cohesion, there are two possible complementary approaches, and each can be implemented differently in different contexts.

The explicit inclusion of plurilingual and intercultural education among the aims of modern or classical language teaching is reflected in attaching equal importance to instilling openness to languages and cultures in learners, giving them communication and (inter)cultural competences in various languages and developing their autonomy to a point where they can manage their own plurilingual and intercultural repertoire independently, economically, responsibly and confidently throughout their lives. This approach requires teaching teams to pay special attention to the development and use of cross-cutting linguistic and intercultural competences. It also means paying special attention to thinking about communication and human language. Lastly, it presupposes treating all teaching of, and teaching in, languages as a whole as serving the development of the plurilingual and intercultural repertoire. The diversity of learning experiences and language-use situations, and critical analysis of them through reflexivity, contribute to this development. Increasingly close co-operation enables teachers to devise joint projects and, where possible, use knowledge and competences in several languages and cultures.

In addition to those described above, there can be very different ways of implementing plurilingual and intercultural education within the curriculum. One important aspect is the strengthening of links between the language(s) of schooling and language activities practised in other subject areas – an approach which is obviously consistent with, and complementary to, the one described above. Once we realise that every subject has a language dimension, and that this dimension contributes to learners' success, we are naturally anxious to promote co-operation between all teachers, regardless of whether they teach the language of schooling, some other language or any other subject.

Making learning of the language of schooling contribute to plurilingual and intercultural education is thus another way of reshaping the curriculum, and it involves, firstly, co-ordinating aims in foreign languages with those in the language of schooling, whether taught as a subject or used as a medium for teaching and learning other subjects. Special attention needs to be paid to the cognitive operations which underlie language activities, and to textual genres, the linguistic variety inherent in all languages (including the language of schooling) and strategies for using those languages. The foundations laid by study of the language of schooling in teaching other languages need to be taken into account, while also highlighting the differences. An awareness among teachers of the links between all the language competences in the plurilingual repertoire helps to expand and consolidate this repertoire in a joint and convergent process to which every lesson contributes. Lastly, the cross-cutting intercultural competences – particularly learning ability and commitment – which are useful in teaching of the language of schooling should be taken into account, as should the development of learner autonomy, the ability of learners to think about the aims pursued and their linguistic and (inter)cultural experiences, the progress they are making and any critical observations they may have.

All these forms of integration may apply to some or all teachers of the languages on the curriculum – whether taught as subjects themselves or used in teaching other subjects – and also to other players involved, including teachers of other subjects and school principals or management teams. An obvious prerequisite, too, is that all those who provide and receive this kind of education should realise its utility – and their doing so depends on information and training. Similarly, the changes in the curriculum, even when contextual factors make it realistically necessary to limit them, could leave room for more radical action at local level, clearly related to the overall aims pursued. Clearly, too, there can be no ready-made, universal solutions or answers.

## Chapter 2

# Establishing points of convergence and encouraging cross-cutting links between all the languages taught at school

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**T**he principles underlying plurilingual and intercultural education have now been outlined and, as shown in Chapter 1, can be clearly defined at the highest level of the curriculum. Nevertheless, no matter how explicit they are, these general aims now have to be translated into shared and operational objectives. Shared, in that it has to be possible to explain their relevance in the syllabus guidelines of all the curriculum subjects in which language plays a pre-eminent part: languages of schooling (main, regional/minority or foreign in the case of bilingual/plurilingual education), languages taught as specific subjects, or so-called foreign languages, other subjects, whose linguistic dimensions must not be neglected, and finally subjects taught in another language. Operational, because the purpose of formulating these objectives is to be able to draw up syllabus guidelines for both groups of subjects or for individual subjects. Even if they have language in general and certain specific languages in common, they also have their individual responsibilities with regard to acquiring knowledge, and related processes, approaches and methods, and to forming attitudes. These organisational principles clearly apply at the macro level (1.2.2) but must also be set at a sufficiently “low” level in syllabus planning to form a basis for the organisation of micro-level/classroom activities.

This chapter will identify some of these areas of convergence that can provide cross-cutting links between subjects and ensure curriculum coherence based on plurilingual and multicultural education. These areas are themselves established at various levels, since they range, for example, from teacher training to the application of the notion of discourse genre. However, the chapter makes no attempt to establish a graduated and progressive inventory since each area has too many facets to form part of a single, uniform typology. The order of presentation has a certain random element, as the reader cannot soon fail to notice, which should thus encourage him or her either to read the chapter from end to end as if it were a journey offering unexpected surprises or to target specific sections on which to focus.

### 2.1. THE PROFICIENCY SCALES OF THE CEFR AND PUPILS’ LINGUISTIC PROFILES

The first of these cross-cutting elements is the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, precisely because it aims to become a genuinely common reference point for the teaching of modern languages in Europe, and in particular its proficiency scales. However, the variety and potential of this tool are not always fully exploited. This is particularly the case when the scale isolates the competences acquired from other aspects of learners’ linguistic repertoire and merely juxtaposes the study of the languages concerned rather than encouraging the exploitation of links between already known or learned languages. However, other examples of the use of these scales show that they are not only capable of revealing the complexity and variety of individual repertoires but can also stimulate learners’ awareness of the resources at their disposal and of the most effective means of using them to meet their communication needs. The use of proficiency scales actually provides a cross-cutting link between the different types of language learning. Their use to establish cross-linkages in the learning and use of different languages, as well as for assessing achievement, can assist in the drawing up and implementation of curricula promoting plurilingual competence. Far from being synonymous with uniformity of language teaching, the use of these scales can facilitate a more constructive awareness of the role of each of the languages concerned in the development of learners’ linguistic competences.

Naturally, the almost universal adoption of this instrument and the use of a common terminology to define the content, methodology and objectives of language teaching offer real opportunities to harmonise the approaches adopted and objectives pursued by such teaching in the various education systems. For example, in very many countries, the objective of language learning is the development of competences with reference to one of the CEFR levels (for example, Level A1 at the end of ISCED 1). A distinction is often drawn between the various language activities in syllabuses or objectives, in particular between continuous and interactive oral expression. Most academic texts on the teaching of modern languages refer to the importance of using communication tasks to assist the development of competences, such as those defined in the CEFR.

Using proficiency scales also offers genuine opportunities for achieving a synergy of the various forms of language teaching. These include convergence of teaching methods, the development of approaches and practices concerning the assessment of competences, and learners' ability to identify their learning objectives and to assess their own performance, particularly with the help of the *European Language Portfolio* or a similar approach.

However, it is clear that the opportunities for synergy and convergence between language teaching approaches have not yet all been exploited and that insufficient consideration is sometimes given at an early stage to how proficiency scales should be used.

### **2.1.1. The application of proficiency scales to individual learners**

The international value of using these scales as a reference standard depends in large measure on how they are exploited by the various users. Tools are now available to help the education systems and individual players concerned with language assessment to bring their examinations more into line with the CEFR competence levels (2.10).

But appropriate use of these levels is not confined to compliance with the exact wording of each of them. Defining objectives for the use of communication skills also calls for consideration of the nature and scope of the themes that learners ought to be able to cope with, in terms of both expression and comprehension. Thus, the following question may be asked: should the priority for the syllabus of pupils at approximately Level B1 be their continuation to Level B2 or alternatively to set the objective of a gradual but reasonable extension of the communication skills associated with Level B1?

If it is to be really meaningful and play its proper part, a particular level cannot be set as the objective of language teaching unless account is taken of the nature and scope of the opportunities for further learning provided for in the curriculum. A differentiated approach to the use of competence levels can also be adopted when setting curriculum objectives. For example, certain educational cultures may draw a curricular distinction between a "target level", namely the one at which those teaching a particular group of learners should aim, and a "minimum required level", below which the pupils concerned will be considered to have failed. In a proficiency testing system based on marks given for learners' performance, such a distinction will lead to the maximum number of marks being given to pupils or students showing evidence of a command of the language equal or superior to the "target level", and only an average mark being given if those concerned have reached the "minimum required level". Generally speaking, though, such objectives can only be a credible, and thus valid, means of motivating learners if they are perceived by all the participants concerned as being realistic.

Similarly, the setting of proficiency levels will be more effective and credible in the eyes of teachers and learners when this is carried out separately for different language activities, thus enabling the benefits of the CEFR to be fully reaped. Those concerned rarely have the same command of each of the different activities: often, for any particular language, the oral interaction and written production competences are not identical while reception competences normally outstrip production competences. It is also unlikely that analyses of language requirements for a future course of study or training, or for jobs or other more loosely defined situations (for example, higher education abroad), will conclude that equal proficiency is needed in all areas (oral interaction, written production, written reception and so on). Generally, such analyses result in differential competence profiles, such as B1 for oral interaction, B2 for written reception and A2 for written production.

Finally, the technical content of the CEFR proficiency level definitions may not be their most important feature. Probably the most important aspects are the breakdown of individual language learning paths into stages, the entirely positive way in which the levels are formulated and the fact that each level, however low, represents an achievement and a fully-fledged component of the individual language repertoire. Awareness of this will enable learners to commit themselves to learning the language (and languages in general) with more confidence and thereby attain a higher level of competences. One of the main benefits of these proficiency scales

is precisely the fact that they have introduced the prospect of a positive assessment into both thinking and practice. Language teaching is no longer viewed with reference to a model native speaker. This “ideal” model, which occasionally still holds sway and inevitably results in negative individual and collective ratings, consists in seeing language acquisition purely in terms of the most perfect possible command. As a result, assessments of the level achieved by an individual or group only take account of how far they differ from the level of command sought at a particular stage of the syllabus. The positive assessment principle embodied in the CEFR constitutes a break with this way of viewing pupils’ progress. This does not of course mean that the reality of pupils’ proficiency levels will be concealed from them. One of language teachers’ responsibilities is indeed to assess this level of achievement as accurately as possible, based on their expertise. But the positive assessment principle consists in observing from learners’ contributions what they are capable of achieving with the knowledge and skills they have been able to accumulate in the language concerned. The aim is to give pupils a positive, and therefore constructive, perception of the stage they have reached, even if they sometimes fall well short of the target set for that particular year-group or course of studies, thereby enhancing this level in their own eyes. Such an approach is clearly quite at variance with normal practice and traditions that are sometimes still all too much in evidence.

It is these fundamental pedagogical aspects of the CEFR proficiency scales that offer the maximum opportunity for synergies between the teaching and learning of different languages.

### **2.1.2 Using proficiency scales to establish learners’ linguistic profiles**

The educational benefits of using the CEFR proficiency levels to measure skills acquired in languages other than the language of schooling are not confined to defining objectives and designing language tests to match the relevant levels, or even to the enlightened use of positive assessments of learners’ achievements.

As noted above, reference to some form of “general level” of type A1 or A2 of the CEFR to describe or assess progress in a language largely fails to reflect the reality of a learner’s competences. Such “general levels” often run the risk of underestimating the real competences of the individuals concerned in the various language activities of reception or production. Nor are they sufficiently precise to inform learners and teachers about the state of the former’s competences and their development needs. This necessary caution in the use of the notion of “level” also arises from consideration of the notion of language profiles in the CEFR.

#### **An uneven and changing competence (see CEFR, 6.1.3.1)**

Plurilingual and pluricultural competence is generally uneven in one or more ways:

- ▶ Learners generally attain greater proficiency in one language than in the others.
- ▶ The skill profile in one language is different from that in others (for example, excellent speaking competence in two languages, but good writing competence in only one of them).
- ▶ The pluricultural profile differs from the plurilingual profile (for example: good knowledge of the culture of a community but a poor knowledge of its language, or poor knowledge of a community whose dominant language is nevertheless well mastered).

[...]

This imbalance is also linked to the changing nature of plurilingual and pluricultural competence. Whereas the traditional view of “monolingual” communicative competence in the “mother tongue” suggests that it is quickly stabilised, a plurilingual and pluricultural competence presents a transitory profile and a changing configuration. Depending on the career path, family history, travel experience, reading and hobbies of the individual in question, significant changes take place in their linguistic and cultural biography, altering the forms of imbalance in their plurilingualism, and rendering more complex their experience of the plurality of cultures. This does not by any means imply instability, uncertainty or lack of balance on the part of the person in question, but rather contributes, in the majority of cases, to improved awareness of identity.

The educational challenge here is to view progress in knowledge and command of a language or of cultural phenomena not as an isolated reality but as one of the components of each learner’s resources, namely their competences in each of the languages learned at school and in the languages encountered in their personal lives and/or those spoken in the family setting or the pupil’s immediate environment.



Naturally, for reasons of clarity and immediate comprehension by non-experts, any record of language competences may be presented language by language. However, it must always be borne in mind that when drawn up on such an individual language basis, any assessment or record of learners' progress in each of the languages studied will fail to take account of the complementary nature of their diverse language skills. From the teaching and learning standpoints, other forms of presentation of learners' progress might be considered. One way of highlighting the reality of a learner's plurilingual competence might be to take stock of his or her skills in different languages for each language activity, as shown below for an oral expression activity.

**Table 3: Spoken language skills**

	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2
German						
English						
Spanish						
Italian						
Other language (spoken in the family setting)						

In the above diagram, the learner concerned by this assessment can visualise the state of his skills, in this particular language activity. He can then use this as a basis for setting objectives, such as improving his competence in Italian by drawing on his competences in the other Romance language, namely Spanish. He can also consider ways of dealing as effectively as possible with the need to communicate with speakers of one or more languages by taking account of the complementary nature of his specific skills, for example by opting to use one or other of the two languages cited above for certain exchanges, while resorting, depending on the context, to German, English or the language spoken at home in the case of topics or areas for which his capacity for expression in the other two languages is too limited.

To ensure that the curriculum really hangs together, an integrated competence profile for all languages could be detailed in a single document (either a curriculum document or a study plan), and for a given context, emphasising the special importance of each skill (for social communication, cognitive development, intercultural education, ability to think in metalinguistic terms, learning to function autonomously, critical citizenship and so on). Such a document could also include the resources represented by learners' command of their languages of origin. This approach to the possible forms of convergence and complementarity of competences and language learning is calculated to encourage the adoption of long-term strategies for the gradual implementation of a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum. The foundations already exist in the CEFR, with particular reference to Chapter 2.

### **2.1.3. The need to take account of the specific skills acquired in the languages of schooling**

The experience gained in the use of the CEFR and its proficiency levels allows us to apply the relevant analytical tools to the language of schooling, such as the distinction to be drawn between the various language activities in lessons, in moments of reflection and in assessment. Similarly, language teachers may wish to discuss the role and practical application of communication strategies with teachers in the language of schooling.

This also raises the possibility of extending the application of the CEFR proficiency levels to the language of schooling as a means of monitoring pupils' progress and identifying their needs. For example, certain experiments conducted in a number of countries show that using the CEFR descriptors, supplemented and/or adapted to take account of specific approaches to using a second language in various subjects, may be a valid and effective means of guiding the learning of this second language by pupils who are newly arrived in a country or region.

More generally, however, proficiency levels and their descriptors do not appear capable of highlighting certain fundamental aspects of the role of the language of schooling in the cognitive and personal development and construction of the identity of each individual learner. Admittedly the descriptors for levels B2 and beyond do draw a close link between cognitive and linguistic skills, particularly in the case of competences linked to written reception, written production and non-interactive oral production. However, this does not apply to lower levels. An insufficiently thought-through use of these proficiency levels could have the effect of, first, failing to take proper account of learners' language skills in the various subjects and, second, potentially

ignoring the specific role of the language of schooling in learners' development. Acquisition of this language coincides with a phase of pupils' general development, be it physical, cognitive or whatever. The social uses of the language outside school, exchanges as part of general school activities, interactions between the various members of the school community and the ways in which the language is used when it is itself being taught and in the teaching of other subjects all contribute to the development of skills in the language of schooling, with differing standards and subject to variations that may be significant and the reality of which may be difficult to grasp through the use of descriptors similar to those used to assess progress in foreign languages. The "Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education" on the website of the Council of Europe's Language Policy Unit<sup>23</sup> includes an entire section on examples of descriptors developed by different education systems to take more specific account of progress in command of the language of schooling.

While a distinction has to be drawn between modern languages – whether foreign or regional – and languages of schooling, there is still a case for a common approach to the teaching of each of these languages and of the various other subjects that would:

- ▶ describe the expectations associated with the various languages by offering a standard, even if partial, definition of the competences sought in each language taught as a subject;
- ▶ link and gauge these competences and sub-competences with reference to certain key points in the school career, such as the end of ISCED 2, of compulsory schooling and of ISCED 3, taking full account of the conditions – number of hours and years of study – under which each subject is taught, and of the similarities or differences between the languages concerned.

Such an approach can take different forms for foreign languages and languages of schooling, but they should be applied in such a way as to stimulate a process of convergence between the different subjects taught and constructive thinking about how pupils can increase their command of the relevant skills.

It needs to be stressed here that for this convergence process to be effective, the learners must themselves be aware of the actual and potential links in the process and benefit from them, thereby acquiring an understanding of how languages function.

## 2.2. STRATEGIES

Awareness of the social dimension of the acquisition and use of languages has progressively filtered into the educational debate on modern language teaching. Modern languages are now seen as the means that enable language users to function. They communicate in a defined context and are subject to specific constraints. As such, they must be able to mobilise a series of general, linguistic, pragmatic, sociolinguistic, sociocultural and other skills, together with communication strategies, strategy being defined as "any organised, purposeful and regulated line of action chosen by an individual to carry out a task which he or she sets for himself or herself or with which he or she is confronted".<sup>24</sup> Learners must acquire learning strategies, in other words the abilities to manage their own learning process, carry out self-assessments, set objectives, and observe and analyse how they mobilise and use their own skills, with a possible view to extending and broadening these attributes.

By its nature, the acquisition of these strategies is a process that cuts across the learning of different languages, including the first language and the language of schooling. In practice, learners develop such strategies from the outset of their language learning process. They represent tools that learners consolidate or develop when learning or using specific languages and that they can also potentially mobilise for other forms of communication or learning, whether in foreign languages or the language or languages of schooling. The notion of transfer is therefore crucial to the debate on the place and role of strategies in the curriculum.

Take the example of a specific task that might be included in the curriculum, namely reading an article on a topical issue or subject of concern with a view to reporting on it orally to a class that has not read it, using the language of schooling or a foreign language, or, in the case of a CLIL/EMILE class,<sup>25</sup> a second language.

Such a task presupposes the development of certain reading strategies, such as skimming, scanning and in-depth reading, drawing inferences and relating textual material to illustrations and/or graphs, and the application of certain cognitive processes, such as the ability to analyse, summarise and assess information, that are common to all languages, however dissimilar they may be. The methods used to teach reading in the

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23. Languages in Education – Languages for Education. *Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education*, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform).

24. CEFR, 2.1.

25. CLIL: content and language integrated learning; EMILE: enseignement de matières par l'intégration d'une langue étrangère.

language of schooling and in foreign languages may vary, or even be diametrically opposed, and this may extend to two foreign languages with different didactic traditions. Nevertheless, a careful sharing and mixing of methods on the part of teachers can help them to choose the most appropriate approach having regard to the circumstances, such as the types of text concerned, their linguistic difficulty and the skills already acquired by the pupils. This is a necessary condition if pupils are to be encouraged to consciously transfer strategies and activate the appropriate cognitive processes.

### **2.2.1. The place of strategies in the curriculum**

The ability to communicate entails a strategic competence, consisting of developing and adapting communication strategies. This strategic competence constitutes “the means the language user exploits to mobilise and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose”<sup>26</sup>. Naturally, the strategies used vary, according to whether the tasks involve understanding or production. However, it is possible to identify strategies for each of the language activities concerned, based on the application of four metacognitive principles:

- ▶ pre-planning of the relevant task: for production, rehearsing or preparing the presentation, identifying resources, awareness of the recipient or the audience, adapting the task or the message and so on; for reception, establishing expectations, choosing an appropriate cognitive framework, establishing an assessment schema and so on;
- ▶ execution: for production, avoidance, compensation, using previously acquired skills, testing; for reception, identifying indicators of reception and drawing relevant conclusions;
- ▶ monitoring execution: assessing the effectiveness of the communication process through listener or participant feedback, in the form of facial expressions, gestures and oral responses; verifying hypotheses concerning the meaning of a text, for example by matching the indicators with the schema;
- ▶ rectifying any difficulties encountered, by means of self-correction or, if necessary, revising the initial hypotheses.

These communication strategies can be extended to include the social dimension, for example the ability to take one’s turn in oral discussions, to co-operate with others, either interpersonally or by sharing ideas, to request assistance, to monitor receipt of the messages sent out, to seek clarification of statements made or, if necessary, clarify one’s own statements and so on.

The strategies used are individual in nature, even though different individuals may use identical strategies. They are structured, settled approaches that may evolve over time or be adapted according to the particular tasks concerned, the purpose of the communication activity or the learning objectives. The reason for including the development of such strategies in the curriculum is to make learners aware of the different elements of the process so that they are better able to apply them or can channel them to maximum effect. Learning to use these strategies cannot be left to the whim of learners’ experience and can, in contrast, be the subject of a progressive targeted approach. In the case of some of these strategies, scales for measuring attainment are already available in the CEFR for use with modern languages.

Learners may also use individual, sometimes spontaneous, strategies that do not automatically correspond to those envisaged in the teaching curriculum. For example, learners’ awareness of how the language or certain given languages function may be formed by assimilation, based on such activities as:

- ▶ making inferences about meaning;
- ▶ comparing words and identifying and verifying their semantic, grammatical and pragmatic differences, as well as differences of register and so on;
- ▶ comparing external – native and non-native – productions with their own;
- ▶ seeking information from and the opinions of other learners, teachers and so on.

There may be various motives for autonomous learning outside the confines of organised study, such as need or curiosity. Those concerned may then apply such global strategies as:

- ▶ systematically seeking opportunities for verbal interaction with speakers of the target language;
- ▶ systematically exposing themselves to the target language via television or the Internet;

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26. CEFR, 4.4.

- ▶ using dictionaries, grammars and video resources;
- ▶ keeping a diary of their progress, recording the various stages of the learning process and what they have learned, such as newly acquired vocabulary.<sup>27</sup>

Making those concerned aware of their learning strategies, while avoiding any precipitate value judgments, applies to every subject of the curriculum. Such awareness-raising is also designed to improve the effectiveness of such strategies by taking account of the cognitive style and work habits each individual has acquired in other educational cultures. This well-intentioned concern with learners' knowledge and skills may result in concerted action by the different academic disciplines concerned. Above all, it is likely to increase learners' confidence in their own resources and increase their motivation.

### **2.2.2. Taking account of the specific nature of modern language learning in schools**

Learning of these strategies is not linked to a particular language; they can be transferred from one language to another. It is precisely their application in different contexts (for example, in situations involving learning or use of different languages) that ensures their full value and significance from the learners' viewpoint. Employing these strategies in different situations turns them into real competences which expand the learners' repertoires.

Highlighting the cross-cutting dimension and the potential for transferring communication and learning strategies does not, however, mean that individual methods of learning them are the same depending on whether they are implemented in a language of schooling or another language, depending on the learner's level of command of the languages concerned or depending on how close the links are between the languages that make up the individual repertoire.

We will take the example of modern language teaching here to highlight the specific features and their consequences regarding the development of the relevant strategies.

Teaching methods incorporate these specific features by definition, for example, in the way they deal with the meaning of the action-oriented approach for the teaching. The learners are, of course, placed in situations in which they must perform communicative tasks which may range from the consistent implementation of project-based teaching to much more ad hoc or, indeed, sometimes very straightforward situations. In all cases, however, the communicative tasks proposed are suited to the learners' age and experience and to the particular needs of the course followed or to the educational context. A further consequence of this specific feature may be noted: performing these communicative tasks is under no circumstances the aim of the learning sequence. The goal pursued is the development of the learners' competences. While in ordinary social use of a language individual competences serve to perform communicative tasks, in initial school teaching, the latter are used to develop competences and strategies.

This has many consequences. Firstly, these concern the choice of the communicative tasks proposed to the learners, which is essentially guided by the most precise possible identification of the goals pursued (linguistic, pragmatic, cultural, etc.). Secondly, they concern the actual conduct of the learning sequence, the effectiveness of which is improved if it includes moments of collective and individual reflection about how to perform the task required, the necessary competences and knowledge and the strategies best suited to the situation given the competences available, and so on, in short, what are called "embedded sub-tasks" in the CEFR.

In the particular case of modern language learning, the significance of the acquisition of communication or learning strategies is determined by a characteristic of the learning situation. Learners who are learning one or several languages may, of course, need the language(s) they are learning or have learned, either in the short or the long term. They may also need to further improve their skills and competences in those languages in response to personal needs for training or for purposes related to their private lives and/or employment. They are, of course, just as likely to need or want to begin discovering other cultures and learning other languages in the course of their lives, possibly after the formal learning stage. School language teaching therefore serves a dual purpose: to pass on operational competences in the language taught and knowledge about the language and culture concerned, and provide all learners with the motivation and cognitive tools for building on what they have been taught in order effectively to engage in other learning on a lifelong basis. In the latter connection, learning accompanied by strategies plays a very particular role.

The above-mentioned implications of the specific nature of school language learning concern the teaching of all modern languages. As already stressed, taking account of the importance of developing strategies among learners goes beyond the teaching of each language in isolation and concerns learners' entire language learning paths.

27. This discussion is based on Beacco J.-C., Bouquet S. and Porquier R. (2004), *Niveau B2 pour le français*, Didier, Paris, Chapter 10.

### **2.2.3. The cross-cutting dimension of strategies in the curriculum**

If these strategies are to be developed in a balanced and structured manner, there needs to be consultation and agreement between those responsible for teaching languages and those responsible for their use by the same pupils or students. This process may take a number of forms and vary in content, as in the following examples:

- ▶ consultation between teachers of the same language or of different languages concerning the arrangements for applying these strategies in language training and related reflection activities, the progression to be followed in the acquisition of these strategies and/or the provision of information about strategies tested in pupils' prior school careers when they move from one class or stage of schooling to the next;
- ▶ the decision to introduce a strategy already explored by learners in another language into the teaching process;
- ▶ the arrangements for monitoring command of these strategies in the formative assessment process.

The Croatian National Programme offers an example of a strategy-based approach that identifies a language area that is common to all language teaching:<sup>28</sup>

#### **The language and communication area**

The primary purpose of the language and communication area is to enable students to acquire knowledge, develop skills and abilities, and adopt certain values and attitudes with respect to language, communication and culture. This means that students learn about language and communication, develop abilities and skills in standard Croatian and other languages, take an interest in reading, become effective writers, and grow to appreciate the value of various mass media while understanding how to approach it critically.

Taught as part of the language and communication area are: Croatian for native speakers, Croatian as a foreign language, national minority languages, modern foreign languages, classical foreign languages, Croatian sign language, and other languages of persons with special needs.

This document adopts a cross-cutting approach in identifying the objectives pursued, setting them out according to competences such as listening and reading, but also gives strategies a central role, as the following extracts show:

#### **Comprehension, in the language of schooling (2nd stage)**

##### **I. LISTENING**

##### **1. Preparation for listening**

[...]

##### **2. Applying listening strategies**

Students will:

- ▶ select and apply key cognitive, metacognitive, and social-affective strategies prior to and while listening to (and looking at) simple, non-literary and literary texts, either assigned or individually selected;
- ▶ differentiate between and identify the necessary, significant and interesting information in simple, non-literary and literary texts, either assigned or individually selected;
- ▶ acquire and apply key strategies of individual and collaborative learning both inside and outside the classroom.

##### **3. Listening comprehension (various sources: traditional and electronic)**

28. <http://public.mzos.hr/Default.aspx?sec=2497>.

## Comprehension, in the foreign language (2nd stage)

### I. LISTENING

#### 1. Preparation for listening

[...]

#### 2. Applying listening strategies

Students will:

- ▶ apply basic planning and management strategies for listening, and basic collaborative and individual learning strategies;
- ▶ use various foreign language audio resources, including the electronic media.

#### 3. Listening comprehension

The aim is to shift learners' focus to a certain extent away from the languages and cultures taught so that they gradually learn to use the resources they have acquired in the course of the various forms of language learning and their varied experiences of language learning and use. These individual resources include the strategies acquired when learning and using the language of schooling as well as those developed in connection with the study of other languages.

This explicitly plurilingual dimension to the implementation and learning of communication strategies may also serve to enhance these strategies. Knowledge acquired in other languages constitutes a potential resource that can be used in carrying out communication tasks. Why, for example, should a student ignore knowledge acquired as part of a topic studied in another language when he or she is preparing a comprehension or production exercise? Why refuse to make use of knowledge in another language to compensate for gaps in the language more directly concerned by the task? In this context, one particular form of learning appears to play a more central role in the acquisition of these strategies: the intercomprehension of languages that are similar or of the same family. Developing their capacity to apply their knowledge relating to a particular language system in order to draw inferences about the possible meaning of a text written in another language offers learners an effective means of understanding documents in languages similar to those they already know or have learned. This process signifies the application and potential enhancement of their individual repertoire, and at the same time makes them more aware that they have a varied range of strategies at their disposal. If such an approach is to be legitimised in the eyes of pupils, teachers must make it an explicit part of their syllabus.

Against this background of the guided use of resources that are transferable to other learning situations and applicable to communication tasks, learners must be aware that any knowledge and skills they might have acquired in languages other than those taught in the relevant establishment form part of their individual repertoires. However, whether or not pupils do make this connection depends in large measure on how teachers view these resources and on their recognition of the learning opportunities they offer.

### **2.2.4. The role of strategies in intercultural competence**

Bearing in mind the distinctive nature and specific responsibilities of any education system, the acquisition of communication and learning strategies that are transferable from one language to another could legitimately occupy an important place in the languages curriculum. The previous discussion has focused on communication strategies linked, to a greater or lesser extent, to the language activities of production or reception and learning strategies. However, education systems' responsibilities with regard to modern language teaching also extend to the formation of values. This leads on directly to the role of intercultural education, namely the development of learners' capacity to adopt a critical but sympathetic approach to different cultures, thus enabling them to interact effectively and responsibly with all forms of otherness.

Intercultural education also entails cross-cutting strategies that draw on every type of contact with otherness, including all forms of language learning and all types of discovery of other cultures, but also on moments of reflection on relevant individual or collective experiences (2.9). Learning not to react impulsively to an individual or group attitude or form of behaviour that may otherwise appear surprising or inexplicable, and thus knowing how to suspend judgment until one is in a position to understand the other's standpoint (which does not necessarily mean justifying it), itself constitutes a strategy. All forms of individual or collective mobility involve experiences of this type for which pupils and students need to be prepared: not only by providing relevant

information in advance but also by equipping them, through carefully organised and supervised discussion, with the ability to respond to otherness in all its different forms. This strategy has a communication dimension in that it can influence the quality and success of the communication in terms of both understanding and expression. As in the case of the communication and learning strategies described above, acquiring a positively critical attitude to multiple and varied examples of otherness requires teachers and the educational team, and thus the curriculum, to make it one of the elements of the learning process, so that pupils and students can discuss and express their views on experiences of this type (2.3).

## **2.3. REFLEXIVITY**

Cross-cutting links can also be established between school subjects to give greater substance to plurilingual and multicultural education in terms of the development of learners' cognitive activities. Certain activities, such as reflexivity, do not relate to any specific academic subject: instead, reflexivity, an educational sciences concept also known as metacognition, refers to those activities of learners that are not concerned exclusively with acquiring specific knowledge or applying particular skills. Instead, reflexivity serves to establish an element of distance from the latter in the form of a certain awareness of the processes used in learning. Learners draw on what they have learned or their experiences as a subject of analysis and a source of knowledge in itself. It is generally agreed that this distancing process improves their capacity for acquiring and transferring knowledge and for regulating the application of existing skills and competences or those in the process of being acquired. Depending on their particular cognitive styles, learners are equipped, to a greater or lesser extent, to assess their strengths and weaknesses and to be aware of how to resolve the problems identified or manage the tasks they have been set. One of the cross-cutting links between every discipline therefore consists in making use of this reflective process and developing it systematically, with a particular focus on pupils' ability to learn, and their capacity to function autonomously and to practise self-assessment, without neglecting the specific content of the subject matter.

The most general form of reflexivity concerns the strategies (2.2) that learners apply to acquire the required knowledge and competences, in order to participate in class activities or perform individual tasks they have been set: problem solving, as in maths or physics, text production, as in history or geography, or analysis of data, as in geography or biology. These procedures are taught explicitly under each subject, but the applicable strategies may be considered to be self-evident and therefore insufficiently described and illustrated in a systematic fashion. Moreover, the strategies recommended in class may not coincide with those actually used by learners, who must be made aware of the latter, with a view to modifying them or assessing their relevance.

When the knowledge and skills to be acquired are language-related, the term generally used to describe the guided reflective activities relating to the target language is metalinguistic. In the past, such an approach, more generally referred to as grammar, has taken the form of the transmission of knowledge and technical competences, such as logical analysis, that have little in common with self-assessment processes. Learners may react verbally to many of the characteristics of the propositions put forward and it is important for them to be given a genuine role in these activities (2.4).

Finally, reflexivity must also apply to the cultural and intercultural discoveries for which the teaching process necessarily provides many opportunities: teaching puts learners in contact with other geographically and historically diverse societies, and with other ways of thinking and other worlds of knowledge, such as those of the scientific disciplines. Such contacts have multiple effects and, once again, a self-assessment dimension is essential and must be organised in the same way as the accumulation of knowledge based partly on experience.

However, as well as the areas referred to so far, all the activities that make up a particular subject, and indeed all subjects, must incorporate a reflective element.

### **2.3.1. Reflexivity and communication**

Learners' reflexivity may relate to their communication resources at less technical levels than grammatical analysis, those that the CEFR (Chapter 5) identifies as sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Nevertheless, the primary focus of reflexivity, applying across all school subjects, is undoubtedly learners' language repertoires.

#### **Awareness of the language repertoire**

Learners' awareness of their repertoires – to what extent they are plurilingual, how they are formed over time and their future development – is a form of reflexivity that entails self-examination in terms of the construction and negotiation of the identities they seek or assume. From the outset, repertoires play a central role in

plurilingual and pluricultural competence: “the development of plurilingual and pluricultural competence promotes the emergence of linguistic awareness, and even of metacognitive strategies, which enable the social actor to become aware of and to control his own ‘spontaneous’ ways of handling tasks and, in particular, their linguistic dimension.”<sup>29</sup>

Learners must develop a clear idea of the languages they can use in the social and school settings, those that they are required to conceal, the ones they wish to acquire and those they have inherited, and the language or languages in which they intend to express their affiliation or allegiance.

Strictly grammatical reflexivity can become more effective if it is based on all the languages in the repertoire, particularly when these languages are not taught in any way in school. Of particular relevance here is the *European Language Portfolio*, in particular its *Language Passport* section, which offers a brief overview of individuals’ linguistic and cultural identity, language skills and experience of the use of other languages, and the *Language Biography* section, where they can document their knowledge and regularly assess their progress.<sup>30</sup> “Language life stories” are also an excellent means of promoting certain forms of awareness.

The contributions of the language awareness movement, launched by “reflective” teachers in Britain in the 1970s, according to which pupils should be asked to perform reflective and inductive observational tasks concerned with limited topics with little technical content relating to the use of language, languages and language learning, are still of relevance today. More recent forms of this approach, in projects such as the European EVLANG programme of educational innovation and research, under the auspices of the Socrates Lingua project, Action D, the Swiss EOLE (education and opening to languages at school) programme<sup>31</sup> or the critical language awareness movement in English-speaking countries, are all calculated to achieve the sought-after reflective outcome. It is also to be hoped that this area of activity will not remain confined to the first years of schooling.

### **Awareness of the diversity of textual genres**

The previous activities are designed to encourage learners to question the nature of language phenomena and how they function, as well as the very nature of description and its limitations, which are considered to be the conditions determining its relevance. This could lead to the establishment of a form of “epistemological awakening” to the description of languages.

These same activities could also usefully be applied to the nature of the texts – written or oral – used in the classroom. Even if the term is not used, the notion of textual genre represents a basis for reflection designed to make pupils aware that it is not enough simply to learn to “speak properly” or to “write properly” in order to carry out the verbal tasks required by every subject in an appropriate fashion. This cross-cutting aspect will be discussed later (2.8) and can be introduced in the form of activities based on the genres forming part of learners’ repertoires, such as riddles, charades, stories, fables, arguments, chat lines or Twitter, or those that form part of the school culture, particularly the types of written text expected to be used in language as a subject in the first years of schooling.

#### **2.3.2. Awareness of variation and norms**

Learners’ growing awareness of the composition of, and resources offered by, their repertoires of languages and textual genres will show them how varied they are. But schools also present pupils with a new, and different language, namely the language of schooling, which differs in part from the one they normally employ, and which must be used carefully and accurately. Communication in the classroom may take familiar forms, but it may also be conducted in more formal and controlled varieties of language, for example of a scientific nature. It requires “correct usage”, as defined by the dominant social norms, and those concerned have to be taught to recognise the nature of such usage and accept its use, when the communication situation and the relationship between the interlocutors so demands (2.5). One of the main tasks of plurilingual education is to secure the “transitions” from one form of communication to another, from oral interactions to the individual production of texts written in scientific genres.

As we have just made clear, these variations of a sociolinguistic nature have to be supplemented by a diversity of textual forms: those of subjects such as physics, art or technology that are intrinsic to the relevant academic

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29. Coste D., Moore D. and Zarate G. (2009), *Plurilingual and pluricultural competence*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, p. 12, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Publications and documents.

30. [www.coe.int/portfolio](http://www.coe.int/portfolio).

31. [www.ciip.ch/domaines/politique\\_des\\_langues/eole](http://www.ciip.ch/domaines/politique_des_langues/eole).



community, and those found in other languages, each of which may differ from the genres already featuring in pupils' individual repertoires. Moreover, the content of lessons may take numerous forms, both verbal and non-verbal, such as photographs, diagrams, maps and sketches, which require pupils to adjust from one semiotic code to another.

This wide-ranging and observable diversity in every subject means that learners need to be made aware, based on their own experience of social and school-based communication, of:

- ▶ social variations in the "same" language;
- ▶ variations in forms of exposure to and transmission of knowledge;
- ▶ variations in discourse genres – from one communication community to another that uses a different language, or from a scientific community to another, in the same language;
- ▶ value judgments attached to the standard, dominant or expected use of these varieties, having regard to the type of communication – private, informal, official and so on – and the relationship between and roles of the relevant interlocutors.

Pupils therefore have to be enabled not only to identify these different forms of communication and anticipate the effects of their use, and whether or not they are appropriate, but also to manage them themselves. They need to learn to use language in a lucid and controlled fashion having regard to the context and purpose of the relevant communication. To do so, they will have to alternate between the languages in their repertoire, and between different sociolinguistic and sociostylistic registers and different communication mediums. This should allow them to manage different forms of assumed identity, such as behaving like a stranger, seeking to pass unnoticed or deliberately failing to respect communication conventions.

### **2.3.3. Reflexivity and cultural decentring**

The teaching problems associated with cultural and intercultural relations are considered elsewhere in this document (2.9). Nevertheless, they should also be considered from the standpoint of reflexivity. Generally speaking, the purpose of this cross-cutting aspect of intercultural education, for which every school subject has a responsibility, is to develop open, considered and critical attitudes to enable learners to appreciate in a positive manner and manage successfully all forms of contact with otherness. The aim is to soften the sorts of ego- and ethnocentric attitudes that can arise from contacts with the unknown. The expected reactions are ones of astonishment: the discovery that standards and values considered to be "natural" are not shared by other groups can easily arouse feelings of surprise or incomprehension, leading to rejection. The task of the education system (and of other social institutions) is to teach learners to master these spontaneous reactions and guide them towards conscious and enlightened acceptance of otherness.

The purpose of schooling is to make learners aware of the existence of "internal" experiences of otherness, those associated with the social and intellectual domain that serves as each pupil's reference point. Within such domains, there are forms of cultural otherness readily to hand which learners can easily experience (for example, the contrast between the north and the south of a country) or the new intellectual horizons offered by scientific cultures and their ways of representing reality. The differences that are internal aspects of learners' social sphere are often already known and less surprising, though they are not necessarily easier to understand, on account of the prejudices and stereotypes engendered by dominant social representations. In essence, learners' experiences of foreign societies, or domestic societies that are "imported" from abroad, are comparable to these "internal" experiences. However, the "cultural surprises" engendered by the former are probably more intense, because their degree of foreignness may be perceived as more destabilising, for example for national identity. In these latter cases, knowledge is still essential, since prejudice is also the child of ignorance, but it is probably insufficient to alter representations and persuade learners to adopt a more benevolent and lucid attitude towards differences.

There are other differences relating to knowledge that learners need to recognise and learn to manage. For the majority of them, such differences form part of their spontaneous, informal understanding (based on simple external observation, such as the sun "sets", objects have a "weight" and "fall") or accepted social representations ("men drive better than women"). It is the school's responsibility to introduce them to other worlds of knowledge that often conflict with immediate experience and are based on protocols that are governed by an epistemology and originate in the scientific communities. This change of cognitive horizons also has an intercultural element, because it is not concerned solely with learners' intellectual capacities. It is important therefore to ensure that the teaching methods already developed in each educational discipline are applied in such a way as to secure the transition from naïve to informed knowledge.

By reflecting on their progress, each learning experience undergone, their linguistic, cognitive and cultural acquisitions and the strategies they have used, learners can themselves assess the value of the experience in question, how much weight to place on the acquisitions and how they can be extended to other experiences and learning situations. Since each experience should be based on varied and differentiated forms of appropriation, such self-assessments will enable learners to identify the most fruitful forms of acquisition for them, on which they can rely in their subsequent learning careers.

## 2.4. REFLEXIVITY AND GRAMMATICAL ACTIVITIES

It has been shown (2.3.2) how reflexivity, relating to the forms of communication in which pupils take part, can contribute to the development of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. Reflexivity is also often required for activities traditionally referred to as grammar, which are an important component of many educational cultures and are particularly applied to the language or languages of schooling as a subject and to foreign/unknown languages. As will be shown, such activities would benefit from a more cross-cutting perspective, since there is nothing to prevent one language from being analysed on the basis of data stemming from others: more should be done to relate the main language of schooling to the foreign languages taught, not only when the latter are being taught but also in the language of schooling as a subject, or to establish grammatical links between the foreign languages themselves rather than simply between the language of schooling and the foreign language. This recourse to other languages is always revealing, since the change of focus highlights how languages function by pinpointing contrasts.

These activities will be considered from the standpoint of the reflexivity that they are required to foster, in so far as they are intended to encourage learners to make use of descriptive categories (a process often referred to as grammaticalisation) and techniques for analysing the language, to improve their command of it. We will describe the various forms that grammatical reflexivity can take, depending on how far responsibility for it devolves on the teaching/teacher ("external" grammar) and how far it has been internalised by the learners.

### 2.4.1. "External" grammar

Grammar activities in the classroom traditionally serve a normative function, particularly in the case of the language of schooling, where the aim is to achieve a correct, error-free use of languages, having regard to their internal norms. They must also give learners a certain command of sociolinguistic variations to assist their appreciation of what constitutes good usage. In addition, they have an organising role, which particularly concerns the morphosyntax of the language, whose purpose is to offer learners the tools to produce grammatically correct written and oral texts. Fundamentally though, they have a reflective function consisting in making those concerned aware of the mechanisms of a language, their internal logic and their regular features: the last-named are termed "rules", which implies that they must be applied obediently and reasonably unquestioningly. The rules are to be applied and "understanding" them is mainly taken to mean having a clear idea of how they function, their scope and their limitations (the "exceptions to the rule").

In their everyday practice, teachers tend to favour the normative and organising functions of grammar. Close attention is paid to grammatical spelling (when it is case, as in French), morphology, all too visible a source of errors, the syntax of simple and complex sentences and the rules of grammar, which do not allow the speaker to exercise any choice, even though this is often possible. Not every aspect of a given language is automatic and cut and dried, as, for example, in the case of verb tenses, whose use is also governed by what the communication is intended to convey. In French, for example, it is possible to express the idea of Victor Hugo's birth in various verbal forms: "*Victor Hugo est né/naquit/naissait/naîtra en 1802*").

The dominant approach in grammatical activities conceived in this way is probably for the teacher to present a particular linguistic feature, which may be illustrated with reference to an authentic sample text, made-up examples or sentences or parts of sentences specially chosen. The description focuses on certain general features (norms), using a particular terminology that teachers may try to simplify but is often complex. In essence, it entails "the presentation of formal paradigms, tables of forms, etc. followed by explanations using an appropriate metalanguage and formal exercises [such as] gap-filling [and] multiple choices [questions]"<sup>32</sup>. Interactions with the class take the traditional form: teacher's question – pupil's reply – teacher's assessment of the reply (to establish whether the information transmitted has been properly understood). This process of transmitting an "external" grammar does not seek directly to elicit learners' linguistic reflexivity but simply

32. CEFR, p. 161.

their general cognitive competences, namely their ability to understand information. Nevertheless, this may occur, since pupils may find counter-examples that invalidate the norm or come up with statements that appear to illustrate contradictory grammatical points: is “*envoyer un message par mail*” (send a message by email) a verb phrase of the same type as “*commencer par le début*” (start at the beginning)? Teachers are then somewhat reluctantly forced to go beyond mere description and lead the discussion that may arise from such comments by learners – all the more so as there is a degree of uncertainty about the reference descriptions of the language themselves, reflecting ongoing linguistic debate.

### **2.4.2. Inductive grammatical methods**

The above widely accepted approach to teaching grammar may have given way somewhat to more inductive methods. What distinguishes this approach is the emphasis placed on the language material to be studied (the micro corpus), which learners must try to analyse on the basis of procedures such as substitution and transformation or categories previously supplied by the teacher.

For example, based on a corpus of carefully selected examples, Spanish speakers learning French can be shown that in French, agency in passive constructions is expressed by *par*, not *pour* (similar to the Spanish *por*). With the help of another set of examples they could then be asked to work out when *de* is employed with the same function (contrast *La maison était entourée d'un parc / La casa estaba rodeada por* or *Cette décision sera appréciée de tout le monde / por todos*). Similar use can be made of other contrasting pairs of examples: *écrasé par une voiture / écrasé de remords* (*atropellado por un coche / hundido por los remordimientos*).

The task is then one of application and must lead on to the formulation of rules, constants and explanations regarding previously identified features of the selected corpus. Such procedures, which are highly relevant to both the language of schooling and foreign languages, are given a quite discrete role in the CEFR (6.4.7.7), which places them at the head of the list of available means of developing grammatical competence:

- ▶ “a) inductively, by exposure to new grammatical material in authentic texts as encountered;
- ▶ b) inductively, by incorporating new grammatical elements, categories, classes, structures, rules, etc. in texts specially composed to demonstrate their form, function and meaning;
- ▶ c) as b), but followed by explanations and formal exercises;
- ▶ ...
- ▶ e) by elicitation and, where necessary, reformulation of learners’ hypotheses, etc.”

This form of grammatical activity requires a significant input from pupils since they must not only learn but also observe, classify, compare, handle data, formulate hypotheses and discuss them with a view to reaching conclusions. It is generally considered to be more effective, even though this is still widely questioned. Yet again, though, it is still not clear that learners’ metalinguistic reflexivity, in the strict sense, is called on here, since they are not dealing with verbal productions reflecting their own situations but with a corpus supplied to them and of which they do not feel ownership. Moreover, this corpus is pre-formatted to illustrate specific grammatical problems: pupils’ observations are therefore part of a guided process. This approach constitutes a form of reflection whose aim in practice is to achieve a form of a posteriori verification of already acquired knowledge, just as when, in practical work in physics, pupils are asked to verify the law of gravity experimentally using their own measurements.

The aim of this inductive approach is to replicate findings that have already been reached and are deemed to be relevant. It also simulates metalinguistic reflexivity, which can be justifiably considered to represent “progress” when compared with traditional grammatical methods. And there is a further application of reflexivity when these observations on the online corpus are based on individual experience and reflect immediate descriptive needs, for example when they concern a word in the micro corpus of matches that fits the context.<sup>33</sup>

### **2.4.3. Internalised grammar: epilinguistic insights and conceptualisation**

The aforementioned inductive approaches use a certain form of reflexivity, but they are nevertheless “applied” forms of reflexivity that are developed and used by teachers. They are not based on learners’ language experience as they express it, which could draw, however imperfectly, on their underlying metacognitive skills.

33. Boulton A. and Tyne H. (2014), *Des documents authentiques aux corpus*, Didier, Paris.

Obviously, there are those whose individual awareness of how language functions is very limited; even so, such so-called epilinguistic insights can be expressed in words, albeit in forms that are not original but that are nevertheless valid. If one wishes to draw out learners' personal hypotheses about how a language functions, as they use it in communication based on their linguistic repertoire, use can be made of "conceptualisation exercises",<sup>34</sup> which have been developed for foreign languages but which can certainly also be used for the first language. The author describes them as grammatical practices that are not intended to give learners a metalinguistic knowledge that enables them to produce or correct their foreign language statements but simply to take account of their metalinguistic perception.<sup>35</sup> This pedagogical approach consists in enabling learners to draw on the knowledge that they develop spontaneously about their own productions. It results in the collective drawing up of "learners' rules", which constitute a verbalisation of their insights but which must possibly be reformulated to achieve operational descriptive effectiveness. Thus, on the basis of examples produced by them (reflecting a certain command of the phenomenon), pupils learning French as a foreign language, having been asked to explain the use of the relative pronouns *qui* and *que*, formulated the following rule: "*Qui* and *que* are like *il* and *le*", which is very concise and shows great awareness of the formal and functional affinities of the two categories of personal and relative pronouns.

This conceptualisation activity has reached too limited an audience. It sets out to describe the cognitive acquisition processes actually used in grammatical activities and exercises through their verbalisation by the learners themselves. It could now find a place in the education process, given the attention paid to the reflective activities and verbalisations of learners demonstrating their capacity for self-analysis of acquisition.<sup>36</sup> However, it is still very remote from the professional culture of language teachers: learners' initial insights are difficult to understand, because they may be distorted by what is learned in school, which means that this internalised grammar is rarely used correctly for learning purposes. Nevertheless, it is still quite possible to rely on learners' intuitions to enable them to describe features of language, even if such descriptions have not ultimately been "invented" by the learners. At all events, there is much to be gained from making use of these intuitions, particularly for the language of schooling, with regard to which learners can rely on their innate sense of grammaticality and their perception of variation.

#### **2.4.4. From teachers to learners: "transfers" of reflexivity, in the case of foreign languages**

Grammatical activities still give precedence to external grammars, that is exposing learners to descriptions that they have not themselves drawn up and for which their linguistic reflexivity is only required on the surface. However, in the case of foreign language teaching, a certain form of reflexivity may be reintroduced and reused in lessons by teachers who share the same first language as their pupils and who have therefore themselves had the same experience of learning it as foreigners.

These teachers need not confine themselves to the generally recognised and approved grammatical description of the language. They must sometimes modify this reference description by introducing variations or innovations. These adaptations are generally made in response to frequent errors, either individual or collective and up to advanced levels, that are foreseeable and resistant to correction; they are generally attributed to "interferences" with the first language or to the process of "nativisation" of the target language, which is filtered through the categories of the first language. These processes are not available to learners through self-analysis (and they may well be resistant to such awareness), because they are subconscious. However, they can be brought into the open by someone, such as a teacher, who is able to release them. Teachers who are aware of the potential difficulties of such learning often try to make grammatical descriptions more operational by modifying the recognised description of the target language. They may seek to make it more accessible to learners' metalinguistic culture, particularly by drawing on categories of the main language of schooling, as used to describe the latter when pupils are taught its grammar at primary level.

These adaptations can be treated as contextualisations, in that this is how the grammatical description is adapted to learners' metalinguistic culture. They consist in modifying the very content of the normal descriptions and are most readily observable in grammar books produced in other countries by non-native speakers. In foreign French grammars produced outside the French-speaking world, there are such instances as:

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34. Besse H. (1974), "Les exercices de conceptualisation ou la réflexion grammaticale au niveau 2", *Voix et Images du Crédif (VIC)*, Didier, Paris, pp. 38-44 and (1980), "Métalangages et apprentissage d'une langue étrangère", *Langue française* 47, pp. 115-128.

35. Besse H. and Porquier R. (1984), *Grammaires et didactique des langues*, col. LAL, Crédif-Hatier, Paris, p. 113 ff.

36. For example, Berthoud, A.-C. (1982), *Activité métalinguistique et acquisition d'une langue seconde*, P. Lang, Berne, Chapter 8.

- ▶ the creation of “rules” that do not appear in normal grammatical descriptions, such as “rules of equivalence” (for example, “*vi/ci* in Italian are generally the equivalent of *y* in French”) or the operating rules for translation;
- ▶ “joint descriptions” of features of languages that are not compared in normal descriptions of French, for example *par* and *pour* in French are dealt with together in grammars for Spanish speakers because of their similarities with *por* in Spanish;
- ▶ totally novel descriptions in the form of terminological creations by reverse borrowing, such as *dative* (Turkish and Lithuanian) instead of *complément d’objet indirect* (indirect object) in French, *preposizione articolata* (Italian, preposition with article) instead of *article contracté* (contracted article).

These contextualised descriptions should be considered to have the same status as the rules learners have framed in conceptualisation activities, since they have been developed outside the context of official descriptions on the basis of the language experience of learners who have become teachers. These are rules which have emerged from contact between two metalinguistic cultures and which the teachers who produced them are making available to new learners. They are the outcome, therefore, not of the latter’s personal reflection but of a form of “collective reflexivity”, which is undoubtedly external but not foreign to them, so that they are all the more likely to accept it.

It will be observed that many of these descriptions are the result of an everyday activity of foreign language teachers, namely that of “comparing” the target language and the first language/language of schooling. This process can be reversed (from foreign languages to the language of schooling) and extended to comparisons between two foreign languages. It may even be possible to make use of early descriptions of the language of schooling that could be more meaningful to learners. These flexible forms of comparison provide cross-cutting links and as such play a full part in plurilingual education, the purpose of which is to establish areas of convergence in the teaching of different languages. Moreover, they are particularly relevant when considering the notions of norms and variation (2.5).

## 2.5. NORMS AND VARIATION

Every curriculum offers learners a range of experiences that contribute to their education, their upbringing and their socialisation. One of the main features of this process is that the transformations it effects are dependent to a large extent on variation, particularly linguistic variation, and an increasing complexity and diversity of the norms that are meant to regulate this variation. The balance struck between norms and variation needs to be made explicit and be carefully thought out rather than glossed over or reduced to its most codified aspects. It is on this balance – which concerns all subjects – that pupils’ success and their future as responsible members of society very largely depends.

### 2.5.1. The primacy of variation (and norms)

It may be argued as a matter of principle (though it is also a choice of values) that individuals’ school progress and education are more a function of variation than of the forms of repetition and reproduction associated with fixed models.

We propose a dual definition of variation:

- ▶ first, it refers to the entire diversified range of language resources – both linguistic and other semiotic forms, such as mathematical language, graphs and so on – that are available to social agents or to which they are exposed. We can describe this as a “repertoire of variation”; in its linguistic form such a repertoire may be plurilingual, that is composed, to varying degrees of development and command, of elements from different language systems;
- ▶ second, it also refers to the ways in which social agents use such resources or take them on board by exploiting their multiplicity. We will describe this phenomenon as “variations of practice”, by which is meant the application to particular contexts of diversified components of the available language resources (for example, borrowing from various communication formats, discursive genres or sociolinguistic registers, or alternating between or mixing several languages).

Neither the repertoire nor variation practices are matters of chance. Both are governed and regulated by norms that are variable in origin and nature. These are grammatical, sociolinguistic and social norms applicable to interpersonal communication, to the establishment, transmission and retention of knowledge and to daily interchanges between individuals. But these norms are also subject to linguistic changes over time and to social developments, and any user can breach these norms, whether or not they are aware of doing so.

Against this background and in contrast to certain pedagogical traditions, we do not believe that language teaching must first entail a “standard” rule or norm, on to which variations could subsequently be grafted, but rather that learning takes place and rules are internalised through the employment and exploitation of variation. This does not mean that schools do not have a duty to ensure the acquisition of and compliance with certain rules necessary for their operations and their teaching and broader educational roles, and for pupils’ success and future progress.

### **2.5.2. The child’s experience of variation and norms**

Children who enter school are already aware of the linguistic plurality and diverse norms which apply there. They know, for example – albeit sometimes only implicitly – that they have a varied body of language resources and that their use is partly determined by the particular context to which they are applied or the group to which they belong. Swear words may be used, and even have a particular status, within peer groups while being forbidden in the family environment. At the same time, though, it is precisely through their participation in these varied social settings that children both develop their language skills and internalise the norms that apply in the different contexts.

Sociolinguists distinguish between different types of variation, whose categories can be applied to individuals, and in this case young children’s, everyday experience:

- ▶ Variations linked to time: intergenerational contacts expose children to exchanges with elderly persons who may use particular turns of phrase or words, or even other dialects or languages.
- ▶ Variations linked to distance: when they change location or use the media, children come across unfamiliar local or regional forms of language.
- ▶ Variations linked to social differentiation: both in their immediate environment and in the media, children discover forms of speech of varying familiarity, ranging from demotic to much more “cultivated”.
- ▶ Variations linked to situations, activities and specific circumstances: from the earliest age, children are aware of differences in style between, for example, the way adults address them and how the same persons address other adults, depending on whether they are very close or complete strangers, or again how adults tell or read them stories.

Of course, these convenient categorisations fail to take account of the full complexity of linguistic variation and the different dimensions are often combined in practice. What is significant, though, is the very early stage at which young children experience diversity of language, without always being explicitly aware of the prevailing norms in a particular context. A father or mother may tell a child not to “speak like that here”, while a carefully chosen or formal form of wording might be met with ridicule and scorn among a group of friends, but, generally speaking, compliance (or non-compliance) with the relevant contextual norms is the consequence of prior observation *in situ* and self-regulation, rather than an explicit acknowledgement of strict instructions.

In the case of children in school, variation (as a repertoire of resources to be applied in practice) comprises contextual varieties of language that they have developed and that might pertain to several languages or dialects of which they have differing levels of command. This variation includes grammatically “correct” elements (from the standpoint of the formal functioning of the systems concerned) and others that are agrammatical. It combines elements that are sociolinguistically appropriate and others that are less so or not at all, having regard to accepted normal social usage. It also includes elements that can derive from pupils’ own creativity, such as neologisms, the transitory personal grammars of language learners, hybrid forms and genres, inter-language experiences, the makeshift melding of neighbouring languages, coded languages, emerging pidgins and so on. The written forms and genres used in online chatting on social networks or the abbreviations and approximations that form part of text messaging and other electronic forms of communication also reflect the creative aspect of variation.

Children’s language repertoires expand in line with the development of their knowledge and competences in the course of their initial socialisation. The two processes are closely linked and are interdependent. This is largely, but by no means exclusively, a function of the increasing range and complexity of their vocabulary, from the standpoints of both comprehension and production. It is also a consequence of their growing familiarity with various discursive genres (2.8) in the groups and environments of which they form part and in which they circulate.

In other words, what is significant in determining these relationships between variations and norms is not just children’s pre-school socialisation and upbringing but also their individual experiential curriculum, which is just starting to develop.

### **2.5.3. Norms and variation in school**

Schools have for long been, and sometimes still are, seen as institutions where the relationship between norms and variation are reversed, so that education becomes the setting in which norms are introduced, learned and imposed, and where variations are reduced, repressed or, at best, channelled. This sort of break with the past when schooling starts is generally attributed to two factors: the introduction of written material and the importance attached to the main language of schooling, the national and/or official language, as a vehicle of the country's common culture and unity.

In the case of written language, reading and writing are considered to require the use of a standardised and rule-governed language equipped with metalinguistic tools such as grammars and dictionaries that determine not just actual usage but also descriptions of the language system, a process that is supplemented and reinforced by the teaching of grammar.

When the national language's status is heavily bound up with national identity, this sometimes becomes the motivation and justification for reducing or stigmatising entire segments of the variations that characterise readers' and writers' use of language.

In practical terms, this can have two consequences: (1) failure to recognise or take account of pupils' linguistic plurality resulting from their experiences prior to or outside school; (2) lack of awareness of and consideration for what is in fact the language variation that is intrinsic to the school's very functioning and the development of knowledge and competences.

The consequences of the introduction of writing and the national status of the language of schooling vary between countries and languages, but they tend to occur in the majority of contexts and are all the more difficult to minimise in so far as they are justified by and form part of not only the history of the relevant education system but also teachers' professional habitus and often their ethical systems.

This is not, of course, to deny the need to establish the norms of a language for the purposes of schooling and, more generally, the normal functioning and evolution of any society. However, this does not mean that "non-standard" varieties must be eradicated, nor that a set of norms deemed to occupy a central role should be the sole yardstick by which any variation is judged. From which can be inferred a few practical guidelines and principles of direct relevance to the curriculum and to a form of education that acknowledges linguistic and cultural plurality.

### **2.5.4. Subjects, variation and knowledge building**

Schools are organised on the basis of distinct areas of activity, including the various subjects of the curriculum, in which pupils progress by, *inter alia*, the extension and increasing complexity of their language variation resources – their repertoire – and, depending on the area concerned, the norms intended to govern the way these resources are used in practice. The language genres and forms used in history teaching change considerably between the start and end of secondary education; the introduction of trigonometry or geometry into the syllabus represents a slight increase in pupils' language resources but also requires them to comply with new linguistic routines in reports or presentations. The repertoire expands but so also do the ways of using it, with varying degrees of strictness.

In both their subject-based and other components, schools have a particular responsibility to ensure that the relationships between variations and norms are clearly identified and exploited (and not only in language teaching as a school subject) and that they are the subject of explicit reflection. The relevant norms must be as transparent as possible and schools have a duty to be fully open about their own functioning and activities.

Schools as a whole, as well as each individual subject, can only benefit from recognition of variation and the diversity of norms as cross-cutting factors. In other words, just as schools are institutions in which norms have an important role, they must also recognise, and secure recognition of the fact, that these norms are multifaceted in nature and adopt an approach to them that is itself multifaceted, which means:

- ▶ First, recognising the plurality of language resources that pupils have acquired and continue to acquire outside of school, by refusing to stigmatise them and drawing on the ones that can contribute to pupils' progress. Consideration of these contributions must also demonstrate their complexity and highlight the way in which their variation is also governed by norms (2.3 and 2.4).

- ▶ Second, establishing links between the variation–norms relationship pertaining to a particular subject and those applied by other school subjects: for example, the procedure and criteria applicable to written essays or dissertations in the language of schooling are not normally the same as those that are applied to history exercises, while reports on experiments in physics differ somewhat from reports of observations in biology. The same would apply to the semiotic forms of representation – curves, tables, graphs and so on – used in economics and in geography.

Naturally, each school subject has its own agenda concerning the skills and knowledge that it seeks to impart. Subjects also differ at least to some extent in terms of the variations in the language resources they employ and the norms they apply to them. However, each of them does make internal use of language variation by means of the reformulations, transcoding, changes of textual genre and so on it practises in the mediation of knowledge. Internal variation is used to carry out a whole process of abstraction and conceptualisation: from everyday to specialist discourse, from drawing to diagram, from formula to model, from the reading of a text to the oral expression of the spontaneous reactions it provokes and to its analysis with the aid of questioning and exploration and interpretation methods, and so on.

The cross-cutting aspect of this phenomenon consists in ensuring that for each school subject the expected variation should be made quite explicit and both teachers and pupils should be fully aware of it.

The same principles should be applied in every subject, whether it is concerned with learning languages or developing knowledge and skills in other domains, namely:

- ▶ making it quite clear that the objectives pursued by the subject in question involve following a pathway through a diverse range of communication formats, textual genres and semiotic representations;
- ▶ emphasising that these formats, genres and representations are loci of linguistic variation where languages and the capacities for expression, comprehension, interaction and mediation of their uses all come into play:
  - the resources deployed in group work are not the same as those used in activities where the teacher interacts with the whole class;
  - similarly, reading a classified advertisement, a newspaper editorial, an Internet site homepage or an instruction manual each entails a different activity;
  - the comments on a statistical table differ from those on a demographic breakdown map or a set of aerial photographs of a rural area, highlighting the variety and importance of semiotic representations.

The transition from spontaneous and everyday concepts to knowledge of the discipline in question involves variations in formats, genres and forms of representation that are indissolubly linked to the language variations that this transition entails.

However, the greater range and increasing complexity of the language resources concerned also reflect the requirements of such transitions, and this also applies to languages themselves as subjects, whereas the latter, both the language of schooling as a subject and foreign languages, often tend to apply a single set of norms or to limit strictly the scope for variation of formats, genres or semiotic representations.

### **2.5.5. The variable application of norms**

There are clearly moments in this process of expanding knowledge and competences, particularly when pupils have formulated their ideas relating to a particular subject and are on the point of expressing them, when the need for norms is most marked, for example, in connection with the choice of lexicon, conjuncts and logical connectors or the possible need to express a subjective nuance, but also regarding spelling, punctuation or graphical presentation, and in the case of oral presentations the manner of pronunciation or delivery. One of the school's tasks is to prepare pupils to satisfy these requirements.

Equally, while teachers must be receptive to pupils' spontaneous forms of expression and the languages and varieties they use, and can offer them a wide range of texts and documents, both "legitimate" and otherwise, to study and reflect on, their own oral and written presentations in the classroom whatever their personal style must nevertheless remain "exemplary". In other words they must be bound by the accepted variant of the language, namely the language of schooling. Teachers who adopt an excessively familiar register, in the hope that this will make them understood by their pupils, risk committing three errors of judgment, namely those of: (1) devaluing young people's forms of speech by plagiarising them, while not belonging to their group; (2) appearing manipulative in the eyes of the pupils, who are not fooled and are well aware that this



is not how teachers are expected to behave; (3) complicating their own task when it is no longer appropriate to employ a mixture of genres.

In other words, whatever their subject area, teachers who are not only receptive to linguistic plurality and variability but also know how to exploit this for the purposes of transmitting and developing knowledge are still also representatives and guardians of the language norm, or rather norms, both those that apply to their teaching subject area and those necessary to live and work together in school.

However, it is also important to ensure that these norms do not become the mould on which all classroom activities are based, so that it is then perceived by pupils as a constraint that inhibits their forms of expression. Tentative rough drafts, informal notes, spoken contributions that are not inhibited by fear of making mistakes and mixtures of languages and registers in oral and written work all have their place. Such contributions are by no means always anarchic or purely individual, and so long as they do not prevent mutual understanding or the ability to express oneself, there may be particular moments when they are the only means of facilitating learning.

This is particularly – though by no means only – the case with classes of pupils of different language origins, where resorting to mixed or hybrid forms of language or alternating languages may be both acceptable and productive for certain activities and stages of school careers. What counts is whether such a process culminates in a proper grasp of the subject in question.

When group work is being used to perform a task, pupils may be given considerable latitude in their choice of language resources so long as the final product complies with the norms of genre, format, degree of formality, presentation and so on.

More generally, irrespective of subject, teachers may alternate activities, so that some of them offer pupils the scope to draw freely on their repertoires to enable them to express themselves, be creative and make themselves understood, while other activities require them to stick as closely as possible to the norms that are meant to govern their written or oral work.

### **2.5.6. Norms and assessments**

There is a strong link between norms and assessments. Emphasising the plurality of norms and the functional role this plurality serves in teaching and learning means that the range of subjects and methods of assessment can also be expanded (2.10) rather than being confined, in the case of languages, to the most formal aspects of language functioning. These cannot, of course, be neglected, but are not the only means of judging linguistic performance.

It is often held in the case of foreign language learning, though it applies as well to other subjects, that errors also contribute to the acquisition processes and that seeking systematically to punish such errors could impede these processes, or even block them. In language teaching, beginners are often taught through the repetition and memorisation of standard forms and fixed models of the language that leave little scope for varying the content of what is taught. However, the learners themselves then produce variations, as a result of “interference”, their own provisional “grammars” and their creativity and risk-taking in both production and comprehension, and the assessment arrangements need to take account of this.

From another, but related, standpoint, instruments like the CEFR have demonstrated the possibility of producing evaluations using criteria of varying degrees of strictness, depending on which ones are selected and combined, and of basing assessments on progress achieved rather than on mistakes made.

Such approaches do not apply in the same way or to the same extent to all subjects, stages of schooling or level of studies. They also need to be seen in the context of the educational culture concerned, since this can differ to varying degrees from country to country, even in a purely European setting.

Be that as it may, whatever the context and the objectives sought, schooling cannot avoid the issue of the relationship between variation and norms. Whether it is a question of knowledge and competences, education for citizenship or contributing to inclusion and social cohesion, it is in and through the experience of variation and its relationship to norms that schools perform their role, in conjunction with, though sometimes also at odds with, other bodies that contribute to young people’s socialisation.

## 2.6. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN LANGUAGES

So far, the cross-cutting factors have been considered mainly in relation to learners (even though how variations are perceived may also involve the subjects of the learning process). However, variations may also be defined entirely in terms of the intrinsic characteristics of the academic subjects, in this case the languages themselves or rather the various effects of the way the teaching process brings them into contact with each other. From this standpoint, the CEFR<sup>37</sup> identifies “three main principles” to guide discussion about curricula in relation to linguistic diversity:

- ▶ promoting linguistic diversity, which “means that the teaching and learning of any one language should also be examined in conjunction with the provision for other languages in the education system and the paths which learners might choose to follow in the long term in their efforts to develop a variety of language skills”;
- ▶ the cost-efficiency of the system “so as to avoid unnecessary repetition and to promote the economies of scale and the transfer of skills which linguistic diversity facilitates”;
- ▶ the general language education perspective “in which linguistic knowledge (*savoir*) and skills (*savoir-faire*), along with the ability to learn (*savoir-apprendre*), play not only a specific role in a given language but also a transversal or transferable role across languages”.

Adopting a unitary approach to the diversity of languages at school and in the teaching/learning processes, drawing on the resources offered by pupils’ repertoires and achieving economies of scale by adopting a general language education perspective are the main principles underlying this consideration of the similarities or differences between languages.

Considering the linguistic field in these terms means placing as much emphasis on the similarities between languages as on what differentiates them. However, focusing firstly on their similarities also means that all the shared and cross-cutting aspects of languages become the starting point, only then to be followed by what makes languages distinctive and the differences between them, in other words their state of otherness. This is a pedagogical choice aimed at facilitating language teaching and learning, but it also reflects the humanist and educational principle of plurilingual and intercultural education that teaches those concerned to understand diversity and plurality by highlighting what is common to those concerned.

A similar point can be made with regard to cultures and to the cultural phenomena linked to language communicative competence. Cultures may resemble each other to a greater or lesser extent, with certain similarities and certain differences, but all of them reflect the current knowledge, values, representations and practices in human communities and societies.

The didactic activities that make use of the similarities and differences between languages come within the scope of reflexivity (2.3); they establish strategies for transfer (2.2) and as such contribute to the ability to learn.<sup>38</sup> In the first place, this involves contrastive reflective activities that allow comparisons to be made between the languages that the pupils speak and the ones they come into contact with in school and in society. These awareness-raising activities also provide training in how to manage the plurilingual resources of repertoires and in various strategies, including metalinguistic and metacognitive ones, to facilitate learning.

Reflexivity based on comparison and the formulation of hypotheses on how language functions serves various, complementary, purposes:

- ▶ taking account of and using – thereby enhancing – the initial repertoire of learners’ linguistic and cultural resources, with a view to extending it and learning other languages;
- ▶ diversifying and facilitating learning activities in the light of how far the languages and cultures represented in the school resemble or differ from each other:
  - close resemblance facilitates much more rapid progress in the areas of acquisition where there are similarities, through the use of transfer strategies;
  - significant differences – between languages of the same group or between those of different groups, or even families – means that the necessary time must be taken to carry out specific tasks to facilitate language acquisition, using cognitive mediation activities based on reflexivity to make that which initially appears remote and unapproachable seem closer and more accessible;

37. CEFR, 8.2.1.

38. Taken in the broad sense “ability to learn may also be conceived as ‘knowing how, or being disposed, to discover otherness’ – whether the other is another language, another culture, other people or new areas of knowledge” (CEFR, 2.1.1).

- ▶ introducing learners to, and helping them to develop, various types of transfer strategy, whether between similar or dissimilar languages (2.2);
- ▶ providing learners with opportunities for and the means of extending and diversifying their repertoires, having regard to their language competences, harmonising them and managing them consciously and flexibly;
- ▶ promoting, thereby, learner autonomy in the process of learning current and future languages;
- ▶ using plurality of languages to assist the extension of knowledge.

### **2.6.1. The types of similarity to exploit**

The similarities considered here concern the languages represented and taught in the school: the languages of pupils' repertoires, the language or languages of schooling, foreign, regional and minority languages, migration languages and classical languages. In connection with our current general reflection on languages, the description of communication competence as it appears in the CEFR (Chapter 5) identifies the elements of the various languages that need to be compared. All the components of communication competence give rise to actualisations that can vary according to language, or group of languages, and become the "subjects", in their own right, of contrastive analysis and transfer strategies (2.2).

The most purely linguistic elements of language, namely those that stand out first, such as their lexicon, grammar, phonology and spelling, give rise to more immediate and practical comparisons. However, these "surface" structures must not mask the other sociolinguistic and pragmatic dimensions of communication competence, which relate to much more complex skills and to cognitive processes that are largely shared by all languages and to certain cultural aspects linked to human communication. The component elements of communication competence enable us to define the different levels of, and determine the various possible approaches to, the analysis and comparison of languages.

When every language or just a pair of languages belongs to the same language group, their degree of similarity provides an opportunity for contrastive reflection both on the surface structures<sup>39</sup> and the other dimensions of communication competence.

However, when the languages at school belong to different groups, the contrastive analysis will focus less on the surface structures than on the processes involved in language acquisition and sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. It is therefore advisable not to restrict the contrastive analysis to more obvious and transparent surface similarities; instead, it is important to identify much deeper and more significant, as well as more abstract and theoretical, similarities in learners' cognitive and language competences (2.3, 2.4 and 2.8).

### **2.6.2. Conditions for success**

Exploiting the similarities and differences between languages entails a change of perception and of practices still often based on a compartmentalised conception of languages and how they are taught.

The change of perception and decompartmentalisation of practices, which can be carried out gradually, are equally relevant to languages and other school subjects, whether the latter are taught in one language or two. Certain aspects of the strategies adopted when reading any subject-based text or writing in a subject-based textual genre are the same or similar across all subjects while others are specific to each discipline's subject-based content. Thus, a mathematics textbook is not read in the same way as a history one, or as a chemistry or science text. While certain strategies, such as skimming and scanning before any intensive reading takes place, may be common to all disciplines, and thus transferable from one to another, texts in the various subjects also require quite specific strategies.

Finally, the contrastive approach would benefit from being considered as a state of mind that constantly inspires the activities of every teacher and transfer strategies, in the form of a cognitive resource that is always active in pupils' learning process. For this to become possible, another change of teachers' and learners' perceptions is necessary, which entails a change of attitude from fear of error and interference to a more positive and less normative one of taking initiatives and risks and a transition from strategies of avoidance to strategies of achievement.

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<sup>39</sup> This also applies to some extent to, for example, the Romance languages and English, which belongs to the Germanic group of languages but contains a massive number of words of Latin origin.

## The false problem of false friends

In the past, certain language teaching methods, such as structural-global approaches and early communicative methods, which banned all other languages from foreign language classes, have encouraged resistance to contrastive approaches. Such resistance is often based on the supposed “risks” posed by false friends, that is language forms that display formal similarities in two languages but do not have the same meaning (“cantina” in Italian = “cave” (*cellar*) in French and not “cantine” (*canteen*) in Fr.; “cava” in It. = “carrière” (*quarry*) in Fr. and not “cave” in Fr.). Yet, quantitatively, there are far fewer false friends than there are “good friends”. It would be a shame not to make use of them for a more rapid and economical learning process, without neglecting to devote a few moments to reflection on the subject.

More fundamentally, such resistance is based on a monolingual representation of language acquisition that is also associated with fear of error, interference, the mixing of languages and their alternation, which extends, paradoxically, to certain bilingual education models.

The same type of approach can also clearly be imagined in the cultural/intercultural field, where differences often undergo a process of “essentialisation” that leads to the creation of stereotypes. At the same time, certain misleadingly familiar situations may lead to errors and result in intercultural misunderstanding. This is therefore another area where attention must be paid to similarities and differences.

### **2.6.3. Some experiences relating to the similarities and differences between languages**

Numerous practical classroom activities are designed to assist the development of comparative competences: they fall into the category of approaches that are designated as plural, because unlike singular approaches they are concerned with more than one language, and/or as partial, when they are only concerned with the development of just one language activity, for example oral or written reception. These approaches are all intended, each in its specific fashion, to contribute to improved language teaching, the extension of repertoires and an understanding of the plurality of languages and cultures. They make no claims to be substitutes for the critical periods of single-language teaching, during which the detailed aspects of the acquisition of each language are dealt with, but they can contribute positively to such periods. As such, they deserve to be studied and applied by language teachers and – depending on the circumstances and activities – by the teachers of other subjects, in terms of what forms of experience they should be offering to their pupils.

### **Experiences of convergence in the teaching of different languages<sup>40</sup>**

The purpose of convergence in the teaching of different languages is to set in motion learning strategies that cut across or are shared by different languages, or by the language dimensions of different subjects, and to organise transfers of knowledge and skills from one language to the other. These transfers have positive effects for pupils in terms of cognitive efficiency: different subjects can help learners to acquire the same skill, in different fields and using different teaching aids.

This generally entails the use of interdisciplinary approaches designed to apply, in different ways and at various levels of co-operation, the “global” or “holistic” concept of languages, in the interests of consistent and efficient learning. Such approaches involve collaboration between language (and subject) teachers, for which room and time have to be made available in the syllabus for the three crucial stages of prior planning of contrastive activities, applying them in class and assessing their effects in terms of acquisitions and the strategies implemented.

### **Experiences of creating critical awareness of languages and their plurality**

These experiences are less concerned with language acquisition as such – though they may be a useful addition to this process – than with language education based on the plurality and diversity of languages in the classroom, and more generally in the world. They are often used (and are useful, though insufficient in themselves) to offer an initial welcome to pupils’ language repertoires and recognition of their status. They are characterised by indirect teaching methods that also help to resolve certain difficulties encountered in one of the languages studied by reflecting on the functioning of other, unknown, languages. This contributes to the overall strengthening of the learning process. On a more radical level, certain experiences in this

40. For further discussion of this aspect, see section 2.11 Teacher training. See also Costanzo E. (2003), *Language education in Italy: an experience for Europe?*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang/eng](http://www.coe.int/lang/eng) → Publications and documents.

field<sup>41</sup> are intended to make pupils aware that language – any language – forms part of society and is a social process moulded by society.<sup>42</sup> As such, language is never neutral, because it is always subject to the influences of power, hierarchy and domination. The aim of drawing pupils' attention to these influences, which are linked, *inter alia*, to issues of gender, sex, race, class and ethnicity, is to secure learners' empowerment and emancipation. It sets out to:

- ▶ make them aware of the variability of languages and of the social, economic and political factors that ensure that one variety – generally the “standard” one – is established as the most prestigious, to the detriment of all the others, including often the languages of their repertoire (see 2.5);
- ▶ train them to discount, or even counter, these influences, thereby starting the process of social change;
- ▶ equip them to do so by enriching and enlarging their language repertoire;
- ▶ make them aware of the responsible use of the different varieties, according to circumstances and the relevant communication situation, and of the consequences of the various options available to them.

In accordance with the principles underlying quality education, such experiences form an integral part of plurilingual and intercultural education<sup>43</sup> and are based on pragmatic and sociolinguistic intra-language comparisons.

### Experiences of plurality of languages in the development of knowledge

Plurality of languages may also contribute to the development of knowledge in other subjects, which means that the teachers of these subjects are also concerned – albeit in a different and more specific way – by this discussion about similarities and differences between languages. What makes inter-language comparison important for their subjects is not so much the process of language acquisition or metalinguistic reflection (which may be subsidiary acquisitions) as the added value that these activities offer the subjects themselves. We will not dwell too long on this complex and fascinating topic, which is mainly relevant to bilingual and CLIL classes.

### Experiences of intercomprehension between related and unrelated languages

Intercomprehension is a concept originating in dialectology, where it has traditionally been used to establish the degree of similarity between languages and varieties of language. Intercomprehension is easier the closer languages are to each other and becomes more and more complex as the distance between them – geographical and/or genetic – increases. More recently, intercomprehension has been used in linguistics to signify the ability of two persons, each speaking his or her own language, to understand each other. In the field of language policy, this is deemed to be one of the possible forms of communication between European citizens who respect linguistic diversity. In the theory of language teaching, intercomprehension refers to a teaching and learning method based on the ability to understand other languages by drawing on similarities with one or more languages in the listener's repertoire. It makes it necessary to transcend the boundaries between one language and another, encourages risk-taking and breaks down traditional barriers between codes.

Traditionally, these experiences may be concerned with the acquisition of written reception skills and strategies in a varying number of related languages. More ambitiously, they may extend these skills and strategies to individual, or families or groups of, non-related languages, to oral reception or to the development of knowledge in several languages.

The intercomprehension approach is particularly interesting from the cognitive standpoint, because it employs various types of transfer strategy.

Intercomprehension experiences are usually intended for higher education students, for whom highly developed receptive skills in several languages could be useful for their studies<sup>44</sup> in a variety of fields.

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41. See the views expressed by the critical language awareness movement, and for the origins of this debate: Fairclough N. (ed.) (1992), *Critical language awareness*, Longman, Harlow. See also Corson D. (1997), “Awareness of non-standard varieties in the schools”, in van Lier L. and Corson D. (eds), *Encyclopaedia of language and education, Vol. 6, Knowledge about language*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, London.

42. See Fairclough N. (2001), *Language and power*, Routledge, London (1st edn 1989).

43. See Recommendation CM/Rec(2012)13 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on ensuring quality education. [www.coe.int/cm](http://www.coe.int/cm) → Adopted texts.

44. One exception is the *Euromania* method ([www.euro-mania.eu](http://www.euro-mania.eu)), which is intended for primary-level pupils, who use intercomprehension activities between various Romance languages in subject-based modules.

Subject to certain conditions, such as the relative similarities of languages and their written forms, some principles of intercomprehension and most of its associated methods could usefully be adopted in all forms of foreign language teaching, especially in the early stages, to motivate learners to apply all their prior knowledge and competences in their approach to a new language. For example, showing them how, with the aid of transfer strategies, they can achieve a rapid general understanding of the content of a text, may give them the confidence to deal with the unknown territory represented by a foreign language, strengthen their commitment to the learning process and encourage them to adopt risk-taking and transfer strategies on a systematic basis.

#### **2.6.4. Defining aims and identifying pathways**

In order to define the aims that the experiences described above make it possible to achieve, teachers can refer to the *Framework of Reference for Pluralistic Approaches to Languages and Cultures (CARAP)*, which provides numerous descriptors of competences (or “resources”, to use the accepted terminology) that the learner can draw on as part of a contrastive approach, that is, one not confined solely to the grammatical and formal aspects of languages.

Finally, it is up to the teacher to identify the pathway (3.1) that will lead learners, using the approaches indicated, or alternative ones, to enrich and diversify their language repertoire and acquire the transfer strategies enabling those approaches to be applied to different learning contexts. For that purpose, tools such as the curriculum scenario (3.8) can be used in order to develop the curriculum at various levels (study plan, the school’s educational project, the teacher’s lesson planning).

#### **2.6.5. Similarities and differences: effects on the curriculum**

Finally, and more generally speaking, this process of reflection raises questions about the need, rather than adopting a standard approach to curricula, to vary the approach according to the similarities or differences between the languages present (languages in pupils’ repertoires, language(s) of schooling and the foreign or even classical language(s) being taught). Currently the pace of learning is calibrated in more or less identical fashion for the different languages, essentially because some languages (English and French in particular) are widely studied and therefore, among other things for publishing reasons (teaching handbooks and material), the teaching of those languages is often strongly “standardised”. Yet a more functional solution would doubtless be to contextualise the curriculum for the teaching of modern languages, taking an “ecological” approach to the languages that are present and taught. If the new languages to be learned are close or even very close (same language group, languages that are geographically close), it would, to say the least, be counterproductive and uneconomical to base the curriculum on the same rate of progression as for more distant languages (geographical distance and different influences as regards languages from the same group – for example Spanish and Romanian – or different language families). In the first instance, given the superficial similarities and the parallel development of transfer strategies and strategies for interlinguistic differentiation and vigilance, progress can be much faster and the aims in terms of proficiency levels more ambitious. In the second case, the different types of distance require not only more intensive mediation efforts on the part of the teacher, but also a more lengthy reflective process.

### **2.7. LEARNING MEDIATION**

Mediation is a constant in the reality of teaching and learning. Generally speaking, it may be defined as “any procedure, arrangement or action designed in a given social context to reduce the distance between two (or more) poles of otherness between which there is tension”.<sup>45</sup> Mediation is omnipresent in a teacher’s work: indeed, helping students assimilate new content by means of approximations, reformulations and explanations (cognitive mediation) is central to all pedagogical action. That being the case, it is all the more important for the language dimension of mediation to be taken fully on board, whether in the language of schooling or another language in the case of bilingual forms of education, or by allowing learners to mobilise their resources in one or more other languages, including languages of origin, in order to accede to new knowledge.<sup>46</sup> Mediation is present in the teaching and learning of all subjects, in the interaction between teacher and learner, among learners themselves or between the teaching material and learners.

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45. See Coste D. and Cavalli M. (2015), *Education, mobility, otherness – The mediation function of schools*. Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

46. *The language dimension in all subjects – Guide for the development of curricula and for teacher training* (2015), Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

In most cases it constitutes the main form of interaction required of learners in language learning sessions: explaining orally or in writing the content of a written text, recording or visual document; giving an account, in the target language or the main language of the school, of content discovered in another language; explaining and commenting on the actions of real or fictional characters in the cultural context associated with the language being taught; group discussions, in the foreign language, of the reasons for and relevance of statements or attitudes encountered in the study of texts or documents; group projects with partners speaking other languages and from other cultures, and the like. Learners experience and practise a form of mediation that is all at once cognitive, communicative and intercultural.

This real-life practical experience, taking various forms depending on the subject, is not only one of the main ways of building up knowledge and developing competences, but above all makes an equally important contribution to education for democratic citizenship and to developing learners' capacity to strive for social cohesion. Instilling the ability to build bridges, allay tensions or reduce the distance between different individuals, contexts or communities is a task for all educational systems. Developing each person's capacity for critical, responsible and respectful interaction with all forms of otherness has become a major social challenge.

However, for mediation to become an effectively acquired skill for learners, it should not be reduced to the experiences encountered during lessons or in learning situations: mediation can become an aim in itself. Such awareness of the importance of mediation skills for all learning situations and for life in society is necessary in order for mediation to play its rightful role in plurilingual and intercultural education. How the educational and pedagogical practices designed to attain that objective are implemented will vary widely from one subject to another. The following paragraphs will focus exclusively, by way of an example, on the specific responsibility of the teacher of modern languages.

### **2.7.1. Mediation in the teaching of modern languages**

In order to reflect upon the role of mediation in the curriculum for the teaching of modern languages, it is necessary to identify the actual purpose of this activity in the language class. Two obstacles must be avoided: seeing mediation as cutting across all teaching practices in this area and hence as being subsumed into the whole; and reducing mediation to marginal communication situations that are only one possible complement to the range of activities involved in teaching the subject, for example reducing it to the simple transcoding of languages.

There is a background to this process of reflection: the CEFR<sup>47</sup> mentions mediation as a language activity alongside production and reception. Yet, until recently, much less attention was paid to it than to the other two types of activity. This lack of policy interest in the part played by mediation in the teaching of modern languages can be linked with the absence in the text of the CEFR published in 2001 of any mention of proficiency levels or descriptors for this activity, contrary to what exists for oral and written expression, oral and written comprehension and certain communication strategies. But this by no means signifies an absence of mediation as such from the aims and practices of certain education systems.

Thus, to give an example, in 2005 the Italian region of Alto Adige, whose collective identity is marked by multilingualism, incorporated into its model of the *European Language Portfolio* for pupils aged 11 to 16 some ideas and suggestions for self-assessment on the mediation process, shown below (next page). At the same time, the HarmoS project conducted by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (CDIP) developed and adopted tools for incorporating mediation into teaching practices and the assessment process.<sup>48</sup>

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47. CEFR, 2.1.3.

48. [www.edk.ch/dyn/11737.php](http://www.edk.ch/dyn/11737.php).

## Mediation

Acting as a mediator between people who speak and write different languages is becoming an increasingly common activity in our society with its mixture of languages and cultures. You too may need to help someone understand texts written in a language he doesn't know or communicate with people who speak a different language. In this case you have to make choices, depending on the situation and the speaker.

### Being a mediator may mean:

- ▶ helping people who do not understand each other overcome the problems;
- ▶ properly understanding other people's ideas or intentions;
- ▶ translating from one language to another;
- ▶ etc.

### To do this you may use the following strategies:

- ▶ choosing forms of language according to the person you are talking to;
- ▶ choosing forms of language adapted to the context;
- ▶ anticipating possible problems of understanding and taking them into account;
- ▶ solving problems of understanding;
- ▶ etc.

**Here are a few examples of mediation situations. If you were to be in one of these situations, what strategies would you adopt? If you like, you can write down your ideas in your project file.**

Youth hostel: a young Bolivian tourist arrives in our region and sees the word "Bolivia" in the newspaper. He wants to know what the article is about. I try to explain it to him.

I have to write an article for the school newspaper using information in different languages that I find on the internet. I need to adapt the information to the language level of my readers.

A young Pakistani arrives at school: he does not speak our languages very well. I help him to understand the rules of the school lending library and explain how to take out a book.

An expert is invited to the school to give a lecture in my second language. I write a summary of my notes in my first language for a friend who missed the lecture.

During a school trip to Barcelona we meet pupils from different countries. I help one of my friends understand a conversation about the impressions that the city has made on us.

One of my friends has been given a new computer game as a present. I read the instructions in English and translate them into his language.

- ▶ Talk about a situation in which mediation worked really well. What made it possible to achieve such good results? What contribution did you make to that mediation?
- ▶ Talk about a situation in which mediation did not work or where there were misunderstandings. Analyse the reasons for those poor results.

If you wish, draft a text about your experience to include it into the Dossier.

Confined essentially to certain sociolinguistic contexts, interest in the role of mediation in language classes is growing and has taken on new dimensions. It can doubtless be argued that this is due to developments in the process of reflection on the teaching of modern languages, in particular the call for plurilingual and intercultural competences to be better taken into account in the curriculum, practices and aims of modern languages teaching.

### **2.7.2. Mediation as an interface between comprehension and production**

Seen strictly from the point of view of the learning and teaching of modern languages, mediation is presented by the CEFR as being at the interface between comprehension and production.

Present in both reception and production, written and/or oral mediation activities make it possible – in the form of a translation, interpretation, summary or report – for a text that cannot be directly understood by a third party to be reformulated in such a way as to make it accessible to that person. Mediation as a language



activity involving the (re)processing of an existing text plays a considerable part in the everyday linguistic functioning of our societies (CEFR, 2.1.3).

All the work done in this area, such as the example below<sup>49</sup> has identified numerous everyday communication situations requiring mediation skills directly relevant to learners' experience:

Pupils may be called upon, for example, to:

- ▶ act as language mediators in a conversation between their parents and a foreign exchange student staying with their family, for example when talking about food preferences, the events of the day or similar practical everyday matters;
- ▶ express in the desired language the questions or wishes of a tourist visiting a shop and the answers or information given by sales staff about consumer items (for example, price, whether the article is in stock, delivery times);
- ▶ act as language mediators in a youth hostel during brief conversations between young people, for example concerning questions about them or advice about the catering facilities or places to visit.

On this basis it is possible to structure the situations for which learners need to be prepared

- ▶ on the one hand, by drawing a distinction between intralinguistic communicative mediation (where the source text and the text produced are in the same language) and interlinguistic communicative mediation (where the two texts are in different languages);
- ▶ and on the other hand, by specifying the nature of the source text (oral, written, visual) and that of the text to be produced.

Many different combinations are possible; these distinctions are important from the educational standpoint because they require the acquisition of different skills by learners. To be able to give an account, in the language of schooling, of oral exchanges between speakers of the target language, for example in the form of a written report, learners must be taught to take structured notes and use these to draft a report outline, to identify aspects of the oral text that will need to be explained in order to be understood by the recipient of the report, to distance themselves from the formulations used in the oral text in order to seek forms that are more appropriate for the written text that is to be produced, etc. To be capable of producing an oral summary in the target language of a text written in that same language presupposes having been taught to identify the key points in a text, making assumptions about the recipient's prior knowledge of the subject, being attentive to the author's point of view and the way it affects his or her discourse, being capable of orally linking the essential messages, information or arguments contained in the original text with the examples, further explanations or illustrations given, in a way that makes it easier for the recipient to understand, and so on. It is immediately clear, from these two non-exhaustive lists of the things expected of learners for these two communication activities alone, that the skills in question are not precisely and exclusively those for which they have been prepared by comprehension and expression activities conducted in juxtaposition.

Mediation, clearly, is an activity linking together reception and comprehension in order to use language for a social purpose. But establishing such a link is not just a matter of successfully performing those two actions. Mastering mediation skills presupposes the acquisition of specific strategies that share the characteristics common to all communication strategies (2.2) but which also have strong particularities that make mediation a fully-fledged component of the intercultural education project. Indeed, mediation is as much about attitudes as about language skills: taking account of the people one is talking to when choosing one's use of language, making assumptions about the knowledge of the people concerned, anticipating difficulties in understanding and so on (interpersonal mediation).

Just as for the development of any communication or learning strategy, the acquisition of the skills needed for mediation requires learners to engage in reflective and verbalisation phases.

### **2.7.3. The cultural dimension of mediation activities**

The above-mentioned distinction between the intralinguistic and interlinguistic mediation of texts does not cover the full range of mediation situations that are relevant for the teaching and learning of modern languages. A further dimension needs to be added: that of intercultural mediation.

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49. *Compétences fondamentales pour les langues étrangères (pour la scolarité obligatoire). Standards nationaux de formation, adopted by the plenary session of the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (CDIP) on 16 June 2011, [http://edudoc.ch/record/96779/files/grundkomp\\_fremdsprachen\\_f.pdf](http://edudoc.ch/record/96779/files/grundkomp_fremdsprachen_f.pdf), pp. 8-11.*


By definition, modern languages as a discipline have the particularity of bringing pupils into contact with linguistic and cultural otherness. Teaching practices in the field of modern languages have the objective, above and beyond the aim of imparting knowledge and competences directly relevant to the cultural area(s) of the target language, of developing pupils' ability to mediate between speakers from different cultural areas, in other words to enable a person or group of persons to understand the content of a text or message produced in the context of different cultural and social practices.

Translation is one example, but it is only one possible form of mediation. In reality, mediation covers a much wider range of activities, although the real issues at stake may be obscured by a certain tradition of translation that exists at school. Intercultural mediation, particularly in a school setting, hinges as much on identifying cultural barriers to a correct understanding of a text or form of behaviour as on remaining faithful to the linguistic aspects of a message. In the day-to-day teaching of languages, this training may take the following forms: dialogue in class in the target language with a view to detecting the cultural markers in a written or oral text; exchanges in the target language on the points requiring clarification in order to make them understandable to someone from a different culture, etc. These few teaching activities can in many cases take place in the target language and be a subject for interaction in that language, enabling pupils to develop their communication skills.

Another characteristic of this approach based on intercultural mediation is that the very fact of asking about possible cultural barriers to communication will also make pupils aware that their own cultural context may also pose a problem of understanding for interlocutors of different languages and cultures. This, then, broadens the cultural dimension of foreign language teaching: it is no longer just a matter of discovering the major cultural aspects of the area concerned by the language being learned, but also of seeing these in relation to the cultural identities of the learners.

The examples of mediation tasks below, designed for German-speaking learners of English and Spanish, illustrate this point:

	<p>You are one of the editors of your school journal and you also keep up the relationship with your partner school in England. The students and the teachers there are very interested in the phenomenon at German schools called "Mobbing", especially in an article published online by the Stern magazine at Panorama/Stern.de. They have asked you to give them a summary of the article. Do not write more than 180 words.</p>
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	<p>Estás en un programa de intercambio en España y tu amigo tiene que hacer una presentación sobre el tratamiento del franquismo hoy en día. Le quieres ayudar y le resumes en un informe lo más importante de este artículo tomado de la prensa alemana.</p>
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Here we have two examples of interlinguistic mediation (giving an account of, or summarising, an article from a German magazine in English or Spanish) with a strong intercultural mediation component: a comparison between German and English cultural realities ("Mobbing" versus "bullying") in the first example; detecting possible differences of perception of one and the same historical event in the second.

By introducing into the process of reflection required of learners the need for them to distance themselves from their own cultural references, the inclusion of mediation in the curriculum for the teaching of modern languages takes on special significance. Preparing learners to effectively exercise democratic citizenship, educating them for intercultural dialogue and developing their critical thinking are major objectives of European education systems, on a par with employability. Hence, the teaching of communicative and intercultural mediation as a social activity will be called upon to play an increasingly central role.

#### **2.7.4. The role of mediation in plurilingual and intercultural education**

Even if we confine ourselves here, by way of example, to the specific situation of modern language teaching, the question of the role that mediation can play in a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education can be addressed from several complementary angles: to what extent does it tie in with the cross-cutting dimension of language learning? How can it help to attain the specific objectives of this education in and through languages? Is it an element in the contribution made by language learning to the overarching educational project?

The conclusion of the preceding sub-section is unequivocal in its answers as far as the values conveyed by plurilingual and intercultural education are concerned. By making learners aware of the need to identify potential sources of ambiguity and misunderstanding with a view to anticipating or resolving them, mediation is consistent with the methodology and aims of intercultural education. Any competence may be defined as the capacity to mobilise, *in situ*, the available resources, that is, knowledge, skills and attitudes. It is clear that the various mediation activities enable these three components, in particular attitudes with regard to plurilingual and intercultural competence, to be developed. Indeed, the CARAP<sup>50</sup> makes reference to certain competences that directly echo the learning that is central to intercultural mediation activities.

**Table 4: Competences central to intercultural mediation activities**

Ability to manage linguistic and cultural communication in a context of otherness		Ability to construct and expand a pluralistic linguistic and cultural repertoire	
Conflict resolution skills and the ability to overcome obstacles and misunderstandings	Negotiating skills	Ability to draw on one's own intercultural and interlinguistic experiences	Ability to put into practice, in a context of otherness, more systematic and controlled learning approaches
Mediation skills	Adaptation skills		

The ability to move outside oneself
The ability to give meaning to unfamiliar linguistic and/or cultural elements
The ability to distance oneself
The capacity for a critical analysis of the situation and of the (communicative and/or learning) activities in which one is engaged
The ability to recognise the other, recognition of otherness

The strategies that are specific to the learning of communicative and cultural mediation are by nature transferable from one language to another, or from any communication situation, whatever the languages, to another. Above and beyond this aspect already mentioned above, it is useful at this point to underline another contribution that mediation makes to the teaching of languages. In most cases, the curricula for the teaching of modern languages establish a clear link between language competence and knowledge of the cultural facts. As we have seen above, mediation is an extremely effective way of establishing a real link between these two essential components of syllabuses or study programmes, when comprehension and expression activities in the target language are focused on identifying and verbalising cultural facts that are evident or implicit in the texts being studied. Moreover, by asking pupils to verbalise the cultural specificities that are present in a text and to draw comparisons with the cultural references acquired from the learning of another language, mediation as a pedagogical activity makes it possible to move beyond a simple juxtaposition of knowledge in the different languages and to arrive at a coherent structured whole that can act as an effective filter for understanding our societies and the world.

The development of language skills is generally considered to be one of the conditions for enabling learners to make the most of the opportunities for mobility that they encounter, whether at school or university, during their vocational training or in their personal and professional lives. This is certainly true, but must not be allowed to eclipse the fact that one of the emotional and psychological conditions for real mobility is to prepare learners for interacting in a context different from the one with which they are familiar. To language and cultural training must be added an education for mobility, which entails familiarising learners not only with certain cultural contexts but also, through these, with all situations in which a defining characteristic of the experience is the encounter with otherness.

Is mediation, whether communicative, interpersonal or intercultural, a specific language activity, or should it rather – through an awareness on the part of teachers and learners of its role in their experience and in education

<sup>50</sup>. Framework of reference for pluralistic approaches, <http://carap.ecml.at/>.

– have a special cross-cutting status, applying across the full range of subjects taught? The development of attitudes and skills that goes hand in hand with mediation makes it one of the components of a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education that merits explicit attention as both an approach and an objective.

## 2.8. TEXTUAL GENRES

Textual genres are one – but not the only – strategic category that curricula can apply to the language dimensions of all subjects taught. A “textual genre”<sup>51</sup> is the form that communication takes in a given social context and communication community. These communication situations are identified as such by a number of parameters (place, types of participant, etc.), and one or more forms of discourse are specific to them, for example conference, news item, anecdote, dispute, myth, prayer and so on. In content, structure and the more or less ritualised and customary language it employs, verbal production tends to follow rules peculiar to these situations (or communication events, as Dell Hymes<sup>52</sup> terms them).

Thus, in social communication, oral or written production not only follows the “rules” of grammar; it also tends to comply with the communication “habits” that are peculiar to specific communication situations, in terms both of their form and structure (for example, conversation openers). Textual genres are thus characterised by these rituals or constraints. Bakhtine notes that “Speech genres organize our speech in almost the same way as grammatical (syntactical) forms do.”<sup>53</sup>

### 2.8.1. Genres and school subjects

Genres are also present in all the subjects taught at school, both in the forms of communication taking place in class and in the texts that learners have to read or produce. They thus constitute a mode of organisation of class activities for all teachers, whether the subject they teach is the language of schooling, a foreign language or another discipline. In class there are presentations by the teacher (or pupils), exchanges among pupils about a task they have been set, the discourse of textbooks, which transpose knowledge to make it accessible to pupils, the various written texts that pupils are expected to produce for each subject, for example in language classes: *rédaction* and *dissertation* (in France), *tema* (in Italy), *essay* (in the United Kingdom), and so on. These forms of communication are themselves a subject of study in class, when the subject being taught is the language of schooling or a foreign, regional or minority language. In this case, the aims of the lessons can be defined not only in terms of acquiring oral or writing skills but even more specifically in terms of the textual genres, whether interactive (conversation) or non-interactive, that must be mastered for the purpose of both reception and production. Some of these same genres are also present in other school subjects aimed at transmitting knowledge and the corresponding skills. However, those subjects also have their own specific genres: presentation of the solution to a mathematical problem, a report on a laboratory experiment conducted by physics or biology pupils, commentary of a geographical map and so on.

Thus the category “textual genre” applies across the range of subjects taught. These cross-cutting links can be exploited by syllabuses, because a common reference to the notion of genre allows specific morphosyntactic and lexical content to be identified for each subject. Texts corresponding to the same discourse genre can be described on the basis of linguistic categories with a view to characterising regular features of form, these being more or less consistent depending on the genre. An example is the forms that the speaker’s or author’s presence takes in the text: personal pronouns (I, we), use of the impersonal pronoun (the French *on*), use of the passive voice, etc. These regular features can be described in terms of a text’s structure or the “propriety” of the statements it contains, that is, their compliance with the accepted rules and conventions that determine their correctness.

### 2.8.2. Developing learners’ repertoire of genres

More generally speaking, it can be stated that it is the school’s responsibility to build on and expand each pupil’s repertoire of genres with a view to the overall aims of:

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51. The term “discourse genre” is also used.

52. Hymes D. H. (1966), “Two types of linguistic relativity”, in Bright W., *Sociolinguistics*, Mouton, The Hague, pp. 114–158.

53. Bakhtine M. (1986), *Speech genres and other late essays*, (tr.) McGee V. W., (eds) Emerson C. and Holquist M., University of Texas Press, Austin, TX, p. 78.

- ▶ increasing the communication possibilities of the future adult in his/her social and professional life (for example, writing a letter to a government office asking for information);
- ▶ enabling pupils to switch from spontaneously acquired genres to ones less frequently used in everyday communication;
- ▶ developing pupils' capacity to use written genres, building on their experience of essentially oral communication;
- ▶ enabling the acquisition of genres that are not only useful for interpersonal communication but also allow pupils to accede to knowledge and to discuss that knowledge. This entails learning to handle genres in a different way than for shared communication situations (use of *I, here, now*) in order to be able to use more distant or objectified forms allowing non-affective types of discussion (for example, going from recounting an activity to giving a report on it).

Subject syllabuses can be made more cross-cutting if they:

- ▶ specify their objectives in terms of the discourse genres to be taught, always remembering that the same genre can be tackled on different levels of language proficiency, and create cross-linkages between different languages and different subjects. For example, literature lessons may require the use of academic genres, for example those of literary criticism or stylistic description;
- ▶ divide genres between the various stages of schooling or between the different subjects and exploit their similarities and their differences (2.6);
- ▶ define language aims (lexical, morphosyntactic, etc.) with reference to the specific characteristics of each subject, but using a common approach and common categories (2.4).

### **2.8.3. Description of textual genres**

The description of textual genres (which falls within a discipline called discourse analysis) helps identify criteria for the choice of teaching aids and gives ideas for planning certain activities, formal systematisation in particular. The purpose of these analyses is to identify points that texts belonging to the same genre have in common. The aim is to describe the "common" form "underlying" the texts, although every text is unique. Sometimes the similarities are striking (especially in the case of the texts that are needed in class) and do not require the use of very sophisticated techniques or an advanced knowledge of general linguistics.

#### **Degrees of regularity of genres**

Some genres are highly constrained, with little variation from one text to another, to the extent that some texts can even be produced automatically, through lexical substitution. This is the case for weather reports in the daily press, greeting card wishes or sports news "in brief".

Other genres show less frequent or less striking regularity in their texts. The use of alternative or "equivalent" forms at given points in the texts makes for greater variation and enunciative freedom. The way in which a sentence or paragraph will develop is less predictable, although one can still put forward hypotheses about possible forms it might take. These hypotheses regarding form and meaning, which are not too open-ended, can be used as a comprehension guide or a framework for production.

It has been demonstrated, for example, that in the case of certain genres in the French written press (national and international political news, reports and investigations, etc.) the statements of witnesses or people interviewed by journalists may be put in quotes (inverted commas) and accompanied by speech verbs. The latter, often interpolated into the text, tend to be varied and fall into various categories, for example *promettre, jurer, raconter* (promise, swear, recount: verbs denoting a speech act), *s'exclamer, se lamenter* (exclaim, complain: emotive or descriptive verbs), *assurer, prétendre, affirmer* (affirm, claim, assert), while comparable texts in the English-language press would be more likely to use a single, more generic verb, such as "to say".<sup>54</sup>

Other discourse genres, finally, "produce" texts that are highly unpredictable in terms of their organisation or use of verbal material; the global meaning or development of the text can only be anticipated in a very general way, with no guidance from linguistic forms. Contemporary poetry production, for example, would seem to elude all forms of predictability.

54. Beacco J.-C. (1992), "Les genres textuels dans l'analyse du discours: écriture légitime et communautés translingagères", in Beacco J.-C. (ed.), *Ethnolinguistique de l'écrit, Langages* No. 105, pp. 8-27.

For many of the texts used for the teaching of foreign languages, such as those introduced at levels A1 and A2, the regular discursive features observed in a group of texts can be described on the basis of the classical rules of sentence grammar, given that the texts are highly predictable and the similarities between them immediately visible.

The *Mille feuilles* teaching material (French as a foreign language for German-speaking learners) used in Switzerland organises a teaching sequence for beginners that focuses on a specific genre: the joke. It provides a multilingual set of texts and pupils are asked to think about the way texts within this genre are constructed.<sup>55</sup>

**Figure 2 – No joke without a punchline**

<p>La maîtresse s'adresse à Toto :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Toto ! On ne joue pas quand on travaille !</li> </ul> <p>Toto répond :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Mais Madame, je ne travaille pas !</li> </ul>	<p>J'ai perdu mon chien, dit M<sup>me</sup> Dupont à sa voisine.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– Faites passer une annonce.</li> <li>– Ça ne sert à rien, il ne sait pas lire ...</li> </ul>
<p>„Mama, Mama“, schreit Fritzchen, „der Schrank ist umgekippt !“          „Mein Gott“, erwidert die Mutter erschrocken, „sag schnell deinem Vater, was passiert ist !“          „Warum ? Er weiss es doch schon“, gibt Fritzchen zur Antwort.          „Er liegt ja drunter!“</p>	
<p><b>Mother:</b> I told you not to eat cake before supper.  <b>Daughter:</b> But Mom, it's part of my homework. "If you take an eighth of a cake from a whole cake, how much is left ?"</p>	

### Pas de blague sans chute

Du erkennst, wie die meisten Witze aufgebaut sind.

Jede Textsorte hat bestimmte Merkmale. Am folgenden Beispiel siehst du, aus welchen Teilen ein Witz besteht.

- Lest den Witz. Wie ist er aufgebaut?

**Die Merkmale einer Textsorte kennen**  
 Untersuche, wie ein Text aufgebaut ist. Das hilft dir, den Text zu verstehen und ihn nachzuerzählen.

**No joke without a punchline**

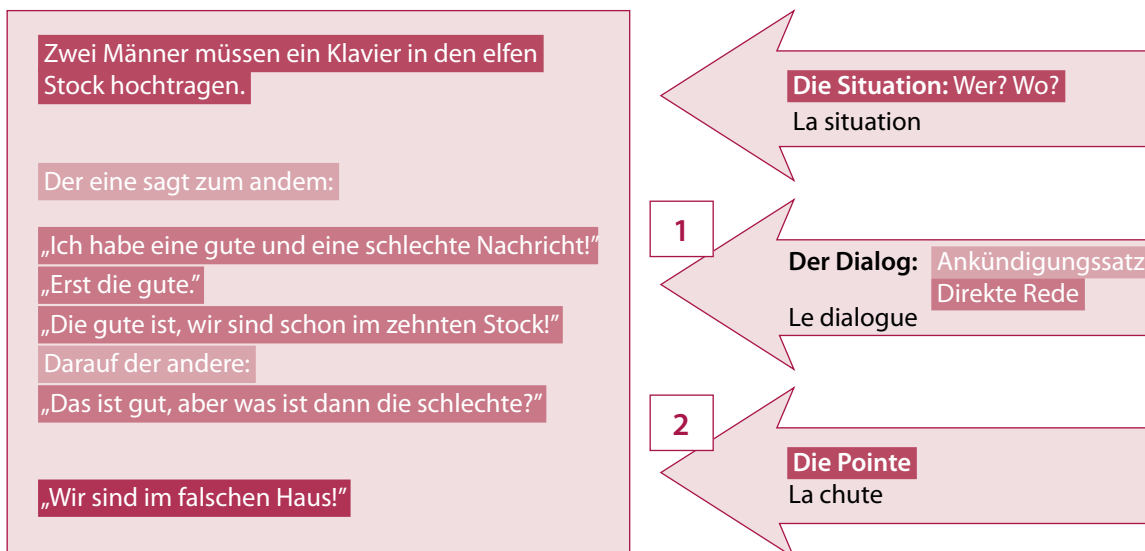
**You understand how most jokes are constructed:**

Each type of text has its own specific characteristics. The following example shows you what the different parts of a joke are.

Read the joke. How is it constructed?

Strategy (box): know what the characteristics of a given type of text are. This will help you to understand a text and explain what it says.

55. *Mille feuilles 5*, Material für die Lernenden, 2013, Grossenbacher B. and Thommen A., Schulverlag plus AG. and Egli Cuenat M. (2013), *Using the language of schooling as a basis for learning a foreign language – Recent curricular developments in Switzerland*, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Events 2013 → Programme of the Intergovernmental Conference on "Quality and inclusion in education: the unique role of language". See also [www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/progrtexts\\_conf-sept13\\_EN.asp](http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/progrtexts_conf-sept13_EN.asp)



For others, however, when compiling teaching material, it is advisable to refer to existing analyses or to apply established analytical procedures, like those described, as far as French is concerned, in specialised works such as: *Analyses de discours. Lecture et expression* (1984), *Une grammaire des textes et des dialogues* (1990) and *Analyser les textes de communication* (1998).<sup>56</sup>

### Structural regularity of texts belonging to the same genre

It is generally considered that the regular features of discourse that can be found in different texts concern their structure (linear) and linguistic forms as such. Structural regularity is analysed with reference to fixed points such as the openings and ends of texts, or by comparison with text models or outlines (a more or less fixed order of components). What is expected, for example, in the case of specialised scientific reviews is the following structure explicitly defined by the editorial committees of international reviews: statement of the problem, existing literature on the subject together with a critical assessment, hypotheses, experimental set-up, results, critical analysis of results, findings. Horoscopes in magazines are often laid out in distinct subsections with titles such as: love and romance, friends and family, work, health, advice, in an order that may vary from one magazine to another.

Interwoven within the text of each component are such elements as: giving a piece of information, quoting, giving an example, refuting a point, commenting, interpreting, deducing, comparing, which are the verbal representations of cognitive operations. These minimal structural elements may be incorporated into larger wholes, depending on the type of text: for example, within a given genre one of the types may be narrative and it will therefore systematically include examples, quotes, comparisons, reported conversations, etc. This general aspect (or type, as it is called above) conferred on certain parts of texts is often described on the basis of a simple typology, for example descriptive/expository, narrative, argumentative/deductive, procedural/factive, which is very useful for the purpose of describing the general meanings of texts.

### Formal regularity of texts belonging to the same genre

Formal regularity refers to the similar “colour” of language used in texts belonging to the same genre. This is the result, first of all, of using the same vocabulary, for texts on the same subject. The news story genre will certainly use words like accident, disaster, incident, fire, flood, murder, killing, disappearance and kidnapping. Above and beyond this common vocabulary, texts belonging to a given genre may make preferential use of certain types of language to the exclusion of other types that would be perfectly possible for other forms of communication. Thus, to evaluate an element (fact, clue, material evidence, etc.) on which the construction of historical knowledge is based, the texts of specialised magazines use adjectives like significant, striking, troubling, weak, interesting, telling, while they seem to avoid terms like extraordinary, mysterious or fantastic. Horoscopes often use nominal phrases (trouble ahead, no more problems now, etc.): this syntactical structure is not intrinsically designed to convey such a meaning, but horoscopes make particular use of it in this role,

56. Beacco J.-C. and Darot M. (1984), *Analyses de discours. Lecture et expression*, col. Le français dans le monde/BELC, Hachette/Larousse, Paris; Moirand S. (1990), *Une grammaire des textes et des dialogues*, col. F., Hachette, Paris; Maingueneau D. (1998), *Analyser les textes de communication*, Dunod, Paris.

among other things because it saves having to pinpoint precisely events in time. Thus the genres act as a filter for the possible choices (those offered by the language system), giving all texts belonging to a given genre a “family resemblance” as far as their use of language is concerned.

How closely a text adheres to the abstract “model” defining the genre varies widely from one text to another, but its usefulness for the person who has to organise the lessons is clear.

#### **2.8.4. From textual genres to teaching: the example of history teaching (in French)**

The relevance of organising lessons on the basis of genre will be illustrated by means of an example, bearing in mind that such usages are possible in all teaching contexts. Thus, in order to identify the language objectives that are specific to the teaching of history (in French) to non-native French-speakers (in bilingual education systems, for example), it is necessary to define the verbal communication forms used in those classes. History lessons are structured on the basis of a finite number of teaching/learning activities. Teaching methods vary according to educational traditions and the methodological choices of syllabuses, but common approaches are possible, for instance:

Presentation by the teacher (including “grand narrative”, interpretations and comments, analysis of primary data, explanation of terminology and concepts) with the aid of visual material (maps, diagrams, charts, witness accounts, etc.) – OP, OR and WP<sup>57</sup> – and note-taking by learners

Interaction between teachers and learners on the presentation and/or data (OI)

Reading of textbook by learners (WR)

Presentation by learners (OP) on the basis of notes, PowerPoint, etc.

Discussions (contradictory/multiperspective debate, OI) organised by learners (on the basis of texts or notes: WP)

Analysis of text files and synthesis (WR and WP)

Report on book, TV documentaries (WP or OP)

Reaction to a historical film viewed by the group/class (OI)

Reading of texts written by historians (WR)

Project activities (calling upon different skills, e.g. producing a brochure or film promoting a monument): individual and/or group research

Introduction to the methodology of history studies: e.g., collecting witness accounts from the recent past, formatting, analysis and comments, analysis of street names, etc. (WP), drafting a text commenting on a painting for a tourist guide

Production of personal or imaginary texts (WP)

[...]

These history teaching activities can be described in terms of language abilities and textual genres. Indeed, for each of these “historical” communication situations it is possible to develop descriptors on the basis of an analysis of the characteristics of the discourse genre being used. These activities also call on genres with a direct bearing on history. For example, to refer exclusively to written genres, it may be considered important for learners to be brought into contact with the genres produced by specialists setting out new findings, or with the genres used by popularised history books or magazine and newspaper articles written for an educated or broader public by professional historians, well-informed amateurs or specialised journalists.

The formal regularity of genres (that is, in terms of the language and structure of the texts) can be described on the basis of categories (which do not concern syntax) that constitute a verbal representation of cognitive operations, for which we will use the term *cognitive-linguistic function*. This category of textual analysis is designed to show the way in which the cognitive processes used in order to build or display knowledge are represented or depicted.

57. CEFR coding of communication activities: R = reception; P = production; I = interaction; O = oral; W = written.



It entails identifying functions, such as: *analyse, argue, calculate, quote, classify, compare*. In the textual genre used for history textbooks we encounter cognitive operations such as: *describe/relate, display* (data in the form of texts or other material), *interpret* (data), *define*. It is possible to identify the language resources used to perform each of these functions, it being understood that not all of them will be found in a given discourse genre, these “choices” being the reason for the variations from one genre to another. For example, for “define” we can establish descriptors such as the following.

For a given genres/given genres, the learner is capable of recognising (minimum level), producing (intermediate level) or improvising/creating/discussing and proposing (higher level) an appropriate definition for the genres in question using the following language resources: by giving a set of examples, by drawing comparisons, by contrast, by paraphrasing, by giving a translation, on the basis of internal characteristics, etc.

On the basis of those specifications one can work back to the corresponding language forms and thus ensure a link between communication objectives and “grammatical” objectives. The same approach can be used for other subjects by adapting it to each subject, thereby creating other forms of convergence among subjects, while respecting their specific identity.

## 2.9. SCHOOL SUBJECTS AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY

A school has responsibilities in terms of providing instruction and education; these responsibilities, which can be viewed from a cultural angle, clearly are cross-cutting, applying to all subjects. From that point of view, each subject taught at school can be considered both as a cultural universe, with a duty to contribute to participative citizenship, and as a meeting point bringing pupils into contact with different forms of otherness.

### 2.9.1. Three forms of educational responsibility of school subjects in the cultural field

It is the duty of school as an educational institution to give learners access to fields of knowledge that are new to them and the opportunity for new cultural experiences. But that knowledge and those scientific approaches must also be considered as intrinsically cultural. Firstly, because each scientific discipline and each school subject (corresponding to disciplines or groups of disciplines) constructs a certain representation of reality that broadens learners’ experience of the world, giving them access to forms of knowledge other than direct empirical knowledge. Secondly, because disciplines constitute communities built around shared modes of work and communication. Gaining access to knowledge therefore means entering into human communities structured by their history, which become accessible after what could be described almost as an initiation process, with schooling as the first in a series of rites of passage. Scientific cultures do not consist just of knowledge and of modes of production of such knowledge, but also of ways of being, doing and communicating.

School also has a socialisation function. School has the responsibility of training future citizens and helping learners to become concerned members of society. For that purpose it must not only develop their own specific potential but also give them access to the knowledge and tools they need in order to participate in the democratic management of life in society. Thus each subject taught at school, in addition to the knowledge and skills it transmits, must also contribute to creating a culture of participation in democratic life, especially with the digitised forms of communication that now make such participation easier. Much of democratic life consists in debates on societal issues; all citizens should be able to express their views, drawing not only on their values but also on some degree of understanding of the scientific and technical aspects. The education they receive at school must help them to do this, by providing the foundation for their understanding of specialised knowledge presented in an accessible form for example popularised by the media.

Finally, democratic life means ensuring cohesion among citizens, by creating a positive perception of the relations among the members of a given society. Here too, school has a role to play. Indeed, on top of the traditional plurality of lifestyles and cultures there are new forms of cultural diversity developing as a result of globalised travel. Recognised if not accepted internal divisions within a society, such as the alleged differences between “southerners” and “northerners” (intracultural otherness) are further complicated by external distinctions imported from outside. Intercultural education, as it is commonly known, designed in particular to fight all the new forms of racism and xenophobia generated by these phenomena, is aimed at learning to manage these relations in a positive way and to draw on them for one’s personal development. The Council of Europe’s *White Paper on*

*intercultural dialogue*<sup>58</sup> stresses the urgent need for such action. The latter role can be assigned to a specific subject, such as moral education, education in a specific religion or religious education in general, civic instruction, education in democratic life and human rights. But whether or not such classes form part of syllabuses,<sup>59</sup> the fact remains that the lessons in each subject share the ultimate aim of transmitting to learners the values on which the respectful management of relations between individuals and groups, whatever their differences, must be based.

These three forms of cultural and educational responsibility (access to knowledge as the expression of a culture, education for participative citizenship and education in otherness) are common to all subjects. These aims could be specified at the most general level of the syllabus, but spreading the responsibility in this way across syllabuses entails an obvious risk: these aims may then not be given priority over the more immediate objectives of each subject, thus giving rise to more talk than systematic action. It is therefore important that these cultural objectives of education should be incorporated into the pre-established framework provided by the subjects taught at school.

Educational concerns about acceding to a new communication culture specific to a given subject should normally be acceptable to teachers, since they are central to every subject and an integral part of it. The same would appear to be true of the societal dimensions of knowledge that are important for so many issues of public debate (ecology, the environment, food safety, health, energy, etc.). But an education in otherness is without any doubt perceived to be a more legitimate task for subjects dealing with human societies and cultures, their organisation and languages (for example, history, human geography or language lessons) than for the other disciplines. Indeed, the potential for tension between the cultural and social dimensions of the subjects taught at school, on the one hand, and more general educational objectives, such as education in otherness, on the other, varies depending on the “degree of otherness” (from the learners’ perspective) of the issues dealt with. If the lesson content lies “outside” the learners’ social and cultural context, it is just as likely to provoke reactions on a socio-affective level as content that concerns them directly. By the same token, the more the content concerns human societies, the more we are likely to see attitudes of incomprehension developing or resurfacing. These possible reactions of anxiety, astonishment or rejection will make the teacher’s mediation role (2.7.3) and reflection on the part of learners about otherness (2.2.3 and 2.3.3) all the more important.

### **2.9.2. Access to the linguistic culture of each subject**

Thus every subject taught at school shares with all the others the responsibility for giving learners access to knowledge-building processes other than those of common sense, and to the social perceptions specific to each. Scientific communities are also communities with specific forms of verbal communication that differ from ordinary communication in the same language, and these forms may vary from one language to another. If learners are to be able to go from ordinary perceptions of the world around them to scientifically founded conceptions, they need to be helped to master forms of communication that are not generally part of their usual repertoire of textual genres (2.8). The language tools they need to acquire for that purpose are not confined to the specialised terminology, but also include interactive or non-interactive oral and written text forms, such as a report on an experiment, a discussion of results, a presentation of data. Thus learners accede to a new culture of discourse in which personal expression is replaced by objectivised forms of expression and in which there is a transition from oral interaction in class to individually monitored, organised and planned written and oral texts representing the most complete form of scientific expression. This rhetoric of knowledge specific to given subjects enables the dissemination, transmission and discussion of knowledge. Wide attention has already been drawn in the anthropology of language to the variability of textual genres between different cultural communities; variations of the same nature can also be observed between specific communication groups such as scientific and technical communities. This “accession” to new textual forms falls within a category of objectives that applies across the full spectrum of subjects and attention must be drawn in syllabuses to the links between them. The idea that each subject taught at school should have among its objectives that of helping learners to master certain forms of verbal communication peculiar to that subject should seem legitimate to teachers. Even if it is not a widespread priority, they can accept the idea that access to knowledge takes place through language.

### **2.9.3. Subject cultures and life in society**

Next, it must be considered that the subjects taught at school, in addition to their function of helping learners accede to knowledge and to the corresponding scientific and language skills, also have a role in shaping the

58. [www.coe.int/dialogue](http://www.coe.int/dialogue).

59. It should be noted that, in France, the daily “moral lesson” in primary schools only disappeared during the 1960s.

person and citizen. As already stressed, this cultural imperative is likely to be perceived as less of a priority in the case of subjects other than the human and social sciences, given the emphasis that is generally laid on content. Moreover, it is not easy to persuade teachers of the importance of having learners engage in strong intercultural experiences (see below), such as the reading of major scientific texts in their original language and form or of scientific texts in other languages, the etymology of certain concepts (*algorithm* and *Al Khwarizmi*), other forms of non-scientific knowledge such as ethnomathematics or ethnobotany, in order to demonstrate the intrinsically plurilingual and pluricultural nature of a subject.

But it is also a major responsibility of lesson content to seek, in the light of objective facts, to change perceptions on the part of learners that endanger social cohesion. One can easily understand what biology, for example, has to say about the notion of race and the scientific arguments that it can contribute to the recurring public debates in which this issue arises. The same applies to other subjects that must draw on established knowledge in order to challenge learners' social perceptions. It is probably easier to include in the syllabus for these subjects objectives in which knowledge is linked with its social functions. In any case, a cultural objective of all subjects taught at school, whatever they may be, is to help impart to learners the knowledge and skills they need as future citizens in a democratic society.

Thus for example, mathematics education must contribute to those objectives by creating a mathematical culture. The OECD's *PISA 2003 Assessment Framework* (OECD 2003),<sup>60</sup> which specifies the general values and objectives of mathematics education, sets the aim of developing indicators showing "how effectively countries have prepared 15-year olds to become active, reflective and intelligent citizens from the perspective of their use of mathematics" (p. 55). The assessment focuses on the extent to which pupils succeed in using the mathematics they have learned. The underlying notion of mathematical competence is that of a "mathematical culture", that is "an individual's capacity to identify and understand the role that mathematics plays in the world, to make well-founded judgements and to use and engage with mathematics in ways that meet the needs of that individual's life as a constructive, concerned and reflective citizen".<sup>61</sup> Mathematical education aims, above all, at enabling pupils to put mathematical knowledge to "functional use in a multitude of different situations in varied, reflective and insight-based ways"; to "identify and understand the role that mathematics plays in the natural, social and cultural setting in which the individual lives"; to "make well-founded judgements by using mathematics" (p. 24); to "use mathematics in ways that meet the needs of that individual's private life, occupational life, and social life with peers and relatives, as well as life as a citizen of a community" (p. 25).

Similarly, history teaching, which has been the subject of several Council of Europe recommendations,<sup>62</sup> is given the role of developing an historical culture, the principal aims of which are to promote respect for differences of all kinds, based on an understanding of national identity and the principles of tolerance, to be a decisive factor for reconciliation, recognition, understanding and mutual trust among peoples, by incorporating a multiperspective dimension into historical research and writings, and so on. It is easy to identify the social activities that refer to history: political speeches, where history is used as an argument (interpretation of the past) for defining the national identity or giving a sense to historical events (with phenomena of repentance), or else the construction and celebration of a collective memory: "great men", national holidays, places of commemoration (memorial plaques, statues, etc.).

Thus, vested in the subjects taught at school are cultural responsibilities, which consist in giving greater complexity to the "spontaneous" social perceptions of learners, in particular those relating to life in society, and in instilling in learners, as an integral part of their education for participative citizenship, an awareness of the societal dimension of knowledge and the use of knowledge.

#### **2.9.4. The intercultural educational responsibilities of school subjects**

It is clear, finally, that all subjects constitute a form of contact with the unknown and hence with that which is foreign. But some, traditionally, are more called upon than others to provide learners with an education in external otherness (2.9.1). Clearly, in history classes, pupils are confronted not only with otherness in space and time, but also geographical otherness, as a result of anthropological and social diversity. Other subjects have more of a role to play with respect to diversity (diversity of matter, of living beings, etc.) or are able to refute scientifically incorrect or counter-intuitive conceptions. All subjects open the door to a specific cultural

60. OECD (2003), *PISA 2003 Assessment Framework. Key competencies in reading, mathematics and science*, OECD, Paris, France.

61. These paragraphs were taken from Linneweber-Lammerskitten H. (2012), *Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for teaching/learning mathematics (in secondary education). An approach with reference points*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg (pp. 24-5), [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) in other subjects.

62. Rec 1283 (1996), [www.assembly.coe.int](http://www.assembly.coe.int) → Documents and Rec 15 (2001), [www.coe.int/cm](http://www.coe.int/cm) → Adopted texts.

universe composed of communities brought together by research subjects or protocols for building, discussing and disseminating knowledge; no intercultural education subject can claim, on its own, to prepare pupils for life in society and participative citizenship, but each makes its own special contribution.

It is important to develop pupils' capacity for reflective verbal expression about otherness, which may trigger a range of different reactions – surprise, astonishment, incomprehension, rejection, amusement, admiration – not only in foreign language lessons but in all the other subjects too. Such verbal expression prompted by ad hoc activities reflects learners' individual reactions to otherness but can also be negotiated in the group or class. In the foreign language lesson it may take place in the language being learned. But to leave full room for such expression it is doubtless necessary to draw language teachers' attention to the advantages (for these specific activities) of a decoupling between the teaching of the language and the "teaching of culture". On an educational level, that verbal expression (in the form of "debates" in class) offers an opportunity to learn the use of respectful language (v. verbal violence), a prerequisite for living together democratically.<sup>63</sup>

Verbal expression by learners is essential, in that it reveals attitudes, and it does so in a context enabling these to be "addressed" in the educational framework provided by school, where a certain code of behaviour applies, even if learners may not comply with it (bullying, blackmail, hazing, etc.). It takes place in the presence of a third party, on whom the institution confers a form of moral authority, even if that authority may be more or less openly contested or flouted. Those verbal reactions are not systematically reactions to direct challenges or personal conflicts, because the encounters with otherness may also be virtual and the challenges to identity limited, in the case of foreign language lessons, for example (except in the case of multicultural classes). This is a space which may or may not provide temporary respite from the brutality of everyday social exchanges and which is in no way impermeable to the surrounding society that can reappear at any moment, in which learners can express and compare their convictions.

Thus in every subject it is possible to construct encounters with otherness and each lesson is a place of discovery, where knowledge and information are imparted. It is therefore essential to "manage" these reactions on the part of learners, by which is meant: to replace spontaneous reactions (founded, doubtless, on social perceptions) with controlled, assumed and reflective ones. Indeed, the activities in each subject must create a link between imparting new knowledge and developing learners' critical and interpretation skills, with the ultimate aim of enriching their perception of the world and society and of giving them a more nuanced attitude to otherness. Cognitive activities, together with the socio-affective experiences that can change attitudes – although one must always consider the contribution that a simple process of reflection on intercultural experiences can make to modifying people's beliefs – must form a coherent whole. In any event, school constitutes a predefined space for realistic intercultural experience in which learners are invited to respond verbally to the discovery of other intellectual, societal or aesthetic "realities". Such a facilitating framework should enable both an intra- and intercultural dialogue to take place among pupils as well as between pupils and the teacher/moderator/educator/mediator who embodies the fundamental social values that it is the school's duty to transmit, in order to ensure social cohesion and each person's development as an individual and a citizen.

From the cultural angle prioritised in that development, the subjects taught at school therefore share objectives to be implemented through a shared teaching methodology, founded on the fact of understanding each subject as a community of practice, made part of a coherent whole through common norms of behaviour (of an epistemological or ethical kind, for example) and specific modes of verbal communication. It is founded also on the awareness that the knowledge and skills that each community has the task of imparting have practical, operational functions within community life that contribute to the common good in respect of the societal issues under debate. This makes it all the more vital to systematically develop learners' capacity for critical reflection (see 2.3) as a founding dimension of democratic citizenship.

## 2.10. ASSESSMENT IN PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

This section is concerned with assessment in the framework of curricula that build on learners' plurilingual repertoires and seek to create points of convergence among all the language classes at school (emphasising the cross-cutting links between: the language(s) of schooling, foreign or classical, regional or minority languages, languages as subjects or languages used for the teaching of other subjects), given that evaluation is an omnipresent, pedagogical and social requirement in many education systems.

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63. Byram M., Gribkova B. and Starkey H. (2002), *Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Publications and documents.

Assessment has a regulatory function at all levels of the curriculum (from “nano” to “supra”, 1.2), linking objectives/target competences and the learner’s learning process (formative or summative assessment by the teacher, self-assessment) to the curricula designed by the national authorities (for example, national standards) or with reference to international norms (for example, certification through language diplomas, tests based on international standards). There is an obvious link between assessment (what is being assessed, and how) and educational practice (what happens in class). Consistency between assessment and the aims and objectives of the curriculum may be an important factor for innovation. Conversely, a lack of consistency will call application of the curriculum into question. Below are some suggestions regarding practices for the assessment of learners’ progress (2.10.1) followed with some thoughts on the overall evaluation of a curriculum, from the standpoint of a plurilingual and intercultural education aimed at delivering quality (2.10.2).

### **2.10.1. Assessment of learners’ progress in plurilingual and intercultural education**

To what extent is it possible for assessment to take account of plurilingual repertoires, particularly in terms of the cross-cutting links described in previous sections? That is:

- ▶ different competence profiles for languages;
- ▶ the competence needed to implement transfer strategies, and more generally speaking, the ability to exploit the similarities between language systems;
- ▶ the competences needed for reflective and autonomous learning;
- ▶ the competences needed for mediation and the simultaneous use of different languages;
- ▶ the competences needed to understand and produce different discourse genres;
- ▶ the language skills needed to assimilate the knowledge associated with each subject and to form a scientific mind (difficult to describe given the intermeshing of cognitive and language aspects);
- ▶ intercultural competences.

Before endeavouring to answer, it is necessary to define what is meant here by “assessment”. Assessment of learners’ progress in a school context has a range of different functions. It is useful to take as a starting point the distinction that is generally drawn between *formative* and *summative* assessment. Formative assessment is used to support each learner’s individual development. Formative assessment by the teacher supports the learning process and learners’ responsibility and encourages the deployment of pupils’ individual resources in given contexts, with the teacher advising and giving feedback. Formative assessment places the emphasis on quality, contextualisation and a holistic approach to each learner; it allows a degree of subjectivity. In addition to assessment by the teacher, formative assessment includes other approaches – self-assessment (portfolios, class records) and peer assessment (learners assessing each other) – linked with collaborative learning practices and lifelong learning.

The aim of summative or certification assessment is to take stock of the level of attainment of competences foreseen by the curriculum at the beginning or end of the learning process (more or less extended in time). Summative assessment is used to make a selection on the basis of accepted social norms and to check results against the requirements of the education system. It aims to achieve the greatest possible objectivity, validity and transparency. It may be implemented within the class/school or within the framework of regional, national or international certification processes. As such, it requires standardisation. Assessment is discussed in depth in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR, Chapter 9, and 9.3 in particular).

Formative assessment and summative assessment can be seen as two poles – which may be either complementary or else in a state of tension or even contradiction with each other – between encouraging individual learning on the one hand, and the normative requirements of education systems, on the other. Ideally, of course, they should be co-ordinated and harmonised. The two forms of assessment refer to clear objectives as well as to assessment criteria that are transparent for learners and institutions. The reference framework for foreign languages proposed by the CEFR (and the texts derived from it) is very useful in this respect. Indeed, the CEFR has introduced a new approach to assessing learners’ progress in foreign languages, based on the CEFR competence scales, relating to the learner’s proficiency in the language activities (production and reception). It is an action-based approach that treats the learner as a social player with tasks to perform. This approach has widely taken over from more traditional forms of assessment based almost exclusively on formal competences (vocabulary and grammar tests out of context, translation). This is also the approach taken by the assessments for certification purposes that are widely on offer (international language diplomas). These certification systems, which are specific to the different languages, have the aim of satisfying certain criteria in terms of homogeneity and transparency. They are on offer from public, semi-public and private institutions

outside the school framework. Their services are much in demand, particularly for employment purposes. The Council of Europe has made available a series of tools to support examiners and other professionals in the field of foreign languages assessment, including a *Manual for relating Language Examinations to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)*, a *Manual for language test development and examining*, samples of *Reading and Listening Items and Tasks* and *Materials illustrating the CEFR levels of language proficiency* (written and oral production).<sup>64</sup> For the languages of schooling, and especially as regards the language dimension of the other subjects, standards are clearly lacking and one might wonder whether they are in fact desirable, given the wide variety of communities of practice to which they would need to correspond.

However, it must be noted, in the context of the plurilingual and intercultural education presented in this Guide, that this type of assessment based on the CEFR scales is generally monolingually inclined: the learners are supposed to demonstrate, in one language at a time, their competence according to a given level within the CEFR scales. These standards are predominant, when in reality the interaction among plurilingual speakers is more complex.

For assessment in general, but particularly for large-scale summative assessment, it is necessary to create reference frameworks defining in positive terms the skills linked with a plurilingual mode of operation and with cross-cutting competences. Some reference frameworks for competences do exist, in particular the FREPA<sup>65</sup> (which describes the competences and resources specifically associated with the plurilingual repertoire, reflexivity and an intercultural approach, in particular in the field of mediation, cf. also 2.7) and the scales of the HarmoS project conducted by the Swiss Conference of Cantonal Ministers of Education (CDIP) in the area of mediation.<sup>66</sup> These reference frameworks, unlike the CEFR, have not so far been widely adopted on the basis of a broad consensus, and the development of assessment forms and methods is only in the early stages. However, the inclusion of cross-cutting competences in the certification approaches validated by school could confer upon them a degree of legitimacy. A few possible forms that an assessment geared more to the aims and objectives of a plurilingual and intercultural education could take will be given below by way of examples.

It would be possible, for example, to design summative (or certification) tests for different languages at the same time, applying the same type of assessment criteria to each language being assessed. Such an examination would be able to define a learner's attainments at different levels, with a view to reporting in a positive manner on that person's asymmetric plurilingual profile (2.1). This type of assessment could be conducted collectively by the specialists of the different language disciplines (and comprise, in particular, pupils' initial language repertoires, including migration languages). This would be a step forward towards taking the plurilingual repertoire as a whole into account, especially if all languages in the pupils' repertoires are thus given value and legitimacy. However, this system would continue to favour an approach based on multiple monolingual competences.

Including mediation skills (2.7) in the assessment is one possibility for encouraging the mobilisation, in one and the same situation, of resources from the plurilingual repertoire. The assessment could, in particular, include such tasks as summarising in one language a text written in another language, or enabling two people or groups speaking different languages to understand each other (informal interpreting). In-depth reflection on descriptors of competences and approaches to evaluating mediation skills could in future provide a solid basis on which to add a plurilingual dimension to curricula.

One could also design test formats for assessing the capacity to alternate in an appropriate manner between the languages available in the repertoire during oral or written, reception or production, improvised or prepared activities (flexibility). Alternating codes is generally not permitted in assessment situations at school, although it is common practice in everyday life (and it is efficient under certain conditions), in particular in professional contexts.<sup>67</sup> Making it the subject of an assessment would be to confer upon it the status of a legitimate resource or strategic competence. One could envisage creating scenarios in which to evaluate the capacity to participate, in three languages, in a professional situation (polyglot dialogue):<sup>68</sup> the skills being targeted could be, for example, the ability to negotiate the use of different languages (which ones, at which moment, with whom?), to adapt one's production to the apparent comprehension level of the partners and to synchronise one's interventions in different languages with those of the other people.

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64. [www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR) → The CEFR and language examinations: a toolkit.

65. *Framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and culture*, [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → Resources → FREPA.

66. [http://edudoc.ch/record/96779/files/grundkomp\\_fremdsprachen\\_f.pdf](http://edudoc.ch/record/96779/files/grundkomp_fremdsprachen_f.pdf).

67. See in this connection the results of the European Commission's DYLAN Project (language, diversity and management of diversity), [www.dylan-project.org](http://www.dylan-project.org).

68. Lenz P. and Berthele R. (2010), *Assessment in plurilingual and intercultural education*, Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Curricula and evaluation.

Assessing intercomprehension would be another approach to building on strategic cross-cutting competences. It could consist, for example, in asking learners to show their understanding of texts in a language that they have not learned but that is close to another language in their repertoire (for example, Romanian for a learner of French). One could also target meta-knowledge, asking learners to explain their approach to classifying languages and establishing correspondences between them.

Whether it is possible to assess intercultural competence is a recurring subject of debate in the literature on teaching and curricula. As for the other cross-cutting competences, there is no model<sup>69</sup> on which there is a broad consensus that would allow a clear definition of target competences to be acquired in order to progress from one level to the next, to be assessed level by level. Often, for ethical reasons, it is difficult to evaluate intercultural attitudes (*savoir-être*). Turning to the categories described in Council of Europe documents, based on the Byram model (2008) – that is, knowledge (*savoirs*), skills of interpreting and relating (*savoir-comprendre*), skills of discovery (*savoir-apprendre*), intercultural attitudes (*savoir-être*), critical cultural awareness (*savoir s'engager*) – it can be noted that the tests for evaluating knowledge are easy to construct; the problem, however, is that this is still based partly on something resembling the idea of well-defined cultural entities, associated with the idea of the nation state; this is a gross over-simplification of the kind that a plurilingual and intercultural education is designed, precisely, to overcome. Skills such as the ability to observe/analyse/compare cultural facts can be the subject of assessments, even summative ones.<sup>70</sup> A solution promoted by the Council of Europe was the creation of the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, which resolves the predicament of well-defined cultures by placing the focus on the observation and real experience of such an encounter. However, that approach does not solve the problem of summative (or certification) assessment, nor, therefore, that of the legitimacy of the aims of an intercultural approach, since portfolios or autobiographies remain personal documents.

Finally, in the context of bilingual teaching of the immersion or CLIL/EMILE type, but also in the context of assessing competences of a scientific nature in the language of schooling, there is a great need for assessment formats directly linking up an evaluation of content with that of language use, instead of dissociating the two.<sup>71</sup>

Implementing summative or certification assessment on a large scale is a requirement of education systems that poses a major challenge. It seems safe to assume that certificate-awarding bodies operating on the language market (above all, those outside the school system) will be in no hurry to risk themselves in this area, where no one has decided what can in fact be evaluated, and formal qualifications are, as yet, little in demand. However, if the cross-cutting objectives linked with plurilingualism are incorporated into curricula or even syllabuses, then it is necessary to give serious thought to the possibilities for conducting a formative or even summative assessment of them. Innovative forms can more easily be introduced at the micro and meso levels (in a group, in a school) or even in the context of formative assessment, when teachers assess learners' progress, continuously or at regular intervals, for the purpose of giving them better guidance; they do so in a more informal, less calibrated fashion, but always with due regard to equity. Formative assessment is also conducive to self-assessment approaches like those proposed by the *European Language Portfolio*, for plurilingual competences, and by the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, for the intercultural dimension.

One of the most important challenges remains teacher training. Teachers have the job of linking the paradigms of summative and formative assessment and of practising forms of assessment that favour the development of pupils' reflective skills. There may be a conflict between that which is evaluated in the context of official/large-scale certification assessments and that which would be desirable in terms of developing individual resources. Thus teachers must find original solutions adapted to their pupils. For that purpose it is essential to work on perceptions with regard to plurilingual modes of operation and the links between languages and subjects and to develop an attitude to assessment that is genuinely conducive to the aims and objectives of plurilingual and intercultural education.<sup>72</sup> This work will also concern school principals, who will have the job of endorsing assessment decisions.

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69. By way of example, we could mention Milton Bennett's much-cited "A developmental model of intercultural sensitivity" (DMIS). While it is an accepted reference for some people, it is strongly criticised by others.

70. See, for example, Dervin F. (2010), "Assessing intercultural competence in language learning and teaching: a critical review of current efforts", in Dervin F. and Suomela-Salmi E. (eds), *New approaches to assessment in higher education*, Peter Lang, Bern, pp. 157-73.

71. For more information see *The language dimension in all subjects – Guide for the development of curricula and for teacher training* (2015), Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) in other subjects. For assessment in connection with CLIL-EMILE/immersion systems, see, for example, Coyle D., Hood P. and Marsh D. (2010), *CLIL: Content and language integrated learning*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge (Chapter 6, Assessment issues in CLIL). Massler U., Stotz D. and Queisser C. (2014), "Assessment instruments for primary CLIL: the conceptualisation and evaluation of test tasks", in *The language Learning Journal*, Vol. 42/2, pp. 137-50.

72. See Huver E. and Springer C. (2011), *L'évaluation en langues*, Didier, Paris.

## **2.10.2. Evaluating implementation of the curriculum**

Every curriculum also contains indications about when and how it should be evaluated, with the aim of establishing whether the education system as a whole has attained the goals set for it in the education programme.<sup>73</sup> Such an evaluation concerns the effect of the curriculum on learners' attainments and on teaching practices, as well as the extent to which it is adapted to the needs and expectations of learners and of society in general.

From a technical and quantitative point of view, such an evaluation of the system, which would take place at the macro or even supra level, would have the purpose of examining, for example, the relevance of the language profiles being aimed for and in particular whether they are realistic (that is, whether a large proportion of learners can feasibly attain the objectives in the appointed number of hours), their effects on teaching and learning processes and whether the teaching pathways are adapted to achieving the desired results. This task is both necessary and complex; it entails identifying indicators and performing the corresponding measurements. It also requires adequate – and possibly substantial – funding. It is all the more complex for a curriculum designed to foster plurilingual and intercultural education and which includes all the languages in the learners' repertoires including the language of schooling, the relationship between languages and subjects, bilingual forms of education such as immersion or CLIL/EMILE, foreign languages and migration languages.

Language performance is measured using multiple criteria and it is on the choice of those criteria that the evaluation of the whole system depends. They may be partially based on language teaching quality-control methods such as that of the European Association for Quality Language Services (EAQUALS) for foreign languages, the OECD's PISA survey protocols, the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) aimed at developing reading skills at primary level, as well as the protocol (and results) of the European Commission's European Survey on Language Competences (European indicator of language competence).

In this context there is a need for in-depth reflection about the monolingual nature of the norm on which all the above-mentioned quality control systems for language teaching are based. Plurilingual systems are scarcely taken into account<sup>74</sup> and it is therefore fair to ask whether in the case of bilingual and especially plurilingual children the right to educational equity is effectively guaranteed. In practice, the competences of plurilingual individuals, in particular children from migrant communities or multilingual regions, are measured solely according to monolingual standards. The risk of them appearing from the start to be deficient, or of not having their specific competences recognised, appears to be high. New formats like those mentioned for assessing learners' progress and adapted to different populations of pupils (simultaneous cross-cutting assessment in several languages, adjusted to different profiles), would help ensure that the repertoires and assets of plurilingual pupils are properly harnessed and managed at a broad political and systemic level.

Often it is very tricky to answer the question about the efficiency of language teaching, in terms of the ratio of the resources spent (hours of lessons, teaching posts, etc.) to the average results obtained. Experience shows, however, that this policy issue is largely conditioned by social perceptions (including those of decision makers). It is vital that the findings of such a wide-scale evaluation should be adjusted to take account of other factors outside the class (presence of languages in the environment, distance between the languages concerned, socio-economic status, level of education, etc.) in order to arrive at a valid analysis. The holistic approach may well help to produce the effectiveness aimed at, since it sets out to decompartmentalise lessons and lift them outside the class-group (age-group) context, and weekly timetables too: it introduces the idea that language and discourse genre acquisition may also depend on other, more flexible and diversified ways of organising the curriculum.

In order to guide the choice of a method for evaluating curricula at the macro level, an analytical approach based on *Language Education Policy Profiles* such as that proposed by the Language Policy Unit may be useful in order to give a plurilingual orientation to exams at national/regional level, both for the language(s) of schooling and foreign languages. An analysis based on "profiles" will also provide crucial guidance for giving regional and minority languages, and migration languages, their proper place, including by means of appropriate certification processes. Such an analysis will doubtless encourage a degree of realism with respect to performance profiles, which will be measured against the resources effectively made available in a given context, rather than simply being "copied" from other countries or regions (for example, for foreign languages, the undifferentiated B1 and B2 levels, which, in view of the teaching conditions, are sometimes unrealistic, instead of a profile adapted to a

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73. *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe – main version*, 6.8; *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe – executive version*, 6.3. and 5, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

74. See, in particular, Shohamy E. (2011), *Assessing multilingual competencies: adopting construct valid assessment policies*, *The Modern Language Journal* 95/3, pp. 418-29; Garcia O. and Baetens Beardsmore H. (2009), "Evaluation and assessment of bilinguals", in Garcia O., *Bilingual education in the 21st Century – A global perspective*, Wiley Blackwell, Chichester; Mueller Gathercole V. C. (ed.) (2013), *Issues in the assessment of bilinguals*, Multilingual Matters, Clevedon.



given context). It will also enable the prior definition of a framework for evaluating the suitability of organisational, teacher training and other measures so that they can be linked up with the results obtained by learners.<sup>75</sup>

The necessary information about the observed performances and attitudes of learners and the perceptions of educational players with regard to the curriculum and learners is also to be found at the meso level. It comes from direct observation (during classes), analysis of documents (syllabus texts, texts defining the objectives for a particular school, the “class records” kept by teachers for each class, etc.). It is also important to describe the perceptions of the people concerned by the evaluation (opinion, feelings, criticism, proposals for changes, etc.). Evaluation at the school or meso level can fulfil a range of other functions, such as:

- ▶ evaluating from within the school the effectiveness of language policies and the choices made;
- ▶ using the results obtained to guide language policies;
- ▶ helping language policies to evolve in accordance with the needs of learners and of society.

The evaluation may contain both summative and formative elements. It is important that it should be carried out on the basis of a clear and explicit school language policy and a competence profile seen in context. And in keeping with the holistic approach of plurilingual and intercultural education, it must take account of all the languages. It may be based on internal and external certification, always with a view to harnessing the full wealth of learners’ repertoires.

## 2.11. TEACHER TRAINING

Teachers are crucial to the implementation and success of any curriculum. An educational project such as the one proposed in this Guide, based on a cross-cutting, decompartmentalised approach, is impossible without their wholehearted acceptance and support. A revision of syllabuses, a change of learning objectives and the production of teaching material are important components of any reform of the curriculum, but in the final analysis teachers are the ones responsible for the choice and implementation of learning experiences and activities that are meaningful for learners, enabling them to attain the objectives set for them.

### 2.11.1. The importance of teacher training

The implementation of a plurilingual and intercultural education with its cross-cutting approach can encounter resistance from numerous players, in particular teachers, including future professionals. That resistance may stem from subjective perceptions or theories about languages and their acquisition: languages are often perceived as homogeneous and standardised (2.5), as a factor for the unity and uniqueness of each nation state and corresponding to an ideal speaker-listener. Heterogeneity and plurilingualism are automatically perceived as negative, as a threat to the purity of the official language. A compartmentalised approach, language by language, is recommended, for fear of interferences. Such a compartmentalised, monolingual approach to the learning of languages and other subjects also leads to fears that the teaching of one language will be to the detriment of another, or that language teaching will be to the detriment of other subjects.

Resistance to plurilingual, decompartmentalised and cross-cutting approaches is often greater at secondary than at primary level. Pre-primary and primary school favour a more integrated education, whereas at secondary level subject specialisation and normative pressures begin to be felt more strongly, which can lead to a rejection of anything which does not appear perfect, and to a focus on shortcomings rather than on resources, with the idealised native speaker serving as the reference model.

Hence teacher training is an area of huge responsibility. Implementation of a plurilingual and intercultural education calls first and foremost for quality language teaching, that is, one that aims at the best possible acquisition of competences in a given language in the light of the pupil’s stage of development and the objectives that have been officially set. Furthermore, it will be necessary to encourage teachers – by taking their subjective theories seriously – to develop positive perceptions of the language and cultural resources of any plurilingual individual and a sympathetic attitude towards vulnerable groups and the repertoires they represent.

Compliance with these principles is necessary in order to be able to tap the potential of the pedagogical and didactic concepts and the range of tools and instruments developed on the basis of the above-described cross-cutting approach. Training will focus on the following notions in particular: plurilingualism, repertoire

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<sup>75</sup> For more information, see: Language Education Policy Profiles – Council of Europe assistance with self-evaluation of national and regional policies: [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

and the corresponding acquisition processes; the language dimensions of all learning processes; the capacity to activate transfer strategies from one language, one competence or one subject to another; reflexivity in the learning process, in particular grammar learning; a differentiated approach to language norms; mediation and openness to otherness and mobility; other assessment concepts (specifically plurilingual and intercultural cross-cutting competences). It will also be important to encourage teachers to see themselves as part of a team, jointly responsible for pupils' plurilingual development, and hence to engage in multiple forms of co-operation (among language teachers; with and among teachers of other subjects).

### **2.11.2. Possible training strategies**

Current (initial and in-service) teacher training practices often do not correspond at all, or only partially, to the plurilingual and intercultural approach. Generally they remain enclosed in monolingual traditions; only very rarely are the boundaries between disciplines (in the case of both languages and other subjects) overstepped.

Although each context has its own requirements and characteristics, any training for a plurilingual and intercultural education must comply with certain common principles. A cross-cutting approach, the development of plurilingual repertoires and openness to cultural diversity form the core of the curriculum for pupils, but they must also be guiding principles for the training of teachers. It is necessary to define clear objectives in line with the educational project in question and to create innovative but pragmatic training approaches, building on what already exists.

#### **Objectives in line with plurilingual and intercultural education**

The profiles of the teachers participating in the implementation of a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education will vary widely. There will be generalists and specialists, teachers of languages as subjects (foreign or classical languages, language(s) of schooling as a first or second language, minority/regional/migration languages) and teachers of other subjects. Some will apply bilingual, plurilingual or CLIL/EMILE-type teaching approaches (alone or in tandem), while others will not.

It is not possible here to propose an inventory of the target competences for these different profiles. Appendix III to this Guide contains some examples of teacher competences as well as a simple and operational model for their definition. Several reference frameworks for different types of lessons are also available. All these instruments can be used as a basis on which to draw up a specific profile adapted to a given educational context or lesson type. They will be useful for defining the content and organisation of training.

By way of example we can present the "Framework model for basic competences for language education for all teaching staff" (*Rahmenmodell Basiskompetenzen Sprachliche Bildung für alle Lehrenden*) drawn up on behalf of the Austrian Ministry by experts from various academic and pedagogical institutions and co-ordinated by the Austrian Centre for Language Competence (ÖSZ 2014). Based on the Austrian *Multilingualism Curriculum*,<sup>76</sup> it offers teacher training institutions (universities and colleges of education) a reference framework for competences in the form of a common basis for teachers of all subjects. The aims are to acquire knowledge about language acquisition, plurilingualism and the cultural dimension, diagnosis and assessment methods, the teaching of subjects that are sensitive to the language dimension and targeted measures of encouragement for vulnerable groups. This curriculum in the form of modules is aimed both at transmitting knowledge and skills and challenging perceptions, in order to help teachers deal with the increasing social, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity of the classes they teach.

Another example worthy of mention is the pioneering work done by the *Passe-partout* project in German-speaking Switzerland. It promotes the teaching of French and English as foreign languages at primary school with a curriculum based resolutely on the principles of a plurilingual and intercultural education. Reference frameworks for pedagogical competences on the one hand, and for ongoing foreign language training specific to the profession on the other, both based on the same principles, have been drawn up and made available to institutions providing initial and in-service training for teachers in compulsory education.

#### **Experiences**

In order to allow teachers to put the concepts proposed in this Guide into practice, there is an obvious need for explanations that are as clear as possible, as well as instruments and materials to facilitate their daily work in the classroom. To have them experience during their initial or in-service training what they themselves will be

<sup>76</sup> *Curriculum Mehrsprachigkeit* (2011), Krumm H.-J., Universität Wien, and Reich H. H., Universität Koblenz-Landau.

encouraging their pupils to experience is another important condition for challenging the above-mentioned subjective perceptions and theories. Here are some examples of experiences along those lines:

- ▶ foreign language training experiences based on the principles of plurilingual/integrated teaching;
- ▶ experiences of synergetic training in subjects generally taught in a compartmentalised fashion, which implies co-operation among the trainers in these subjects;
- ▶ experience of the autonomous management of one's own learning processes (creation of portfolios), for example in the context of mobility experiments making use, in particular, of the *European Language Portfolio* and the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*; experience of plurilingual practices making simultaneous use of several languages during the same lesson (for example, with an intercomprehension dimension);
- ▶ experience of learning an unknown language, or complex linguistic production tasks in a language that is not well mastered;
- ▶ experience of creating a plurilingual curriculum scenario for pupils at the educational level being targeted;
- ▶ experience of linking research and training through research-action projects (for example, observation of plurilingual learners on the basis of sound theoretical concepts and methodological tools).

One example is the introduction of a training module<sup>77</sup> within the educational system of Luxembourg, a multilingual country. This module is designed for young teachers of "non-language" subjects at secondary level who are faced with the challenge of teaching in German and French, neither being the first language of many of the learners. The aim is to make teachers better prepared for these linguistically and culturally complex learning situations, while at the same time helping them to improve their competence in their second language. The guiding principle here is learning through experience and reflexivity. On the one hand, they deal in several languages with content that will be useful for the exercise of their profession, such as language learning processes, the concept of a literacy specific to each subject, interaction for learning purposes, and the cultural contexts of learning and assessment. At the same time, the trainees are encouraged to see themselves as plurilingual learners (in particular through the simultaneous use of several languages during the training course) and to conduct, for reflective purposes, small research projects relating to their own language practices and those of their pupils in the classroom.

### Forms of organisation

Different starting points or forms of organisation are possible, adapted to different contexts and teacher profiles. The mode of incorporation of the cross-cutting approach may range from the introduction of specific elements into existing training courses to the creation of new courses entirely governed by the principles of a cross-cutting approach.

Thus it is possible to propose initial or in-service training modules more specifically geared to teachers of different subjects. This is the case, for example, when existing or specially created modules supply the basis for a plurilingual teaching approach for foreign language teachers, as in Switzerland's above-mentioned *Passe-partout* in-service training project. This also applies to the creation of training sequences geared to the language dimension of the different subjects, aimed at the teachers of those subjects, as in the Luxembourg training scheme described above.

One could also imagine creating modules that are common to all the teachers of a given educational level (language teachers and teachers of other subjects) based on a common core of competences, concerning, in particular, the language dimension of all learning processes, plurilingual learning processes and linguistic and cultural heterogeneity. This is the starting point proposed by Austria's above-mentioned *Framework model for basic competences for language education for all teaching staff*.

The creation of complete curricula for the initial training of teachers incorporating several disciplines that are generally kept separate or are poorly co-ordinated is another possibility. Thus, for example, training for the cross-teaching of two foreign languages can make full use of synergy in terms of curriculum planning, in particular by setting up cross-cutting modules in didactics, applied linguistics and comparative literature/culture. Another possibility would be to propose an integrated curriculum for the teachers of a language as subject plus another subject (for example, natural sciences and a foreign language) with a specific focus on bilingual or plurilingual education.

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77. Hansen-Pauly M. (2014), *Teacher education: language issues in multilingual educational contexts: sensitising subject student teachers for language issues and cultural perspectives*, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) of schooling.

Other forms or models are of course conceivable, since this is only the beginning of a process of innovation. Teacher training, which often has broader structural freedom than the state schooling system, could become a driving force behind curricular change.

Within and beyond the framework of training activities, encouraging co-operation and networking among teachers and among all players is a crucial task. School principals have a key role to play in this respect, by encouraging co-operation within teaching teams, as a prerequisite for a school ethos that is conducive to a plurilingual and intercultural education project.



## Chapter 3

# Organising a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education

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**T**he previous chapters have laid foundations for designing a curriculum geared to plurilingual and intercultural education by setting forth the principles on which such a curriculum should be based and detailing its constituent components. This chapter goes a step further and constitutes an introduction to the issue of educational levels or stages. It therefore discusses the chronological (“vertical”) distribution of the content and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education, convergences between languages and between subjects, to be established level by level and year by year, and the overall coherence of curriculum choices. To speak of a curriculum is necessarily to speak of continuity of courses and of teaching, but also of synchronic (“horizontal”) coherence by level and year.

This chapter also gives a more detailed analytical description of the possible options and decisions needed to gradually bring certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education into existing curricula. For each stage in the process, the crucial problems are spelt out, possible “solutions” suggested and existing instruments referred to, and a new method will be used to provide examples.

### 3.1. ORGANISING CURRICULA FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION AT THE VARIOUS LEVELS OF EDUCATION

This sub-chapter continues the discussion of the curriculum begun in Chapter 1 by taking as its starting point the different levels of education,<sup>78</sup> which will be characterised from the point of view of language acquisition. This level-based approach, while remaining holistic, enables us to avoid a general and overly abstract discussion. It will also shape the ideas that are presented throughout this chapter.

Here, the experiential dimension of learning is added to the curriculum components highlighted in Chapter 1. This involves practices which, although not very new or costly to implement, seem appropriate for the approach adopted in this Guide. The experiences concerned are those which it is important to offer to learners so that they experience different methods of learning. A number of these experiences have been divided between the different levels here, but other ways of distributing them are possible. Curriculum components and the approaches suggested in curricula contribute more to realising educational aims through their possible combinations and interactions than through their merely cumulative effect. These “experiences” can refer both to one-off events and to processes lasting some time. From the earliest stages of schooling, some of these experiences can give rise to forms of reflective activity, which teachers can initiate or encourage, and which can be recorded by and for pupils (using methods like those of the *European Language Portfolio*).

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78. In order to specify these levels, we shall use the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) established by UNESCO. See: [www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-standard-classification-of-education.aspx](http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Pages/international-standard-classification-of-education.aspx).

A diagrammatic representation will present – for illustration purposes and synchronously for each level or stage – a possible arrangement between a number of curriculum components, in particular:

- ▶ the languages present and taught in the school together with the learning objectives, including in their relationship to school subjects;
- ▶ the areas and types of convergence or cross-cutting links (Chapter 2) to be established between these languages and between languages and school subjects;
- ▶ the experiences to be offered to pupils and the approaches to be employed;
- ▶ the intercultural aspects, which are often overlooked and are particularly highlighted here.

The concluding remarks will focus on the competences to be acquired and the precautions to be taken with regard to their assessment.

The school as an institution is organised by levels or stages which, based on learners' ages, are also supposed to take account of the stages of their cognitive, affective and social development and provide appropriate teaching. Each level is structured either by subject areas or fields or, in terms of time, by school subjects, which vary according to the course or specialisation.

In some contexts, the education system can provide bilingual teaching in all or some of these subjects. This is the case when a regional or minority language or (more rarely) a migration language, or even a foreign language, is taught and used at the same time as a medium for teaching subjects alongside the main language of schooling. This form of teaching involves taking account of the fact that two languages are employed in the knowledge-building process, and hence of the importance of properly managing language switching.

Depending on the level of schooling, it is possible to make provision for a first, second or even third foreign language, which in the latter case is usually optional. Some levels may also offer classical languages for some streams.

### **3.1.1. Early childhood education curriculum (ISCED<sup>79</sup> Level 0)**

This level provides for two types of syllabus: early childhood educational development (0 to 2 years of age) and pre-primary education (from 3 years of age to the start of primary education). Not normally compulsory, it is present to varying degrees in state school systems in Europe. As spaces for discovery and socialisation, pre-primary schools represent a basic stage in plurilingual and intercultural education, particularly for children from certain social environments and from migrant backgrounds, whose language practices at home may conflict with the varieties and norms selected and fostered by schools. To that extent, and since the issue here is the access of all learners to language (and general) education, one of the first considerations is that socialisation and schooling of this kind<sup>80</sup> for very young children be guaranteed and provided in optimum conditions for all the groups concerned – both native-born permanent residents and recently arrived immigrant families. This level of schooling does not yet involve “subjects” but, rather, “fields of experience” and “learning areas”, which may well be called by some other name. Language plays a key role here alongside other semiotic resources, such as drawing, body movement, music and play.

#### **Learning experiences**

There are certain experiences that allow for account to be taken of the children's age and the period of cognitive, affective and social development they are going through. The following list of learning experiences is not to be viewed as an ordered syllabus. Selection and relative weighting can be varied to suit the context.

- ▶ a) *Linguistic and cultural diversity and plurality*
  - acceptance by teachers (and other children) of his/her language(s) and language variety/varieties, and way of speaking;<sup>81</sup>
  - plurality of modes of expression (languages, varieties, dialects and sociolects) of others, both teachers and children;
  - lifestyles of various cultures (clothing, food, music, etc.).

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79. The abbreviation ISCED refers to the International Standard Classification of Education established by UNESCO (see previous footnote).

80. This terminological distinction is used to differentiate between situations in which this level is not part of compulsory education and its main aims are therefore limited to socialisation or to situations in which this level constitutes the first stage of compulsory schooling. Its aim is therefore to prepare pupils for being taught at the subsequent levels.

81. This type of experience becomes essential for children of speakers of regional or minority languages or migration languages, or varieties of the language of schooling considered non-legitimate at the school.

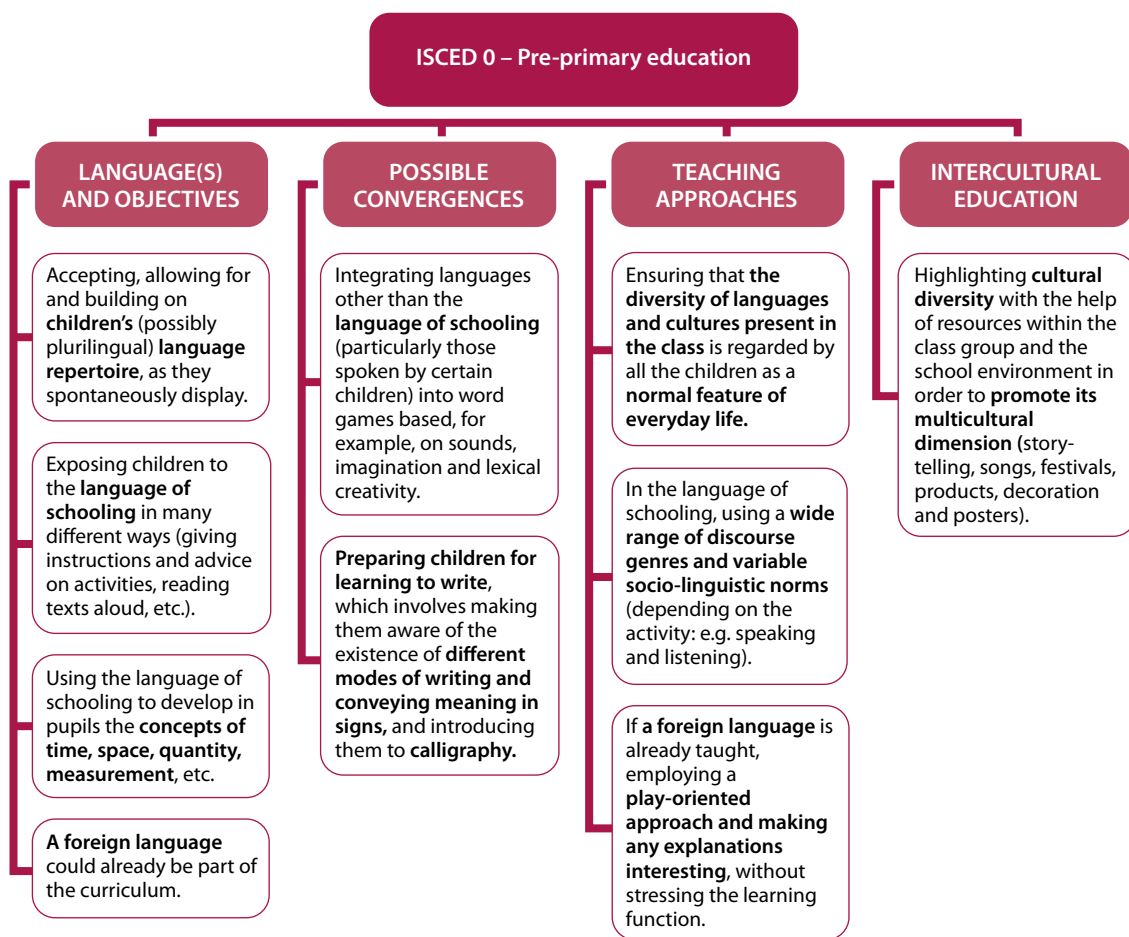
- ▶ *b) Education geared to respect for otherness*
  - listening to others, but silence as well;
  - the rules of interaction within groups (not all speaking at once, knowing how to listen, but also how to get a hearing, etc.);
  - comparing interaction practices peculiar to a given culture (for example, in parent–child relations).
- ▶ *c) Diversifying forms of expression*
  - the relationship between the body, the spoken word, rhythm, etc.;
  - projection of the spoken word, in gesture and movement (physical expression, theatricals, listening to fairy-tales and stories, etc.);
  - first forms of oral literacy (short poems, rhymes, tales) and other first steps towards literacy (handling and looking at various types of book, albums, etc.);
  - other forms of literacy specific to certain cultures represented in the class or social environment;
  - role-playing games which encourage participants to switch registers (simulating everyday situations, etc.);
  - guided enrichment of means of expression (linking incidents in a story, enlarging vocabulary, improving word choice, etc.).
- ▶ *d) Multimodal and multisensorial experiences*
  - contact with various semiological and graphic systems (use of signs, artistic forms, music from more than one cultural tradition), including multimedia communication;
  - restitution in one expressive mode of content registered through another sense (listening to a piece of music and then talking about it, listening to a story and producing a drawing based on it);
  - learning to control gestures, particularly in connection with preparing to write.
- ▶ *e) Foreign languages*
  - a first foreign language and culture, possibly based on counting rhymes in languages spoken by other pupils: depending on context, this may range from awareness through play to early immersion.
- ▶ *f) Reflexivity*
  - first forms of reflection on languages, human communication and cultural identity, which are within children’s (affective and cognitive) reach.

It will be noted that various countries already have many practices which match the above-mentioned types of experience. Following the approach adopted here, these should be highlighted to focus attention on the importance both of recognising and building on various forms of plurality (of languages, modes of expression and communication, cultural practices) and of the factors which give an initial structure to this plurality and enrich children’s language capacities. Finally, in addition to a statement of competences to be acquired, the proposals spell out the responsibility of educators/teachers and the initiatives to be taken.

### **Example of links between curriculum items**

The following example, which is not exhaustive, shows some possible links between various items within a curriculum for ISCED Level 0. The new feature of this proposal (and of those to follow) is the fact that the curriculum is considered here less in terms of competences that the pupil has to attain than in terms of the responsibility and initiative of the person responsible for the children at school (at this level the educator or teacher, depending on the country). The priorities identified for this level are: building on pupils’ linguistic and cultural repertoires, highlighting the plurality and internal diversity of the class with a view to securing acceptance of the children’s primary identities, and the acquisition of competences in the language of socialisation/schooling, thus permitting guided concept building and the possible introduction of a first foreign language.





## Competence profiles and evaluation

Depending on contexts, consideration may be given to a threshold to be reached or possible exit profiles at the end of this first period of schooling in terms of competences that the pupil can attain. Extreme caution is needed here, however, because, firstly, ages and entry conditions vary greatly and, secondly and chiefly, because children's diverse backgrounds and environments lead to differences in rhythms and modes of adjustment to school life. It would therefore be premature, even dangerous and potentially discriminatory, to set language proficiency levels for admission to primary school. Other approaches are now employed in an effort to ensure that every child is equipped, before starting primary school, to pursue his or her schooling successfully – which is fully in keeping with the need to give everyone access to quality education.<sup>82</sup> The focus is therefore on the school's responsibility for guaranteeing the competences that the child is entitled to acquire in order to cope with the next level rather than on "assessment" – in the usual sense of the term – of their personal abilities, which could in some cases be tantamount to early stigmatisation.

In general, however, it is reasonable to assume, with a view to plurilingual and intercultural education, that children leaving pre-primary school should fully realise:

- ▶ that school, which is (with others) a place for exploring and learning, and also for relating to others in ways somewhat different from those experienced elsewhere, promotes these processes of exploring, learning and relating to others chiefly through the medium of a single common language, which is both variable and subject to certain rules;
- ▶ that school also recognises and accepts other languages and language varieties, as well as other forms of expression and communication, which can contribute, alongside the emergent common language, to exploring, learning and relating to others, but in most cases do not have the same status as the language of schooling;

82. See for example Verhelst M. (ed.) (2009), *Framework of reference for early second language acquisition*, Nederlandse Taalunie, Den Haag, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Languages of schooling.

- ▶ that school is a place where children acquire the ability to learn and operate in this common language, and that this involves text (oral discourse, written discourse, oralised written matter), words, verbal behaviour and training, as well as a certain self-discipline that extends to play and creative activities;
- ▶ that school is open to social and cultural plurality, which is itself a valuable aid to exploring, learning and relating to others; awareness of its value must be mediated by adults (teachers and other school operatives), and also by children among themselves.

ISCED Level 0 sometimes involves a highly intuitive approach to the various profiles of learners, whose competences are often assessed without suitable observation and evaluation instruments. It is particularly important to give teachers the resources they need for this, not with a view to formal measurement or access tests for each level, but so that they can support each child's language development to optimum effect.

Finally, the responsibilities of educators/teachers also include support for families' language policies and encouragement for families with "other" languages in order to enable their children to build proficiency in their language of origin.<sup>83</sup>

### **3.1.2. Primary education curriculum (ISCED Level 1)**

Primary schools in most national systems are chiefly focused on developing literacy – teaching children to read/write/handle figures, and making them aware of the functions, power and constraints of the written word, in terms of knowledge building, success at school and, more generally, personal fulfilment, as well as, looking ahead, success in a future career, active citizenship and cultural appreciation. Being educated (and not simply taught) to write is thus one of the most important education (not just language education) rights. However, written competences must not be taught at the expense of working on oral practices and representations, whose complexity and diversity need highlighting precisely because they play such a crucial role at school and outside. Oral skills at school are often seen as a "given" and correcting usage is considered more important than building discursive skills. It is particularly important for young people whose family languages are not the main language of schooling, and whose oral productions may be stigmatised, rather than acknowledged and developed by schools, that oral expression and interaction are in no way neglected. It is also important that these skills are continuously developed in close connection with the work done on the written word and written texts, care also being taken not to turn the latter into models for spoken usage(s) in school. Finally, a first foreign language is generally introduced if this has not already been done at the pre-primary level.

Primary education brings pupils face to face with broad subject areas in which the language of schooling is used as a heuristic for helping to build concepts (in geography, history, mathematics, science, etc.). The language of the teacher, the textbook and other media (including new technologies) becomes more precise, more technical and more specialised, breaking with everyday language experience and involving new forms of oral and written text. The pupil's linguistic repertoire is accordingly extended with the addition of these forms of discourse (2.8), at least as far as their reception is concerned. Simple narration, which is still very present, increasingly gives way to more objectified forms involving descriptions, definitions, explanations, the giving of reasons and so on.

#### **Learning experiences**

The following list mentions experiences in the fields of both written and oral expression.

- ▶ a) *Learning to read and write/literacy*
  - becoming aware of the differences between, and special features of, language activities: reading and writing (two language activities with different functions, which are useful and complementary in all learning processes);
  - discovering and experiencing the various functions of the written word (as a means of overcoming physical and temporal distance, a means of preserving knowledge and the past, a heuristic tool and play medium, an instrument for working things out, etc.);
  - being introduced to the written word (codification and variation of relationships between sounds/graphic signs/meanings, functional aspects and aesthetic dimensions, calligraphy, graphic poems, etc.);
  - discovering and observing plurality of graphic systems (with special reference to the various languages present in pupils' repertoires);

<sup>83</sup> Some interesting ideas on support by educators/teachers for the maintenance of languages spoken in the family are put forward by the *European portfolio for student teachers of pre-primary education* (PEPELINO), drawn up by the ECML ([www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at)).

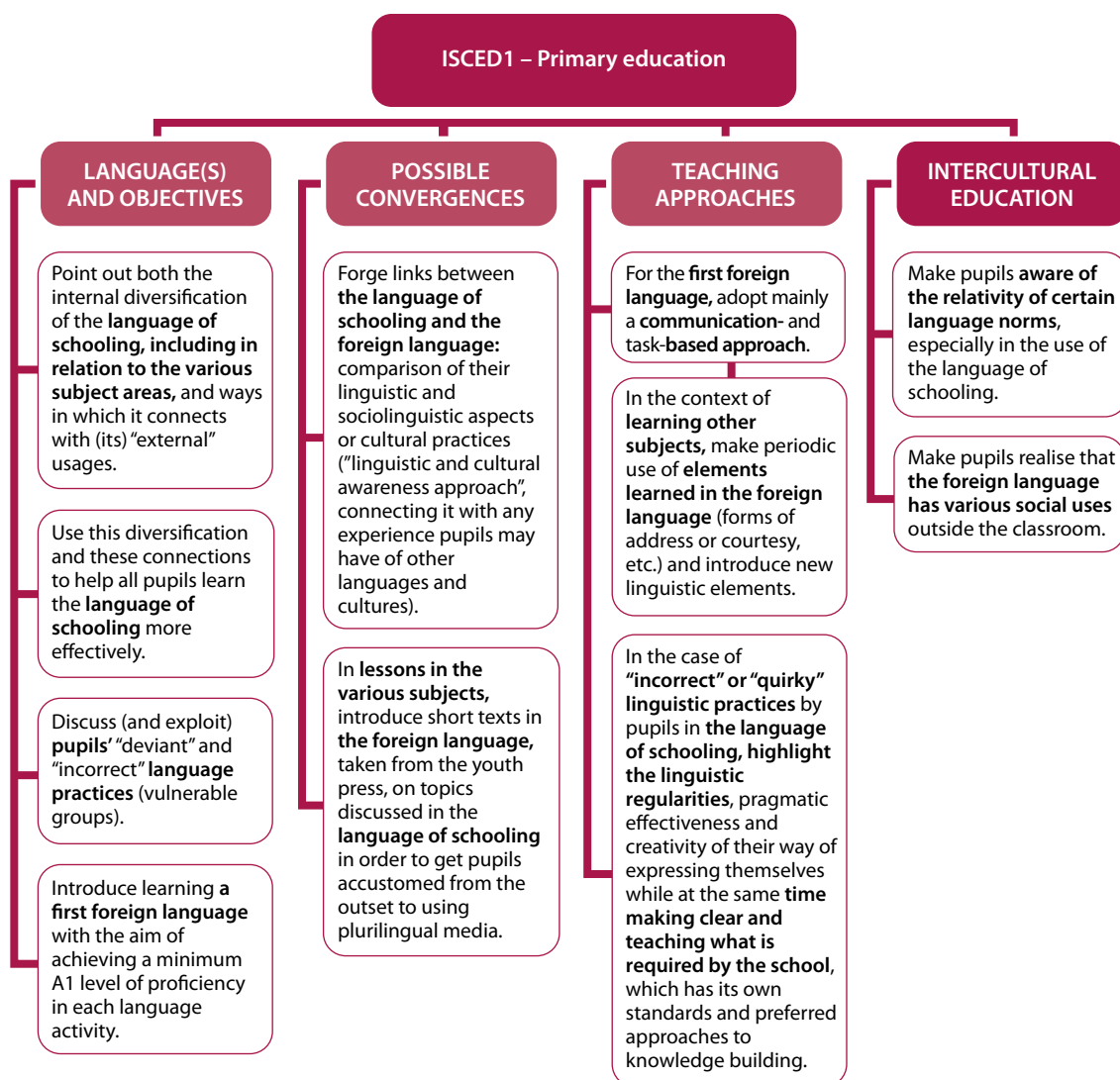
- starting to think about discourse genres at school (textbooks, classroom presentations, interaction within groups, etc.) and outside (media, etc.), including new technology-based forms;
- experiencing similarity and diversity of genres and forms of literacy in other cultures.
- ▶ *b) Improving listening skills and oral expression (oral language)*
  - becoming aware of the importance of listening attentively to what others are saying, making assumptions about meaning and identifying auditory cues (teaching pupils to listen);
  - experiencing the similarities and differences between sounds in several languages (first language, language of schooling, foreign language studied, pupils' repertoire languages, other languages);
  - starting to think about the many different types of oral text in school (definitional statements, school routines such as question – answer – assessment, classroom presentations, stories, forms of interaction within groups, etc.) and outside school (conversations, debates), including new technology-based forms;
  - observing and becoming aware of differences in register in daily oral communication in and outside school and their variations according to languages/cultures.
- ▶ *c) Metalinguistic and metacultural reflection*
  - learning to use various metalinguistic tools (dictionaries, specialised glossaries, including those based on multimedia);
  - learning to use metacultural tools (atlases, encyclopaedias, audiovisual materials);
  - experiencing variations (historical, geographical, social, written/oral, etc.) in the language of schooling; becoming aware of the historical relativity of spelling rules, as well as their grammatical, communication and social functions.
- ▶ *d) Decoding and using semiotic resources other than languages*
  - observing and interpreting the conventions and workings of semiotic modes other than natural language: diagrams, histograms, double-entry tables, particularly when used to present school-subject data (history, geography, life sciences) and for ordinary social purposes (press and other media).
- ▶ *e) Awareness of written literature and personal expression*
  - ongoing efforts to foster awareness of word-play, and of the form and content of literary texts likely to stimulate sound and visual perception, imagination, and a desire to memorise, share and describe, as well as to write and read other texts oneself.
- ▶ *f) Self-evaluation and peer-evaluation*
  - using a personal class-record to note and keep track of work done, and record personal reactions to the course;
  - becoming aware of self-evaluation, and evaluation of and by peers; acquiring the habit of keeping a personal portfolio (in conventional written, computerised or multimedia form).
- ▶ *g) Overall linguistic and intercultural education*
  - participating in activities which foster language awareness and openness to languages;
  - becoming aware of differences/similarities between languages, and of scope for partial intercomprehension between related languages;
  - participating in activities which encourage comparison of phenomena specific to various cultures.
- ▶ *h) Foreign languages*
  - going through the first stages of learning to speak and write a foreign language, and becoming aware of multi-/pluriliteracy in the process;
  - experiencing culture-specific phenomena expressed in that foreign language and comparing them with similar phenomena already encountered;
  - establishing reflexive links between the foreign language and language of schooling (focusing on similarities or differences, as appropriate);
  - experiencing simple forms of bilingual teaching and practice (actually using the foreign language in a few activities and lessons).

The above list is neither exhaustive nor ranked in order of importance, and applies only to certain dimensions of language teaching within the broader context of primary schooling. It may, however, be thought too ambitious at this level, and likely to overburden the curriculum – possibly with negative effects on the most vulnerable groups. This danger must obviously be considered, but our own view, in terms of education rights, is that:

- ▶ language education, at the stage when writing and reading abilities are developing, is decisive for subsequent schooling;
- ▶ it is nonetheless important that language abilities developed at school should connect with the child's existing abilities, and not be formally compartmentalised;
- ▶ progress in mastering the language of schooling depends on allowing for the range of variation that every language accommodates (diversity and variability) and seeing variation as the background to all the rules and norms that must be known and mastered (2.5);
- ▶ the learner's lexical, syntactical and discourse abilities must be systematically expanded, which demands regular, methodical work, and – far from being limited to language training as such – benefits from being closely linked to activities, learning processes and usage conventions in other school subjects;
- ▶ preserving and reinforcing plurilingual and intercultural openness on this level of schooling helps children to perceive the diversity/variability of the common language of schooling, and grasp and master the rules and norms which govern it;
- ▶ primary school is the ideal place to implement this integrative, structuring approach, with the arrangements varying according to contexts and educational cultures.

### Example of links between curriculum items

The example provided centres on the pupil's first awareness of the language used at school in the teaching of individual subjects, and focuses at the same time on taking account of learners' repertoires and making them aware of the internal variability of the language of schooling and the social uses of languages. Consequently, far from being imposed in a prescriptive or, worse, stigmatising manner, learning of the formal and "academic" uses of the language of schooling is rooted in critical thinking about social language practices.



## Competence profiles and evaluation

In contrast to what was said earlier about pre-primary school, it seems both desirable and reasonable that exit profiles – covering plurilingual and intercultural competences – should be defined for primary school, the aim being to ensure that the (often difficult) transition to later schooling stages is made in favourable conditions. Various terms (*threshold, basis, minimum competences, prerequisites, standards*) may be used, all of them referring to markedly different conceptions, practices, and description and evaluation modes – but, as far as quality education is concerned, everything comes down to a few principles:

- ▶ An evaluation of pupils' linguistic abilities and a self-assessment of their intercultural abilities should be guaranteed.
- ▶ That evaluation should not be confined to formal linguistic and cultural knowledge but must extend to language and intercultural knowledge and skills connected with everything learned at school, as well as with social conventions outside.
- ▶ It should be based on identification of the language (linguistic and semiotic, communicational, reflexive) and intercultural competences actually used to build knowledge in various school subjects.
- ▶ It should take account of the interactional formats and discourse genres through which the language of schooling (both as a subject and as a medium of instruction for other subjects) is actualised in various ways at school.
- ▶ It should also cover the relationships between the common language of schooling and the other languages present in the school.
- ▶ It should take various forms: periodic and continuous evaluation, self-evaluation and evaluation by others, examinations/tests, and portfolio/dossier.
- ▶ It should be contextualised (since ages and levels on completing primary school are variable, and since curricula and teaching content also vary), but gains from being linked, if only partly, to descriptions/descriptors which are widely used and approved.

In plurilingual and intercultural education, the intercultural dimension (chiefly concerned with attitudes, dispositions, and perceptions of others and otherness) is harder to evaluate using formal testing methods. It is thus desirable that this intercultural awareness (at least) and this intercultural perception/reflection should begin in primary school (building on anything that ISCED Level 0 may have been able to contribute). It is up to the curriculum to ensure that each year of primary schooling brings experiences and encounters that are likely to foster intra- and intercultural contacts, generate awareness of stereotypes and prejudices, and promote better understanding and increased recognition of cultural diversity, starting with the cultures present in the school and its environment. Most of these experiences and encounters can be incorporated into “normal” school subjects (exploring the environment, learning about the past, art education, literary texts, etc.) (2.9) and be recorded in a personal file or portfolio.

### **3.1.3. Lower and upper secondary education curriculum (ISCED Levels 2 and 3)**

We know that the age at which children make the change from primary to secondary school, or from the first to the final stages of basic schooling, differs from country to country. Since the change falls within pre-adolescence or adolescence, these variable transition times inevitably have some effect on curriculum design and content. In fact, there are two requirements here.

- ▶ First of all, there must be a certain continuity between language teaching in ISCED 1 and ISCED 2, and the approaches outlined in connection with pre-primary and primary education must be taken into account. The types of experience listed below thus relate in the main to elements that supplement (and elaborate on) many of the experiences mentioned in connection with ISCED 1.
- ▶ Secondly, various often-emphasised differentiating factors also come into play: subject autonomy increases, with lessons being entrusted (gradually or not) to specialised teachers, and new subjects, including a second foreign language, are introduced. This slightly alters the approach to knowledge building.

Depending on the country, compulsory schooling comes to an end at one point or another in these two levels and is followed by various possible options: the continuation of studies in general education streams leading to higher education (long courses often perceived as more prestigious) or in vocational streams (short courses of varying duration and different opportunities to embark on further studies) as preparation for professional careers and specialised trades. Another possibility – and a problematical one for some countries – is for young people to drop out of school without obtaining a certificate or vocational qualification, which paves the way

for youth unemployment, the rate of which is alarming in quite a number of European countries, and creates difficulties with regard to positive integration into society. School is therefore responsible for providing these (young) adolescents with guidance – conceived as an effective educational pathway in which the learner plays an active and creative role – throughout these two levels, where its work as a mediator between school and working life is becoming increasingly important. This work also includes language education, the challenges of which are becoming more complex and more demanding as far as learners' personal and vocational future is concerned.

## Learning experiences

We will be discussing ISCED 2 and ISCED 3 together at this juncture, but will obviously not be forgetting that this differentiation (both synchronic [horizontal] and diachronic [vertical] continuity) of courses has wide-ranging effects on curricula. Taking lower and upper secondary schooling together helps to make the point that education systems should guarantee all pupils – wherever they are in their studies, and whatever those studies may be – learning opportunities involving experiences of the kind described below. It goes without saying that the form these experiences take, and the demands they make on learners, will depend on the latter's age and inclinations.

Preparation for activities involving mediation, interpretation and evaluation of texts and documents of various kinds is the most important thing that experiential curricula should cover at these stages in schooling. These activities are focused on school and "academic" genres, but are also socially relevant in the outside world. Reflexive, metalinguistic activities also increase at this point, as does – above all in certain streams – exposure to textual genres connected with technical and pre-vocational practices.

Bearing these various dimensions in mind and employing a summary classification, we shall note the following experiences here:

### ► a) *Mediation, interpretation, evaluation*

- participating in linguistic mediation activities (producing a written report on an oral debate, summarising in one language an article written in another, speaking on a topic from a few written notes, translating a conversation for an outsider who does not know the speakers' language, etc.); switching from one semiotic mode to another (from text to diagram, etc.);
- participating in intercultural mediation activities (explaining the values and behaviour patterns of one culture to members of another, achieving a compromise between conflicting interpretations of events or behaviour);
- participating in interpretation activities (commenting on historical, ethical or social aspects of a literary or other text; explaining the implications of a scientific breakthrough; commenting on graphs or tables showing economic trends, etc.);
- participating in evaluation activities (giving a reasoned aesthetic opinion on a literary text, critically analysing a TV programme, a press article, a political debate, a work of art), as well as self-evaluation and evaluation by others (of individual or collective school tasks and projects); discussing different approaches to semiotic representation of the same phenomenon;
- practical and analytical experience of switching from one language to others (for example, the "same" poem in the original language and several translations);
- experience of contacts and transitions between languages (at real or virtual intercultural meetings, face-to-face or at a distance).

### ► b) *Metalinguistic and metacultural reflection*

- observing different grammatical approaches to the "same" linguistic functions or grammatical phenomena (and relativising descriptions and terminologies in accordance with conceptions and viewpoints);
- work of the *educazione linguistica* type (an integrated approach to the various language disciplines – language of schooling and others – one of its aims being metalinguistic, meta-communicative reflection) and development of cross-cutting competences;
- thinking about the language forms and functions deployed in, and in connection with, the above mediation, interpretation and evaluation activities;
- thinking about the cultural differences reflected in the connotations and wording of concepts, and the difficulty – even impossibility – of translating some of them;
- critical analysis of the ethical/moral motivation of behaviour in one's own and other cultural environments (critical sense of cultural relativity, ability to identify with other cultures);

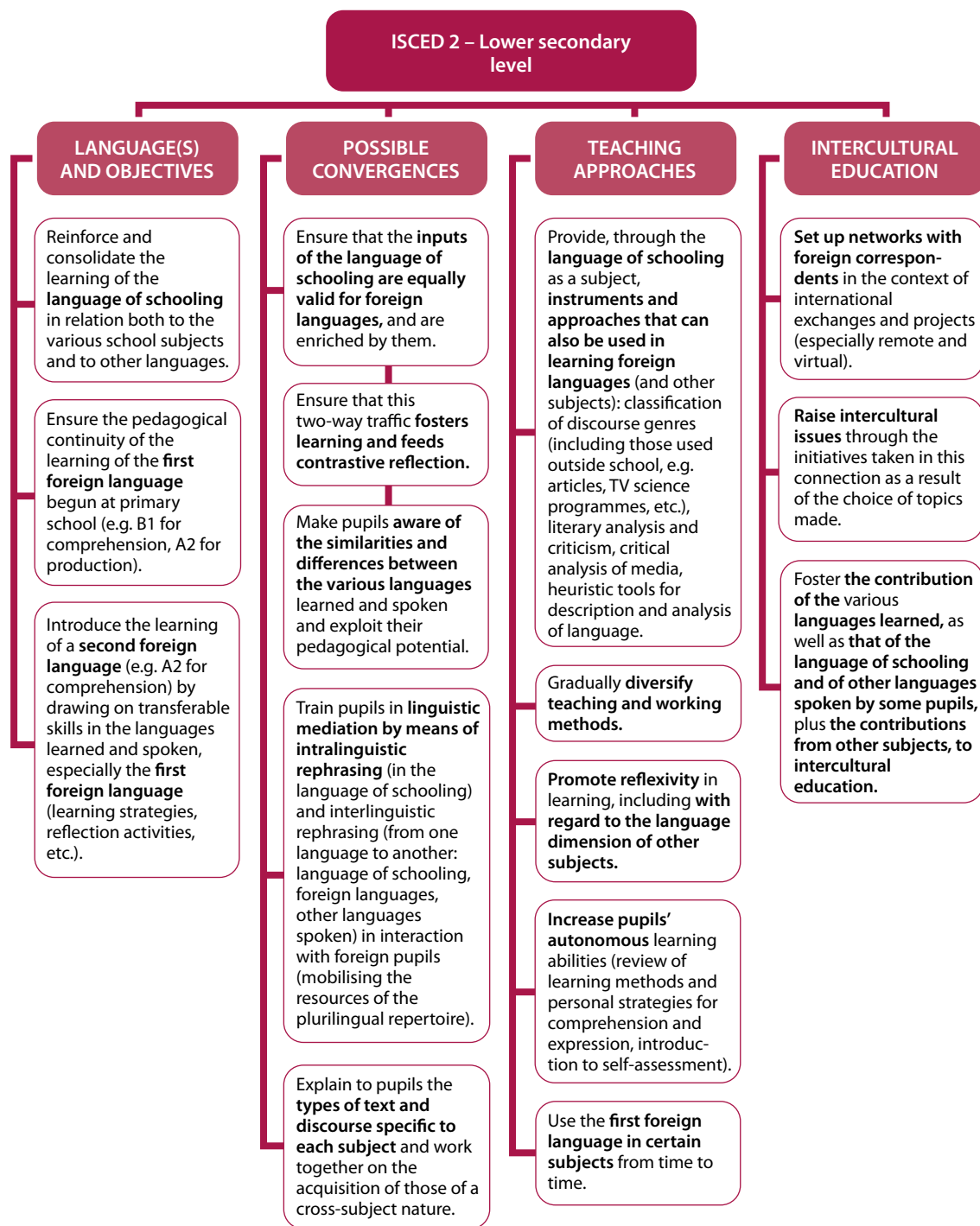
- awareness, partly generated by other disciplines (history, geography, philosophy, law, etc.), of variations in the weight of languages, and of the power relationships which develop between them in communities and, more generally, on the political, economic, cultural and other levels – and also of the factors which determine those relationships.
- c) *Diversification of language learning modes*
- bilingual teaching, and work on multilingual dossiers and aids; documentary research with the help of sources in languages learned at school or known otherwise;
  - enlargement of the learned language repertoire, *inter alia* by learning the classical languages;
  - autonomous learning, for example at a documentation centre, of the rudiments of a foreign language;
  - thinking about the use of various resources (in school and outside) to learn languages and achieve a better command of them;
  - linguistic and cultural study visits (preparation, monitoring, individual and collective records, empirical absorption of cultural data) and/or virtual international exchanges;
  - work experience in firms and/or abroad for vocational students;
  - familiarity with textual genres and communication formats associated with technical operations and with preparing for trades and professions that rely on specific language media (plans, digital simulations, estimates, contracts, etc.); analysis of salient cultural expectations in commercial transactions (status of contracts, etc.).
- d) *Collective projects, activities and operations*
- experience of prepared and structured or improvised debates on topical issues, followed by retrospective evaluation of the discussion, the arguments used, the level of information required, etc.; experience of, and reflection on, culture-specific modes of discussion and argument;
  - external surveys (carried out by small groups, pooling and formatting of findings, collective reflection and evaluation);
  - class newspapers, books of poems, multimedia projects, involving group work, distribution of roles and responsibilities, negotiation and decision making.

Many of the experiences listed for secondary school either do or can involve using several languages or language varieties, exploiting pupils' plurilingual competences and emphasising intercultural activities and observation.

It is also clear that some of these experiences – depending on how they are dealt with pedagogically – help to realise the general goals of education, match the aims of democratic participation and acceptance of difference, and promote both social cohesion and individual responsibility.

### **ISCED Level 2, example of links between curriculum items**

This curriculum proposal focuses on the convergences between the languages taught at school and between languages (especially the language of schooling) and school subjects, as well as on teaching pupils to adopt autonomous learning strategies through contrastive metalinguistic reflexivity.

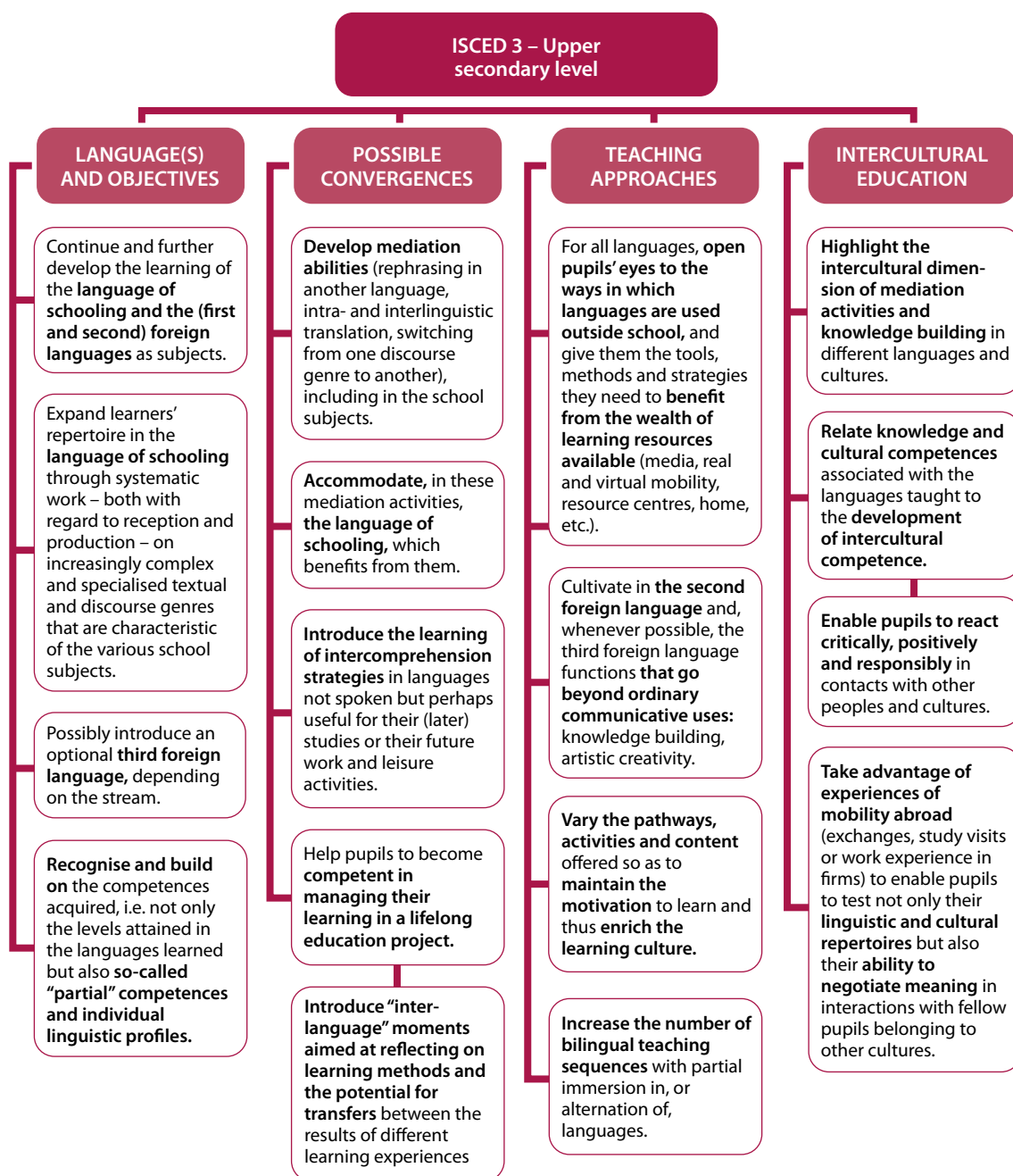


### ISCED Level 3

As a rule, compulsory schooling ends before ISCED 3, where courses are diversified (general education, technical education, commercial education, etc.) in different ways and to differing degrees, depending on national or regional contexts.

The curriculum proposal made here, while strongly emphasising convergences between languages and expansion of the repertoire, focuses more broadly on linguistic practices linked to knowledge building – whether in the language of schooling or in second or foreign languages – and on social language practices outside school.





## Competence profiles and evaluation

By analogy with what was said about ISCED Level 1, it is desirable and legitimate for exit profiles – in terms of plurilingual and intercultural competences – to be defined at the end of ISCED 2 to make it easier to provide learners with subsequent guidance, and at the end of ISCED 3 to certify the competences acquired so as to enable them to embark on higher education or enter the job market. The principles that this assessment can draw on are the same as those mentioned for the end of ISCED 1 (3.1.2). Although the methods and criteria for establishing them are identical, these competence profiles will naturally be adapted to the specific cognitive development of each age group and will be in relation to the learning processes actually completed in the various languages and subjects.

So-called partial competences should also be included in the assessment: in contrast to the monolingual approach which still informs language teaching and ideally targets the native speaker, these are not “inferior” but genuine competences, which may be very extensive, but only in a single area of linguistic activity, and may be of direct use and ready to be employed immediately to meet specific needs, while also forming the basis for subsequent learning and possible further development.

It should be emphasised how important it would be for assessment and certification also to apply to the competences that pupils possess in the language of their home or, in the case of vernacular languages, the reference language.<sup>84</sup> This would add to the cultural and linguistic value of these resources, which have all too often been neglected but could be a useful asset for the entire community in many areas.

### **3.1.4. Vocational education curriculum, short course (ISCED Level 3)**

The curriculum proposal below (3.2), which is still very general, is suitable for application (with corresponding adjustments) to both general and vocational education, but it is important for it to be accompanied by a number of considerations relating to short secondary vocational courses, the curricula of which are, compared with those of the other streams, often characterised by:

- ▶ paying less attention to certain aspects of teaching the language of schooling: this is particularly the case with motivational approaches to reading and literature, although both are necessary parts of lifelong learning, and with the development of oral competences,<sup>85</sup> including those used in discourse genres, both formal (indispensable in adult life) and vocational (useful in future occupations);
- ▶ offering a smaller range of foreign language options and/or assigning fewer hours to them;
- ▶ failing to take adequate account – in the language of schooling or foreign languages(s) – of the language requirements specific to every occupation and essential to exercising it;
- ▶ making a distinction between general subjects (including languages) and vocational subjects, even though linking them might benefit learning in general and, above all, help to establish a genuine vocational culture and, within it, vocational competences;
- ▶ failing to cover various intercultural aspects which, as we have already indicated, are themselves a necessary vocational competence, mobility being one of the things which depend on them.

These tendencies may be seen as symptomatic of a wider problem, rooted in some people's perceptions of vocational training, its intake and its characteristics. It is true that, in some school systems, certain types of vocational training are less a matter of personal choice, based on the learners' talents and ambitions, than a fall-back option, dictated by failure or lower marks at earlier stages in schooling.

The status of language teaching in this area is in some ways paradoxical, since vocational students – although sometimes less well equipped than others – are nonetheless destined to make an earlier entry than their fellow students in other branches into a labour market that is complex, competitive and geared to mobility, and where languages are becoming increasingly important and often essential. Hence the need to teach them more, faster and in more varied ways – particularly in general language education and in teaching specific languages. These shortcomings in language teaching and associated areas also deprive them of aids to personal development and instruments likely to facilitate lifelong learning.

These two dimensions – formative and vocational – of language teaching are inseparable, and vocational students must benefit from teaching and learning approaches that meet their needs in both, and form part of a comprehensive, value-based language education.

## **3.2. DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION**

Developing and implementing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education involve linking subject syllabuses that used to be drawn up separately (languages of schooling, foreign languages, other subjects). This obviously complicates the process. In practical terms, the best approach to introducing a curriculum geared to the goals and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education (1.1) should be one of gradual medium- or long-term development and not break sharply with the existing situation. Looking closely at the existing curriculum is an essential first step if the approach adopted is not "all or nothing" but "little by little".

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84. For example, German could be considered a reference language for Alsatian. In the case of vernacular Arabic, for example, the reference language could be classical Arabic.

85. Indeed, many school curricula can be criticised for failing to pay more attention to spoken language and take full account of its specific discourse genres.

### **3.2.1. The role of the different levels of intervention**

Developing a curriculum involves all levels of the education system (1.2.2). The descending order (from macro to nano) followed in this chapter is dictated by the decisive importance of politically determined values. Our approach may seem to be emphasising decisions taken centrally (for example, at national level, by ministries or directorates of education) – but must definitely not be regarded as the one to be systematically preferred in practice.

Depending on educational traditions, and in accordance with current trends towards decentralised decision making and organisation based on the principles of participatory democracy, systems, if not entirely grassroots-based, should at least – on the strength of schools' experience of autonomy – favour the sharing of responsibilities and co-drafting of the curriculum in consultation with and between "field operatives".

Decision making may also be shared between levels: for example, decisions on general policy and evaluation of results may be taken by governments, curriculum scenarios (3.8) may be chosen by infra-state<sup>86</sup> entities, and methods and content may be determined by schools. Alternatively, decision making may be shared in any other way that matches the structure of the education system. Depending on its own administrative structure and on how it apportions decision making, each state or region will have to determine the levels on which decisions are taken – and ensure that the latter are consistent.

### **3.2.2. Role of the various players in implementation of the plurilingual and intercultural curriculum**

Perhaps more than others, and particularly since it sets out to link subjects, a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum depends for its success on numerous supporting measures. In order to ensure maximum consistency, the ideal approach would be:

- ▶ to tell all the players, together and without distinction, what the changes are meant to achieve and how they will be organised and implemented;
- ▶ to ensure consistency of education policy decisions within years and across subjects (horizontal consistency), within each stage of schooling (vertical or longitudinal consistency), and between general and specific aims, approaches, teaching aids and examinations/qualifications (overall curricular consistency);
- ▶ to back the changes with scientific research, for example action-research projects in which teachers are actively involved, networking of research bodies and schools;
- ▶ to train national and regional managers, head teachers and other intermediaries;
- ▶ to adapt resource centres, language laboratories, etc. to the project;
- ▶ to make civil society and the immediate community aware of it;
- ▶ to survey locally available resources that might be tapped;
- ▶ to ensure communication and co-ordination between educational decision makers, civil society and the local and regional community: language teachers, teachers of other subjects, parents of pupils and local authorities. Co-ordination must exist between all the players in every subject area, and between subjects, in every year and at every stage of schooling.

Training for all teachers remains the crucial factor: training for teachers in general with substantive work on their perceptions of plurilingual repertoires and interculturality, training with regard to knowledge of plurilingual acquisition processes and corresponding didactic options, and training involving each subject area and focusing on co-operative activities (2.11).

The aim would be to develop a school-level language policy and an ethos favourable to this type of plurilingual education, which demands across-the-board co-operation. It is true that the complexity of the operation may seem off-putting since many conditions must be fulfilled, but it would clearly be a mistake not to start reorganising a curriculum until all those conditions have been met. In fact, if the aim is gradually shared, it can be realised in a wide variety of ways. The networking of all players (and not just teachers) is therefore crucial. There are a number of projects and experiments concerning the development of a school-level language policy. The following is one example.

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<sup>86</sup>. For the sake of succinctness, the superordinate term "region" will be used from now on.

## Plurilingual whole school curricula project<sup>87</sup>

The aim of this project, which is being carried out under the auspices of the Council of Europe's European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML), is to pilot and assess the concept of a plurilingual, inclusive and intercultural whole school policy covering majority and minority, regional, heritage and neighbouring languages. The whole school policy is conceived in such a way that languages taught as specific subjects are not dealt with in isolation but are integrated into the teaching of other subjects so that all subject teaching is also language teaching. This consistent implementation of the teaching of individual subjects by integrating a language (or languages) will be transferable to all "non-language" content lessons. The languages to be used will be those already present at a given school. The aim of this policy is to decompartmentalise subjects and overcome the barriers of age-group divisions. Learners of all ages work in appropriate groups on broad topics, such as "blood", "currency" or "nature", from various angles and perspectives using the languages at their disposal. The plurilingual learning approach also means that students are given insights into the structure of languages, study possibilities of positive transfer and interaction between the languages they use, train productive and receptive skills, and develop metalinguistic and cross-linguistic awareness, as well as language learning strategies and strategies of language use (based on the abstract at the project website: [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at)). For further information (in German), visit the dedicated page at the Goethe Institute website.

### 3.2.3. Stages in developing a curriculum

Building a curriculum is one of the general processes involved in planning education. It comprises a number of stages which are theoretically distinct, each with its own special role, and each determined by its own set of options and decisions. Depending on how responsibilities are shared, these choices are made by the school (meso level) and/or the national/regional level (macro). In the case of language teaching, these stages are:

- ▶ defining the educational aims of language teaching (1.1): what types of plurilingual repertoire are aimed at? How can language choice be diversified in practice? How can learners be made autonomous? How will the aims defined at the macro level be translated into action and implemented with reference to an actual sociolinguistic context and learners' language needs?
- ▶ identifying the sociolinguistic context and the educational culture: what languages are present or spoken in the area concerned? What is their status? (3.3 and Appendices I and II) What are the characteristics of the educational culture in that area?
- ▶ analysing language needs. Here, a distinction must be made between needs in the language of schooling and needs in other languages. In the language of schooling, language needs must be linked to other specific aims (thinking about language, approaching literature, creative writing, etc.); when it is used in studying other subjects, language needs match expectations and requirements in those subjects (3.3 and Appendices I and II). It is also important to think about lessons for specific groups: new arrivals, learners in economically depressed areas, learners whose first language is a regional/minority or migration language or a variant of the language of schooling and who have only a modest command of the latter (3.7). An approach based on language needs in foreign languages – linked specifically to certain areas – may be less useful with younger children, whose educational and vocational pathways are still undetermined, than with older pupils or students;
- ▶ surveying resources available for teaching/learning (reference materials, aids devised for identical or comparable target groups, etc., linguistic analysis of the relevant discourse genres, etc.); teachers' plurilingual competences, support profiles (mediators, etc.), possible co-operation;
- ▶ profiling specific aims on the path to realisation of general educational aims: definition of the (linguistic, intercultural) competences and levels aimed at in each language activity (2.1);
- ▶ designing curriculum scenarios that enable the teaching of different languages to be co-ordinated throughout schooling: which foreign language is taught first (at what age, for how many hours)? What links must/can be made with the teaching of the language of schooling? When is teaching of a regional/minority and/or migration language introduced? (3.7);
- ▶ identifying the content and teaching methodology in language teaching and "non-language" courses, such as history and the biological sciences (Chapter 2);
- ▶ preparing teaching plans that take account of constraints in terms of time, resources and rooms available (teaching hours available, number of learners per group, and technical resources, for example textbooks,

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87. Plurilingual Whole School Curricula project (PlurCur), ECML (Graz), which focuses on the meso level.

teaching aids, space and premises [components 4 to 7 of the curriculum, cf. 1.2.3]); specifying teaching methods, types of classroom activity, fields, communication situations, discourse genres covered by lessons, and types of learning sequence and teaching module, and outlining the linear distribution of lesson content (3.5);

- ▶ training teachers to teach the curriculum (2.11). In particular, decompartmentalisation of languages makes it vital to give teachers (of languages of schooling, and classical, foreign, regional/minority and migration languages, as well as other subjects) training in various types of co-operation, technique sharing, interdisciplinary projects and evaluation that also takes account of the learners' repertoire as a resource to be exploited (2.10);
- ▶ determining the cost of this type of education (real cost in teaching posts, etc.) and its immediate benefits (for example, effectiveness) and long-term benefits (for example, social cohesion);
- ▶ assessing learners' progress and monitoring the quality of course implementation (implementation of assessment mechanisms consistent with other curriculum components, procedures for testing and certifying the levels attained by pupils in the various languages and subjects in the curriculum, assessment and monitoring of these mechanisms by the state or region or by schools) (2.10).

### 3.3. ANALYSING LEARNERS' NEEDS IN THEIR SOCIOLINGUISTIC AND EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

As the Council of Europe sees it, curricula are drawn up on the basis of certain principles and values, but without ignoring the situations in which they will be operating – situations essentially reflected in the data available on learners' sociolinguistic context. Regular analyses of these situations provide a practical basis for decision making.<sup>88</sup>

The data (both quantitative and qualitative) that help to provide a picture of the sociolinguistic context usually cover:

- ▶ the language varieties present in the area: national, regional, minority and migration languages; languages and sociolinguistic varieties (particularly of the national language or regional language/language of schooling) used by pupils at home and in their immediate circle; languages of nearby frontier regions, languages accessible via the media;
- ▶ the views of learners, teachers, other school system players (including school principals) and families on languages (usefulness, ease of learning, aesthetic qualities, prestige value, path to modernity, prosperity, etc.) and plurilingualism (perceptions of native competence, bilingualism, language diversity, etc.);
- ▶ national/regional/local language requirements for economic and development purposes, and for relations with neighbouring countries – requirements that do not necessarily coincide with the real or perceived needs of individuals, and should not be equated with them;
- ▶ language provision in schools (assessed on existing curricula) and on the commercial market. Language tuition provided by schools must be weighed against that available from private language schools or associations, the aim being to prevent over-provision or duplication (parallel courses: school in the morning, private tuition in the afternoon) and ensure, for example, that language proficiency (particularly in foreign languages) does not determine a person's social worth.

The state and nature of the education system also need to be described. The "school culture" of a country, region or district is shaped by its philosophy of education and teaching traditions, and by behavioural habits which determine how the life of schools is organised. In didactic terms, it is also shaped by officially sanctioned or preferred approaches to teaching, and by perceptions of the teacher's and the learner's role. It has certain linguistic dimensions, for example the discourse genres current in the communication community, expected verbal behaviour, and that community's natural metalanguage. Familiarity with the system's existing features is vital, particularly when new principles are being implemented and approaches that have so far been rarely adopted in the education system concerned are adapted for use in it.

The purpose of looking at all these factors is to form a clearer picture of the language requirements of the community, and the expectations, wishes and needs of individuals. They provide invaluable pointers to taking clear-sighted action. This is not to say, however, that these needs or traditions should dictate the design of the curriculum. The educational responsibilities of schools must remain paramount.

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88. See the *CEFR Guide for users*, [www.coe.int/lang-CEFR](http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR); *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*, Main version, 6.2.1 and 6.9, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

Profiling contexts in this way involves extensive research (cf. Appendix I), which is often long and costly and which education systems are rarely keen to undertake. However, one can rely – at least partly – on existing research. Schools can also collect certain data when enrolling pupils, which helps to keep them in touch with the various players: parents, learners, local policy makers, industrial and labour market representatives, etc. (cf. Appendix II). These data are intended to pave the way for realistic curriculum choices.

### 3.4. ESTABLISHING OBJECTIVES IN A CROSS-CUTTING APPROACH

The central element in plurilingual and intercultural education is, on the one hand, establishing cross-cutting links between languages taught as subjects and, on the other, establishing these links between the teaching of these languages and that of other subjects. As pointed out above (1.3 and 1.4), and in line with the CEFR, language learning objectives should be seen in terms of the plurilingual and intercultural competence that education systems are responsible for developing. A plural linguistic and cultural repertoire comprises the majority or official language(s) of schooling (and any varieties of them), regional and minority or migration languages, modern or classical languages and every language variety spoken in the home.

Specific aims spell out the general aims described in Chapter 1, breaking them down into more precise goals that take due account of the education system's possibilities.<sup>89</sup> At the halfway mark between relatively abstract general aims and the operational content of classroom activities, this is a particularly sensitive stage in the process, and needs to be tackled with the greatest care.

In the plurilingual and cross-cutting approach the questions arise as to:

- ▶ the extent to which aims can, at least partially, be defined using identical categories or comparable activities (for example, strategies for understanding written texts, strategies for improvising non-interactive oral texts, reflective approaches to the observation and analysis of linguistic phenomena in sentence or discourse contexts);
- ▶ the extent to which transferable intercultural competences are consistently developed in different language lessons and lessons in other subjects;
- ▶ how these lessons can incorporate activities or tasks that involve using other curriculum languages, and particularly activities that involve comparing or contrasting.

Defining specific aims presupposes that:

- ▶ the language(s) of schooling have been chosen deliberately, and not simply on the strength of tradition;
- ▶ explicit aims have been assigned to the teaching of the language of schooling, even though these may be very diverse, since “language as a subject” is defined very differently in different educational cultures;
- ▶ the foreign languages that are going to be taught, and their order of appearance on the curriculum, have been decided;
- ▶ the languages that are going to be used in teaching certain subjects have also been selected;
- ▶ depending on the case, the regional/minority or migration languages taught have been identified, and their classroom status – optional or not, separate subject or medium of instruction for others – has been decided.

When putting a curriculum together, it is important to anticipate certain effects, not necessarily intended, that it may produce, and to ask the following questions.

- ▶ Will these lessons genuinely help to expand individual repertoires, or will they lead to downgrading of some of the languages or language varieties present in those repertoires?
- ▶ Does the curriculum really give learners a wider choice of foreign languages? Based on what criteria should a language be made compulsory? Should it be taught throughout the curriculum?
- ▶ How and with what activities can language lessons be made to serve the aims of intercultural education? How and with what activities do other subjects contribute to intercultural education?
- ▶ How can we ensure that intensive foreign language teaching (for example, in so-called bilingual classes) does not lead to streaming of “outstanding” pupils, the chief beneficiaries being those from educationally privileged backgrounds?

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89. *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*, Executive version 6.2, and *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe*, Main version 6.9, [www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Policy instruments.

- ▶ How can it be guaranteed that the linguistic dimensions of other subjects are duly taken into account?
- ▶ What conditions must be fulfilled for the teaching of certain subjects in other languages (foreign, regional, minority, migration) to produce both cognitive and linguistic benefits for learners?

The CEFR descriptors can obviously be used to define target competences in foreign languages. In the language of schooling, these will vary with levels of schooling and the needs of certain groups. In general, “levels” should be dropped in favour of “competence profiles”, which provide a more accurate picture of learners’ actual competences in their languages. A single document should be prepared in each context, laying down an integrated competence profile for all languages, while emphasising the special role of each, including for the intercultural dimension, learning strategies and mediation (Chapter 2).

Depending on languages and streams, the competence profiles aimed at and eligible for certification may differ to a greater or lesser degree, not only in terms of communication skills (development of so-called partial or privileged competences, written or oral, receptive or productive, in various spheres of social activity, etc.), but also in terms of other dimensions (communication and learning strategies, mediation, cultural knowledge, intercultural competences, literary analysis) that can be assessed according to criteria other than reference levels like those of the CEFR. When aims differ, the content of activities for learners, and the approaches used in them, will obviously differ as well.

### 3.5. SPECIFYING CONTENT IN A CROSS-CUTTING APPROACH

Teaching content is considered in this Guide in terms of the ways in which it interrelates between subjects. Four elements are emphasised.

- ▶ Where foreign-language competences are concerned, the CEFR typology (general competences and communicative language competences) and the typology for language communication activities can together serve as a starting point. For the language of schooling taught as a subject, it is worth adding to this typology the proposals contained in the “Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education”<sup>90</sup> (and other proposals) with regard to literary texts and the identity-building functions of languages. As concerns the dimension cutting across other subjects in the language of schooling, for which the requirements far exceed the needs of ordinary interpersonal communication, consideration of the language competences involved should be based extensively on the proposals contained in the Platform and in the Handbook on “The language dimension in all subjects”. The discussion of this aspect also takes account of the language dimensions of cross-subject learning strategies (2.2, 2.3, 2.4 and 2.6), and of mediation (2.7).
- ▶ Textual genres are one possible link between subjects. A person’s discourse repertoire comprises the genres which he or she can deploy in one or more languages, to varying degrees and for various purposes, at a given moment. The communicative profile aimed at in language teaching must include all the genres that a learner is expected to be capable of using for reception and/or production in verbal communication (2.8).
- ▶ Another point of contact between subjects is thinking about language, the aim being to objectivise learners’ intuitions regarding the ways in which languages work, and particularly to generate awareness of the ways in which languages and discourse genres vary, and the significance of their doing so (2.5).
- ▶ In intercultural education, the sharing of teaching content is not necessarily limited to language teaching. Such content covers knowledge, the ability to understand, the ability to learn/do and, above all, a critical cultural awareness (the ability to assess, critically and applying explicit criteria, the viewpoints, practices and products of a previously unfamiliar social group, and of the social groups to which one belongs oneself) (2.9).

The importance attached to cross-cutting links between subjects in no way implies that the place and role of specific school subjects are being challenged. The intention is, rather, to organise them in cohesive activity groups, and even introduce new subjects (for example, language awareness, particularly at pre-primary and primary level). Another aim is to build curricula around types of activity that promote exchange between teachers, teachers and learners, and learners – and encourage learners not to restrict themselves to certain languages, as too often happens.

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90. See [www.coe.int/lang-platform/](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform/).

### 3.6. VARIABLE METHODS OF ORGANISATION (IN TERMS OF TIME)

It must be stressed that consistency does not mean standardising approaches, working methods or the times at which various aspects are dealt with. Various course components can be organised in different ways, for example:

- ▶ Temporal formats: it has often been said that the standard division of language lessons into several hours a week is not the only one conceivable, and that – total hours remaining constant – more intensive phases could be introduced, followed or preceded by lighter ones. Flexible arrangements of this kind already exist for other subjects (for example, for field surveys and data collection, pluridisciplinary projects and so on).
- ▶ Globalisation of language hours: it has often also been suggested that the total hours devoted by schools to languages as subjects – languages of schooling, foreign, regional and other languages – should be managed flexibly. In principle, globalisation/sharing of this kind should make it possible to adjust, over time and in accordance with didactic options and priorities, the division of hours between languages, and also schedule periods when all learners would come together for activities of general interest and cross-cutting scope.
- ▶ Modules: whether or not the division of hours is varied, the idea of modules devoted to specific (sub-) aims, and involving one or more languages simultaneously is worth considering. Possibilities include: an essentially cultural module within a more general syllabus; a multi-language module devoted to reviewing ways and styles of learning; a module on access to network resources or media analysis in a foreign language, using tools partly developed in the language of schooling; or a module on intercomprehension strategies for closely and less closely related languages.
- ▶ Parallel or staggered learning of different languages: two languages that work in similar ways and effectively share certain lexical elements – or are, on the contrary, very dissimilar – can, if learned in parallel, prompt comparative questions that enrich both learning processes. In a different way, and provided that learners and teachers both take advantage of it, languages studied at an interval have the potential to mobilise acquired knowledge and competences (linguistic, didactic, cultural, strategic) in a manner which enriches learning, not only of the new language, but also of the first one.
- ▶ Perspective adjustments and pauses: learning of the first foreign language introduced in ISCED 1 (or even 0) may be suspended at the end of ISCED 2, unless it is partly used in teaching other subjects (CLIL/EMILE) in ISCED 3. The hours “gained” in this way can then be devoted to learning a third foreign language or improving the second. A third foreign language can also be introduced, or the first or second improved, by using various forms of assisted self-instruction, with or without learning aids, at a resource and documentation centre.
- ▶ Speeding up or slowing down learning progress: the teaching of the second (or even third) foreign language should not follow the same type of approach and speed of learning progress as the first depending on the order in which these languages are learned and the extent to which these languages are close to or remote from those of the learner’s repertoire (2.6.5). The systematic and explicit harnessing of resources present in this repertoire should constitute one of the major features of these new learning processes.

All these approaches feed into a dynamic process which might be seen as a structuring element in a curriculum: compiling a first plurilingual portfolio, exploiting locally available resources, developing a learning culture.

There is no need to emphasise that these various schemes, which chiefly concern timetable adjustments, time use and ways of proceeding, all depend, to varying degrees, not only on close co-operation between language teachers, but also on involvement, direct or less direct, of other-subject teachers and school principals.

### 3.7. ADOPTING DIFFERENT APPROACHES ACCORDING TO TARGET GROUPS AND SITUATIONS

Isolating certain groups of school attenders, and suggesting that their education rights differ from, or are greater than, those of other groups, is inevitably problematical. So-called positive discrimination is not always well regarded or accepted. However, schools have a duty to allow for certain inequalities or special circumstances – environment, origin, living conditions or other handicaps – that make it harder for some pupils to complete their schooling successfully.

As far as curriculum matters are concerned, we shall consider two different groups: pupils from migration backgrounds and/or pupils who do not belong to the middle or well-off classes and whose language practices



at home generally do not provide them with the grounding that well-off families may give their children and on which “academic” language is based.<sup>91</sup>

### **3.7.1. Young people from low-income sociocultural backgrounds**

Young people from low-income backgrounds or the working classes are often described, wrongly, as suffering from a communication “handicap” and having minimal language resources, which are limited to informal contact with peers and the daily routines of family life. In fact, their repertoires are wide-ranging, and exposure to the media helps to diversify them. The language problems they do have are primarily due to the discrepancy between their own daily interactive practice and the genres and norms which schools tend to use and put in place and which depend more on competences bound up with the written culture emphasised at school (2.5 and 2.5.3).<sup>92</sup> These young people’s families and ordinary environment may do less than those of others to foster literacy experiences and practices largely consistent with those encountered in schools (importance attached to books and the press, emphasis on continuous reading of long texts, discussion/interpretation of things read, and not just instant, snap reactions to things seen and heard). They may also do less in terms of ongoing, varied and articulate spoken-word experiences and practices (explaining, recounting, arguing, discussing, commenting, etc.). Care must therefore be taken, for example, to ensure that, from pre-primary school (ISCED 0) on, there are times when these children listen while texts – stories, fairy-tales or real-life pieces on subjects that interest them – are read to them, and they are taught to put their emotions, feelings and experiences into words. Emphasis should also be laid on the school’s role in guiding parents with regard to the language education provided in the family, including the family “language policy”.<sup>93</sup> Giving parents information on the approaches adopted in the curriculum and on their direct involvement, including in class activities, can also play a part in bringing families closer to the school, which some of them may feel to be remote or even downright hostile.

#### **ECML project: involving parents in plurilingual and intercultural education (IPPIE)**

The aim of this project is to disseminate knowledge about the benefits of plurilingual and intercultural education carried out in partnership with parents. These benefits come from learning languages and the development of positive attitudes to otherness, which are necessary for the more harmonious development of individuals and society. The dissemination of knowledge acquired on such approaches will help overcome fears about involving parents in school activities. Descriptions of plurilingual and intercultural activities will be provided to make tools available to parents and teachers that will help them work together on plurilingual and intercultural education at the heart of the European project on the dialogue of languages and cultures (see [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at)).

Similarly, there is no reason to assume that special and remedial coaching of these children in schools has to focus on the “basics” (elementary grammar and spelling, systematic learning of vocabulary). As with all language users, reading and examining texts, conducting a detailed analysis of their linguistic components and the meanings they convey, and using the written and spoken word in various ways, individually and/or collectively, will also develop, modify and refine their linguistic abilities.

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91. A concept paper on “The linguistic integration of children and adolescents from migrant backgrounds” and a number of specific studies on children of migrants have already been prepared, containing a whole series of references and practical indications (many of which can also be applied to children from underprivileged backgrounds). Here, therefore, we need consider only the curriculum aspects. See [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) of schooling.

92. There is another possible discrepancy, which is essentially rooted in the anthropology of knowledge acquisition at school but which applies both to children from underprivileged backgrounds and to migrants, and has language dimensions: their ambivalent relationship with knowledge acquired at school, which they may perceive as alien and remote from the knowledge they acquire in their more immediate environment – and may experience as driving a wedge between them and their family, community and culture. This may lead them to reject it psychologically, which is one reason for failure at school. Curricula and teaching methods must accordingly take account of their “primary” knowledge. The aim is also to avoid any stigmatisation of primary knowledge and the family language, which schools are duty-bound to take into account and develop without making any value judgments – an extremely delicate task that requires considerable sensitivity and a nuanced approach by teachers to variation and norms (3.5).

93. When primary schooling for children from underprivileged backgrounds is the issue, the initial emphasis is sometimes placed on activities that stimulate spontaneous, spur-of-the-moment oral production, but it may also be worth stressing the importance of listening attentively over a period of time and gradually becoming familiar with modes that rely on discursive memory and trigger processes of comprehension and analysis (themselves initially based on textual pointers and elements) and “detach” hearers from their immediate context. This helps them to develop new oral competences, which are an integral and vital part of school learning and later connect indirectly (via reformulation, interpretation, evaluation) with this approach to the reception of other texts.

Activities of this kind are not automatically useful, however, and have meaning and are helpful for these children only if their own repertoires are taken into account and made to contribute. This means that when the curriculum is being planned, special attention must be paid to the relationship between variation and norms and to the inherent diversity of language systems, as much as to formal regulation of their social uses (2.5).

### **3.7.2. Diversity of children from migrant backgrounds**

As far as the curriculum is concerned, the fact that children from migrant backgrounds are not a homogeneous group reduces their “special case” status even further. Children of migrants have different geographical and cultural origins, and the educational culture of their home countries may be like or unlike that of the country of immigration. Similarly, the languages and language varieties they use at home vary in terms of their proximity to the immigration country’s language of schooling, and in terms of the extent to which they are recognised, standardised, taught, etc.

The status of migrant families may vary considerably. Migrants from EU countries are not in the same position as, for example, illegal immigrants from an African country who have not been “regularised”, or children whose parents were immigrants but themselves have the nationality of the host country or dual nationality.<sup>94</sup> Relationships with school, and modes and degrees of community and family literacy, may also vary considerably depending on immigrant families’ cultural origins and religious practices. Families also differ in terms of the extent to which they wish to preserve and transmit their language and cultural practices, and the association-based initiatives often bound up with them also vary greatly from one group to another.

Children of newly arrived migrants may be admitted to schooling on different levels, depending on their age, and may or may not have been attending school regularly in their home country. Sending them to school and the choice of the family’s language policy also depend on whether the family is planning to stay for a short time only and then return to the home country, possibly even for reasons connected with the children’s further schooling.

The geographical grouping of immigrant communities, especially in urban areas, varies considerably. Some districts have relatively homogeneous enclaves of immigrants with the same origin and background, while others have a high immigrant population whose geographical and cultural origins vary greatly. In others again, immigrant and native communities cohabit in varying proportions. These differences affect the multilingual panorama and plurilingual practices in ways determined by language similarities and contacts, as well as by relations between the various groups. This diversity of local situations is particularly evident in schools, where the languages present vary greatly in number and type, but which are – potentially and actually – ideal places for inter-language contacts and intercultural relationships. However, it must not be forgotten that, thanks to modern technologies, many different types of exchange with home countries or countries that use the same language are now possible, allowing families and communities, if they so wish, to keep in touch with some of the linguistic and cultural diversity of their home countries.

In terms of language experience and practices, the situation of schoolchildren from immigrant backgrounds is thus far more diverse and complex than that of young “natives” from low-income socio-economic backgrounds, even though the latter may also be in active contact with immigrants.

A point that is frequently stressed is that, far from being marginal, the present situation of migrants’ children reflects a trend – increasing heterogeneity and mobility of school communities – which most school systems in Europe are having to accommodate (dealing with mobility, and preparing pupils for various forms of it).

Seen from this angle, quality education and its language components now require for all schoolchildren in contemporary European societies, whether recent immigrants or not, two kinds of education that seem, at first sight, an unlikely, if not positively contradictory, pairing.

Firstly, an education that equips them to succeed at school and prepares them to become autonomous, responsible and active members of a given community. A full command of the official majority language – both in its school norms and genres, and in its varieties and social usages – is obviously crucial for this purpose.

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94. There can be no ignoring the situation of the Roma, which differs from that of “ordinary” migrants. Now sedentary (though not usually well-integrated, if at all) in some European countries, they remain (or again become) nomadic in others (or the same ones). In spite of national, and above all international, campaigns aimed at improving their condition, e.g. by providing schooling for their children, they are generally rejected and excluded. Still haphazard in most cases, schooling initiatives face problems, due not only (as one hears, perhaps, too often) to lifestyles, cultural traditions and patterns of knowledge transmission that are partly or wholly at odds with normal school practice, but also to the social ostracism which Roma suffer, and the fact that many schools treat their children as if they were disabled or backward.

Secondly, an education that prepares them to be mobile, operate across borders and move to other cultural and language environments, and also respects, and helps to preserve, the outside elements that mobility brings into the school. Tensions between the two are possible, and it is clear that various forms of plurilingual and intercultural education hold the only key, not to eliminating but to managing both effectively and using them positively.

The general need of plurilingual and intercultural education applies to all school-attending groups. It breaks down into more specific rights, which may not always be compatible, and whose exercise depends on language teaching policies, which also vary between contexts. Because it is cross-cutting in principle, and variously applied in practice, plurilingual and intercultural education is neither restricted to specific learner groups nor rigid in its methods. This is why it is described in this chapter in terms of learning experiences to which young people at school should be exposed, and in which they should participate.

### **3.7.3. Specific measures**

Curricula themselves may have to include special measures for particularly vulnerable groups, but these should never, except for the briefest transitional period, involve:

- ▶ isolation, compartmentalisation, special streams or separate classes, although these solutions are frequently adopted for various reasons (where pupils live, purpose of schooling, etc.);
- ▶ reduced syllabuses which, by sticking to the supposed “basics”, permanently deprive these pupils of competences, knowledge and windows on the world available to others;
- ▶ disregarding, as too often happens, the resources already present in their linguistic and cultural repertoires.

Special measures cover resources that the school system may make available to schools and teachers: staff, equipment, extra hours, more support and personal attention for pupils, additional qualifications and training for teachers, networking of schools and pooling of innovations. These are clearly crucial initiatives, and we need not insist on them here. The only point that needs making is that they must be matched flexibly to contexts, often extend to the surrounding community, be linked with urban or local policy, and avoid singling out schools in any way that might stigmatise them or their pupils.

When curricula are being planned, it is especially (but not exclusively) important for migrants’ children and young people from working class backgrounds that:

- ▶ the various competences, textual genres, communication formats and linguistic norms required for specific subjects, at specific stages in the course and in specific contexts, are clearly and precisely indicated;
- ▶ cross-linking factors between these subjects, in accordance with the various categories referred to above, are emphasised in order to ensure that this “functional” aspect of education produces economies of scale, and does not lead, cumulatively, to waste, extra costs or repeated penalisation;<sup>95</sup>
- ▶ teachers and pupils are aware of the language dimensions of any subject studied – with a view not just to speaking and writing correctly, and managing communication in the class, but also to successful knowledge building and competence acquisition;
- ▶ schools ensure that the means of learning, developing and asserting themselves as social agents, *inter alia*, by extending and refining their language repertoire and competences, are available to all learner groups;
- ▶ young people from migrant backgrounds are given the opportunity to learn (introduction, maintenance, development) their so-called language of origin. This is one aspect of a right that covers a number of aspects in practice: maintenance of family ties, contacts with and possibility of returning to the country of origin, assets for a future occupation. In the case of children for whom this is their first language, there are also psycho-linguistic arguments relating to the interdependence of the level of development of the first language and the acquisition of a second.

Where this final point is concerned, situations vary so widely that it is both hard and unwise to say or recommend anything more definite concerning the treatment of home languages in schools. However, the minimum cross-cutting principles that apply in all cases are that these languages must not simply be ignored by schools or even considered a barrier to success for children who speak them but, quite the contrary, something schools

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95. It would, for example, be wasteful to insist that data tables or semiotic visualisations that apply to several subjects must be separately processed for each (although elements specific to one of them must be emphasised). As for penalties, there must be many cases where the same language failing (e.g. in spelling or syntax) attracts bad marks in several subjects, thus multiplying the “disciplinary” sanction and increasing the risk that some pupils will fail.

can use to good effect in educating all pupils. There are currently numerous educational approaches that enable the languages of pupils' repertoires to be drawn on to acquire skills in other languages, for example contrastive analysis, intercomprehension, reflection on the diversity of languages and of cultures (2.6), activities involving the formulation of statements in the language of origin and guided and aided reformulation (by peers or mediators) in the language of schooling (translanguaging). This type of activity can be carried out either on an ad hoc basis or systematically both in the normal classroom or in temporary induction classes (Appendix VI). The maintenance and subsequent development of languages of initial repertoires can also be assured through formal lessons during school time or outside, through partially bilingual teaching or, indeed, double immersion classes, which would also involve non-immigrant children. This type of initiative requires the strong support and motivation of pupils' parents (whether immigrants or not) whose mobilisation is the school's responsibility.

Quite clearly, the plans of children from migrant backgrounds for their own future lives and personal development cannot be prejudged. However, although the first duty of schools is to ensure their inclusion and help them adjust to school and community life in the host country, they must also ensure that the price of achieving this is not sudden, total severance from their first environment.

A secondary benefit for the host society – but also an important one – would ultimately be the availability of very diverse linguistic (and cultural) competences, which would help to foster both social cohesion and economic development.

### **MARILLE project (Majority Language Instruction as a Basis for Plurilingual Education), ECML**

This ECML project targets teachers of the language of schooling, who are invited to make use of pupils' repertoires (especially at secondary level), develop them in class and turn them into an asset for all the pupils. In this way, the language of schooling contributes to plurilingual and intercultural education in an approach that is at the same time inclusive, decompartmentalised and interdisciplinary and, above all, a learning experience.

A downloadable methodological handbook, *Promoting plurilingualism – Majority language in multilingual settings* (also available in German), describes:

- ▶ the project and its aims with reference to the principles set out in the "Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education";
- ▶ the objectives and values pursued through the promotion of plurilingualism in classes in the language of schooling; the knowledge, capacities for understanding and skills to be developed in pupils, and those that should be developed by teachers at the same time; the strategies to be pursued in the school to encourage the desired change in the direction of plurilingualism;
- ▶ five examples of classroom activities that illustrate in practical terms the implementation of some project objectives;
- ▶ three checklists for teachers, trainers and school principals to guide their thinking on the promotion of plurilingualism with regard to these different roles;
- ▶ a glossary of key terms and a bibliography with references and a list of further reading.

The project website offers other resources, examples of practices and class videos.

## **3.8. CURRICULUM SCENARIOS**

The curriculum scenario approach was suggested by the CEFR (Chapter 8) to facilitate decision making on directions that curricula might follow. It can be used to project learning aims and space them out in time and to plan possibly diversified school careers, with reference to specific educational aims that determine educational projects and profiles for pupils as future adults and European citizens.

The "curriculum scenario"<sup>96</sup> is a way of simulating, overall and in broad outline, conceivable adjustments in the school curriculum for each of the languages taught, the relationships between them and links with other school subjects. Each scenario seeks to link a choice of aims for the school system with a way of organising the curriculum that is calculated to realise them. Each scenario accordingly:

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96. The CEFR itself uses the term "scenario" but gives no exact definition of "curriculum scenario" or the distinctive features of that concept, leaving readers to infer them from the ideas and, above all, examples of actual scenarios put forward in the text.

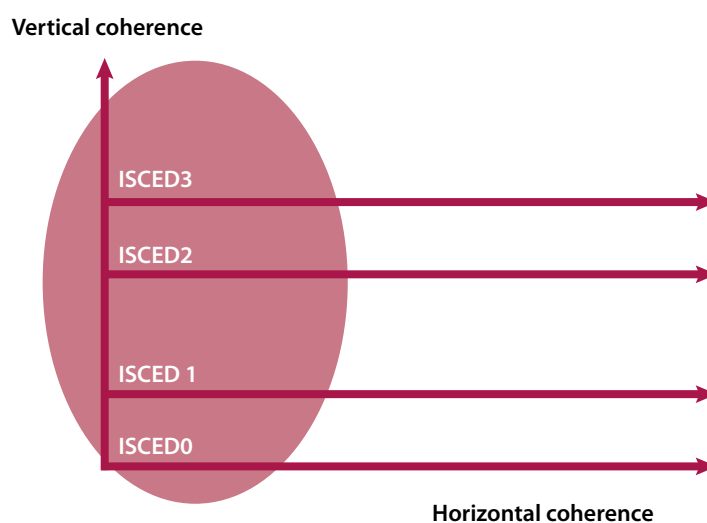
- ▶ focuses on the overarching aim which, in this case, is plurilingual and intercultural education;
- ▶ takes account of other educational aims relevant for a specific context (international/European/national/regional or local/school);
- ▶ is based on a thorough knowledge of the sociolinguistic characteristics of this context and its language requirements;
- ▶ covers approaches to organisation and implementation that may be highly diverse from one scenario to another.

### **3.8.1. Curriculum scenarios and curriculum coherence**

A curriculum scenario is, in other words, both an instrument and an advance organiser, which can be used, before anything is actually done, to simulate the operation of curricula that link longitudinal and horizontal coherence.

The purpose of these simulations is thus to select, from the various possible ways of organising a curriculum, the one that matches – most accurately and, when necessary, economically – the specific requirements and possibilities of a given context.

The curriculum scenario contributes to efficient curriculum management (1.4.3) by giving the curriculum two kinds of coherence (cf. Figure 1 below): vertical (or longitudinal) coherence throughout the learning process, transcending the various levels of the education system, particularly at national and regional (macro) level, and horizontal coherence between languages (language of schooling and foreign, regional, minority, migration and classical languages) and between languages and other subjects, which is vital when decisions are being taken on the methods, materials and co-operation needed in schools (meso level) and, in an even more precise and targeted manner, at class level (micro).



**Figure 1: Relationship between vertical and horizontal coherence**

#### **The three stages of designing a scenario**

*First stage:* establishing general profiles for language and (inter)cultural competences, some specific to a given language, others applicable to the teaching of all languages and other subjects (aims and objectives).

*Second stage:* planning from the start for vertical or longitudinal coherence by determining:

- ▶ the choice of languages to be taught;
- ▶ the type of arrangements to be established between these languages as subjects: taught in parallel, staggered, successive, intensive v. extensive;
- ▶ the languages to be used as a medium for teaching other subjects;
- ▶ the consistency of competence profiles from one level to another and with the general profile;

- ▶ the phasing of learning experiences according to learners' needs.

*Third stage:*

- ▶ laying the foundations for horizontal coherence – to be implemented by individual schools – between language courses on the “languages taught as subjects” side and between language and other courses on the “language in other subjects” side, in order to determine:
  - the types of convergence to be established: between the teaching of foreign languages, between the latter and the language of schooling and between the teaching of languages and other courses;
  - the level of convergence: simple co-ordination, synergy and co-operation, extent to which the plurilingual and intercultural education principles are taken into account;
  - all suitable approaches.
- ▶ aiming to harmonise longitudinal and horizontal coherence, which essentially means paying particular attention to:
  - the coherence of the whole;
  - management of continuities;
  - dealing with breaks in continuity.

### **3.8.2. Methods of organisation specific to individual contexts**

The curriculum scenario seeks above all to implement the principles stated and elaborated on in the previous chapters, while taking full account of contexts. It is, of course, true that allowing for particular situations and specific features of individual contexts automatically generates different organisational patterns. However, it has to be said that these patterns frequently ignore some of the principles and aims of plurilingual and intercultural education. In the examples illustrated below (3.8.3, 3.9.2, 3.9.3 and 3.9.4), some measures have already been introduced but may not be entirely satisfactory. Other options – more effective and more consistent with the principles of plurilingual and intercultural education – are possible. The outline scenarios proposed try to illustrate these possible alternatives.

Two words of warning are essential here, however. Every scenario is consistent and valid in a given context only. The number of possible scenarios is infinite, and their contours are dictated by a large number of variables, which derive from the specific features of each context. This means that the following outline scenarios have no reference value, and cannot be applied to clearly defined and specific situations. They are simulation exercises, allowing us to visualise *in vitro* the range of possible choices that we shall have to make *in vivo* when taking policy decisions on the design of curricula for various forms of plurilingual and intercultural education. A plurilingual and intercultural education enhances and diversifies the processes of acquiring the different languages taught and used at school, makes these processes more mutually consistent and provides a unifying framework for the introduction of educational approaches aimed at facilitating language acquisition according to pupils' respective cognitive status. In addition, plurilingual and intercultural education provides, on the one hand, ways of developing synergies between these processes and approaches in order to create economies of scale and facilitate the expansion of pupils' repertoires. On the other hand, its aim is to provide education for and through linguistic and cultural diversity. It is the latter two, more innovative aspects that are highlighted in the following illustrations. These approaches complement but in no way invalidate essential aspects connected with the acquisition and teaching of individual languages.

### **3.8.3. Example of the scenario-based approach: introduction of a foreign language in primary education and of a second foreign language in secondary education (ISCED Levels 1 and 2)**

To illustrate, in detail, the curriculum scenario approach, we shall describe below the learning process that is involved in the case of two foreign languages which, being those most commonly taught in the majority of school systems, lend themselves particularly well to “scenario treatment”. The discussion of this case will also provide certain conceptual foundations – especially analysis in terms of describing the features of the ISCED levels and identifying their specific requirements as far as languages are concerned – for the outline scenarios that follow.

In discussing these cases, as for the other prototypical cases below, we will not reiterate the experiences mentioned in 3.1, which are a necessary feature of every curriculum scenario, with different weightings, combinations and sequences that can be more easily determined at either the meso or micro level.

The basic decision here is the decision to stagger teaching of the two foreign languages, introducing the first at primary level (ISCED 1) and the second at secondary level (ISCED 2). Except in English-speaking countries, the first foreign language is usually English,<sup>97</sup> and the second German or French, Spanish or Russian. These dominant choices inevitably have some effect on the organisation of curricula.

Very many contexts where this is the pattern have certain recurrent features: declining lesson effectiveness in the case of the first foreign language, often linked to a lack of progress and insufficient variation in activities that might keep pupils motivated and stimulate skills development; the second foreign language receives less attention or is undervalued (although teaching aims are usually ambitious, given the few years and hours available, and the consequent compression of courses); successive or parallel teaching of the two languages is not linked.

A scenario for adjustment of the curriculum might cover various measures depending on the languages. For the first foreign language, it would be possible to envisage either a diversification of teaching methods (bilingual teaching in various forms, more reflexive learning, access to outside media), or discontinuation of lessons once a certain level has been reached and tested, with resources being transferred to the second or third foreign language. Proficiency acquired in the second foreign language could receive recognition and validation based, for example, on the CEFR descriptors. With a view to openness, it would be possible to envisage an approach to the first foreign language geared to the acquisition of knowledge and abilities that can then be applied in discovering the second foreign language, as well as an approach to teaching the latter that builds on competences acquired in the former. At ISCED levels 1 and 2, linkage between learning (a) foreign language(s) and working in/on the language of schooling could be established, including linkage with the content of other school subjects.

The expected learner profile on leaving school would cover solid and reasonably balanced proficiency in the language of schooling for all language activities, an asymmetric command of the two foreign languages and, within each, of oral reception and production on the one hand, and of written production on the other. The language activity of mediation, as provided for by the CEFR,<sup>98</sup> should be explicitly included, and would be one area where the various learning processes involved in acquiring plurilingual and intercultural competence would come together within the context of a global language education.

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97. According to the 2012 Eurydice report *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe*, it is the first compulsory foreign language in 14 European countries and regions.

98. For example, ability to give an account of content discovered in one language in a message in another language, ability to highlight the specific cultural features of content expressed in a foreign language, ability to make comprehensible for a third party an item of information that the latter has received in a language he/she does not speak, etc.

**PROTOTYPICAL CASE No. 1**  
**Introduction of one foreign language in ISCED 1, and a second in ISCED 2**

**BASIC SCENARIO – Gradual diversification of languages and progressive introduction of their everyday use in the overall curriculum**

**General description**

The first foreign language – related or not to the language of schooling – is introduced at a very early stage in schooling. Openness to other languages and cultures is also fostered from the outset. The second foreign language, introduced at the beginning of ISCED 2, may belong to a different family of languages from the first. The aims and methods of teaching it differ partly from those for the first, but build on the competences acquired while learning it. Cross-cutting links and convergences are established between foreign languages and the language of schooling. A third foreign language is offered in ISCED 3, but is learned in new ways. Foreign languages spread into, and become normal in, various subject areas. Access to their communicational, cognitive and aesthetic uses outside school is strengthened and diversified, depending on languages and streams. The competences involved in mediating between languages, between languages and knowledge, and also between cultures, are increasingly deployed.

At all stages in schooling, the (inter)cultural dimensions are worked on in connection with languages and other subjects. In the course of their school careers, all pupils have access, in one way or another, to all the learning experiences listed in 3.1.

**ISCED 0**

**Aims and approaches**

In most European countries, this first level of schooling (some do not have it) provides – after anything that nursery school may have contributed – a first setting for socialisation, bringing together children from different sociocultural and language backgrounds. Its task can be described as:

- ▶ accepting, allowing for and building on children’s (possibly plurilingual) language repertoire, as they spontaneously display it; ensuring that this diversity is regarded by all the children as a normal feature of everyday life.
- ▶ exposing children to the main language of schooling as something used in the same matter-of-fact manner by teachers and other school staff. In many different forms: interacting with children, giving instructions and advice on activities, reading texts aloud, collective and experiential building of concepts (e.g. space, time, quantity), etc. The status of the language of schooling is clearly established, but its use involves a wide range of discourse genres and variable sociolinguistic norms (e.g. those which, depending on the activity, govern speaking and listening). Pupils become familiar with formal and grammatical correctness by hearing teachers use them in this everyday way, by listening to and memorising songs and poems, and from simple rephrasing of things they have said which are “wrong”.
- ▶ making appropriate use of word games based, for example, on sounds, imagination and lexical creativity (counting rhymes, etc.). Other languages (particularly those spoken by certain children) can also form part of this process.
- ▶ preparing children for learning to write which, apart from gestural training, and control of movement and proportions, involves making them aware of the existence of different modes of writing and conveying meaning in signs, and introducing them to calligraphy.
- ▶ highlighting cultural diversity with the help of resources within the class group and the school’s environment, story-telling, songs, festivals, products, decoration and posters. Relying, not on the exotic and folkloric, but on the surrounding community’s multicultural dimensions; presenting cultural diversity as the everyday norm.
- ▶ employing a game-based approach and making any explanations interesting, without insisting on the learning function, whenever a foreign language is already taught at this level.

In short, the aims for ISCED 0 in this area are: to accommodate language plurality, open children’s minds to cultural diversity, establish the status of the language of schooling and familiarise children with its normal conventions, while also – informally and with the help of various illustrations and activities – helping them to master it and realise its potential.

**ISCED 1**

**Aims and approaches**

Where the language of schooling is concerned, educational and linguistic cultures may vary considerably, depending on its status, its grammatical complexity, its formal characteristics, the extent to which it is standardised, the existence of regional variants, etc.

The approach to the first foreign language (usually English in Europe), which is introduced at various ages and rates, is mainly communication-focused. Defining an aim as a level to be reached by the end of ISCED 1 (e.g. the CEFR’s A1 rating) is becoming standard practice.

Having regard to these fairly general characteristics of ISCED 1, and building on the points made in 3.1.2, the following approaches are, or can be, envisaged.



**PROTOTYPICAL CASE No. 1**  
**Introduction of one foreign language in ISCED 1, and a second in ISCED 2**

Introduce, in the language of schooling, learning to write and gradual familiarisation with textual genres that are decreasingly associated with pupils' direct experience, gradually become more complex and are also directed towards active knowledge building in other subjects (history, geography, arithmetic); switch from working on narrative sequences to working on expository, explanatory or even argumentative sequences.

Link work in/on the language of schooling and learning of the foreign language in various ways:

- ▶ by drawing, in specific cases, on elements learned from the foreign language (forms of address, polite phrases, etc.), or even introducing new ones elsewhere in the general curriculum (physical education or other courses, classroom instructions); conversely, by not forbidding (or refraining from) use of the language of schooling in foreign language classes;
- ▶ by making various comparisons (linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects, cultural practices) between the language of schooling and the foreign language; by making simple points, which catch children's attention without "formalising" learning of the foreign language, or creating or reinforcing stereotypes; by adopting, instead, a "language and culture awareness"-type approach, and connecting it with any experience pupils may have of other languages and cultures;
- ▶ by using the work done on both languages (and possibly contacts with other languages present in the school) to make children aware of the relativity of certain language norms; by encouraging them, in this way, to start looking beyond their own language (whether this is the language of schooling or not) and take a more generic view of language phenomena.

Make learners realise that the foreign language has various social uses outside the classroom. This is hardly difficult with English, but the urban environment, the media, the Internet, certain parents, etc. are resources worth exploring and may, in connection with uses of the foreign language (whatever it is) lead to activities in (and for the benefit of) the language of schooling.

Discuss (and exploit) pupils' "deviant", "incorrect" language practices to highlight their own internal rules, pragmatic effectiveness and creativity, but also the ways in which they differ from and fall short of what is required by the school, which has its own norms and preferred approaches to knowledge building. The aim here is not to contrast the language of the school with usage dismissed as linguistically unacceptable, but to focus on variations, continuities and possible rephrasing games (2.5).

The aim indeed is twofold:

- to "de-canonise" the language of schooling by pointing out ways in which it diversifies internally, and also ways in which it connects with (its) "external" usages;
  - to use this diversification and these connections to help learners absorb that language more effectively, including its "canonised" norms, accompanied by critical reflection on the power issues associated with languages.
- ▶ If the first foreign language is related to the language of schooling, it may be useful to introduce pupils to a language which is "remote" (but may also be widely spoken), and even teach them a few basics, with a view, not to learning it, but to developing a certain contrastive and metalinguistic awareness (part of general language education).
  - ▶ If the first foreign language is related to the language of schooling, some reflective and practical work should be done on prospects and strategies for intercomprehension.

If the foreign language employs the same graphic system as the language of schooling, its written forms should be introduced rapidly, and the extent to which starting to read in both languages is possible should be ascertained.

In short, the aims of ISCED 1 here are: learning the written language with diversification of textual genres, bridges between the LS and FL, social uses of the FL outside the classroom plus reflective work, assimilation of norms and raising awareness of diversification in LS.

### **Aims and approaches**

This stage in schooling is a sensitive area in most school systems, since it leads to the end of compulsory schooling – to a point where some pupils leave school, while others go on to higher education.

The aim for all is:

- ▶ development of plurilingual and intercultural competence, barriers between the learning of different languages having been removed;
- ▶ relative diversification of language-learning methods;
- ▶ preparation to benefit from the presence of many different languages outside the school.

ISCED 1

ISCED 2

**PROTOTYPICAL CASE No. 1**  
**Introduction of one foreign language in ISCED 1, and a second in ISCED 2**

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Salient features of the approach adopted at this stage include the following.

- ▶ The language of schooling taught as a subject relies on instruments and approaches which can also be used in learning foreign languages: classification of discourse genres (including those used outside school), literary analysis and criticism, critical analysis of media, heuristic tools for description and analysis of language. All of these are valid just as much for foreign languages, which are enriched by them, as for other subjects, which extend their scope to other areas. This two-way traffic fosters learning and feeds contrastive reflection.
- ▶ The language of schooling fosters the acquisition of increasingly specialised discourse genres – both oral and written – (and of other semiotic resources) in other school subjects.
- ▶ At least as many hours are devoted to learning the second foreign language as were devoted to the first.
- ▶ The methods used in learning the second foreign language are not necessarily those used in learning the first. More emphasis may be placed on certain competences (e.g. reading).
- ▶ In teaching the second foreign language, marked continuity with lower secondary education is sought by building on competences acquired at that level, but approaches may also change here: a wider range of working methods, reflexivity in learning, more learner autonomy (learners think about their ways of learning, and their personal strategies for comprehension, expression and self-assessment).
- ▶ Pupils use some kind of portfolio to record their progress, preserve work they have done on foreign languages (or indeed the language of schooling), and think about their language biographies and trajectories as up-and-coming bilingual learners.
- ▶ Using a portfolio, under their language teachers' guidance, also helps to make them aware of actual and potential contact points and of differences noted, between languages, between cultures, and between ways of approaching them.
- ▶ The first foreign language (and even the second) is used at least occasionally in some "non-language" lessons and/or pluridisciplinary projects.
- ▶ International exchange schemes and projects (sometimes remote and virtual) can get pupils involved and lead to the setting-up of networks of foreign correspondents for various foreign languages. These initiatives are carefully planned, implemented and monitored to ensure that the foreign languages learned (not just the first one) and the language of schooling are used on themes likely to raise intercultural issues. Various forms of (inter)linguistic mediation are mobilised by co-operative exchange of this kind. Languages not taught, but present in the school and used by some pupils and their families, can feature in these projects.

**Aims and approaches**

At ISCED Level 3, pathways and syllabuses vary widely depending on the chosen course of study, and the many options available make it impossible to generalise. However, it is safe to say – on the basis of the points made in 3.1.2 and the approaches adopted for ISCED 2 – that the following aims are shared by all of them.

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- ▶ In the language of schooling as a subject, developing competences related to the critical appreciation of media usages (press, radio, television, Internet, etc.), the aesthetic use of the language and literary genres (literature, poetry, theatre, etc.).
- ▶ Developing the language of schooling in increasingly specialised "academic" usages and discourse genres in connection with school subjects and the building of knowledge and competences.
- ▶ Opening pupils' eyes to the ways in which languages are used outside school, and giving them the instruments, methods and strategies they need to derive maximum benefit from the wealth of learning resources they embody: media, real and virtual mobility, etc.
- ▶ As part of this process, going beyond the ordinary communicative uses of language (including the second and a possible third foreign language) and cultivating its knowledge building, aesthetic and creative functions.
- ▶ Continuing to work on mediation competences (rephrasing in another language, intra- and interlinguistic translation, switching from one discourse genre to another), so that mobilisation and comfortable use of the plurilingual repertoire and various discursive registers become increasingly "spontaneous"; the language of schooling plays a major part in exercising these competences – and benefits from them.
- ▶ In short: making the use of plural languages for plural purposes an everyday feature of school contexts that are themselves part of a lifelong education project.
- ▶ Recognising and validating the competences acquired, not only in the language of schooling and the first foreign language, and not only in terms of levels of communicative proficiency in each language, but also in terms of mediation abilities, so-called partial competences and the plurilingual profiles actually attained.

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The approaches followed in pursuing these aims are obviously – as they have to be – extremely varied:

- ▶ where and how pupils work: classroom, resource centre, library, home; supervised, autonomous, individual or collective, on the spot or at a distance;
- ▶ learning methods and aids: continued varying of the trajectories and activities proposed (no adherence to the rhythm and routine of largely standardised modules and lessons);
- ▶ more variety in the methods used in teaching different languages in ISCED 3, and in teaching each of them (avoidance of the dangers of the demotivation effect and enrichment of the learning culture): intercomprehension strategies, bilingual teaching sequences with partial immersion in, or alternation of, languages;
- ▶ introduction of “inter-language” moments, aimed at prompting pupils to think about learning methods, styles and formats and at facilitating transfers between different learning experiences: helping pupils to become expert learners (complementing the possible use of various kinds of portfolio or record).

### Comments and additional remarks

This so-called “basic” scenario departs in some notable ways from most current practices. Compared with the actual situation in European school systems, it may well seem unduly ambitious, both in the level it expects pupils to reach (particularly at ISCED 2 and ISCED 3) and in its proposals on organisational questions and the roles of teachers. Moreover, the indications given above are inevitably incomplete and insufficiently specific and need to be expanded, simplified and specifically tailored to local constraints and possibilities – and, above all, the relative importance of the aims selected in a given context.

This scenario is strongly focused on plurilingual and intercultural education. The discussion preceding this chapter provided a clear statement of the concepts and arguments employed, and also highlighted areas and paths of convergence that can be used as a basis for designing plurilingual curricula. This case (and the basic scenario associated with it) constitutes a curricular framework for the actual implementation of the elements referred to in that discussion. It is, moreover, slightly “special”, since it is regarded as being (with multiple variations) the commonest in European contexts. To that extent, it constitutes a kind of background, lending relief to the other cases described below. At the same time, it is never “pure”, but is always – depending on the context – influenced to a greater or lesser degree by one or other of the other prototypical cases mentioned below.

### 3.9. OTHER POSSIBLE USES OF THE SCENARIOS – OTHER PROTOTYPICAL CASES

An example has been provided above of the diachronic application of the scenario-based approach to a frequent prototypical case, namely the introduction of a first foreign language at ISCED Level 1 and of a second at Level 2. Some aims and approaches proposed for this first case provide a basis for the other cases which are to be described, and which will, moreover, differ where other aims and methods are concerned. The objective in the following is twofold: applying the approach to prototypical cases that confront education with particular challenges and showing, at the same time, other possible uses of the scenario.

#### 3.9.1. Prototypical cases

The cases chosen are linked to the rights of certain learners to an education that takes account of their specific needs. This concerns:

- ▶ the teaching of regional languages (ISCED 0 to 3)
- ▶ bilingual lessons (ISCED 0 to 3)
- ▶ the teaching of languages at secondary vocational level (short course) (ISCED 0 to 3).

For each of the three prototypical cases, two alternative scenarios will be proposed. The two alternatives, like the first scenario described in 3.8.3, are geared to plurilingual and intercultural education. However, they differ in the extent to which they propose integrating teaching of languages, and in them:

- ▶ the first scenario is essentially based on synergies to be progressively established between the teaching of different languages;
- ▶ the second is based more broadly on the overall dynamic of the curriculum.

This divergence has an impact on their objectives, on the educational goals they pursue and on the teaching methods and organisational arrangements they involve.

For the first two prototypical cases, it is assumed that pupils continue on from ISCED Level 0 to Level 3. The third case, which relates only to ISCED 3 and, specifically, short course vocational education, proposes two outline scenarios, the second of which could perhaps constitute a further development of the first.

### **Possible uses of the scenario-based approach**

Prior to the policy decision being taken, this type of simulation offers a range of curriculum options to which that decision can be flexibly applied. The authorities can take account both of the educational objectives that each simulation makes it possible to achieve and of the conditions required for its implementation. An interesting case of varied curriculum proposals aimed at facilitating the policy decision has been devised for the education system of an entire European region, with five examples of possible scenarios based on five different objectives:

- ▶ scenario 1 – “Consolidation in French and bilingual education”, based on a “closed” heritage objective with the focus on an excellent command of the two official languages and strong emphasis on the local culture;
- ▶ scenario 2 – “Neighbouring heritage languages and reflexive plural identity”, based on an “open” heritage objective and nurturing the broadest and most inclusive possible linguistic and cultural diversity;
- ▶ scenario 3 – “Italian and French in the bilingual teaching of knowledge”, based on a cognitive objective and opting for the more or less extensive use of two languages in the teaching of all subjects;
- ▶ scenario 4 – “Italian, French, English and the plurilingual teaching of knowledge”, based on a cognitive objective and opting for the more or less extensive use of three languages (the two official languages and English) in the teaching of all subjects;
- ▶ scenario 5 – “Plurilingual education with a European focus”, based on an intercultural objective and aimed at developing a sense of European citizenship through plurilingual education and the decompartmentalisation of cultural content (literature, history, philosophy, etc.).<sup>99</sup>

When two scenarios are conceived as the development of one from the other (see the third case), they can be considered from the outset as two stages of a curriculum reform that develops gradually over time. As with the first case discussed in 3.7, we will not reiterate the experiences mentioned in 3.1, which are a necessary feature of every curriculum scenario, with the balance between them, how they are arranged and the progression from one to the other depending on the context.

The same warnings given for the first case also apply to the following cases, which serve merely to illustrate the scenario-based, non-prescriptive approach, since other methods are always possible. They merely constitute outline scenarios since the “real” scenarios can only be designed in a specific context.

Without employing a linear approach, which might prove off-putting, the “instructions” for what follows could therefore include the following:

- ▶ identifying the prototypical case that it is intended to develop or the relevant scenario model;
- ▶ analysing the suggestions made by the outline scenarios for the case in question or the scenario model, bearing in mind the need to link this analysis to the experiential dimensions of every curriculum (1.2.4 and 3.1);
- ▶ reviewing the possibilities for types of intracurricular organisation (3.7) that may be suited to the context concerned.

This is a complex process, since the path from principle to practice is never a straight one.

### **Common points in the treatment of the prototypical cases selected**

The approaches and components outlined above for the various prototypical cases selected are, clearly, neither exhaustive nor prescriptive. They do, however, have certain common features specific to the implementation of the principles that underlie and determine the course of plurilingual and intercultural education:

- ▶ a holistic vision, which extends reflection on the curriculum to languages in learners’ repertoires, languages in their environment and languages taught at school;

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99. Coste D. (2006), “Scénarios pour les langues dans l’école valdôtaine – Finalités et curriculum”, in Coste D., Sobrero A., Cavalli M. and Bosonin I. (eds), *Multilinguisme, Plurilinguisme, Éducation – Les politiques linguistiques éducatives*, IRRE-VDA, Aosta, pp. 67-89.

- ▶ the language and cultural rights of learners – particularly the most vulnerable – the aim being a high-quality and equitable language education for all of them;
- ▶ an intercultural dimension in all teaching/learning of languages and other subjects, the aim being to enable all pupils to (inter)act with forms of otherness (intercultural education);
- ▶ an effort to generate synergies between the teaching of different languages as school subjects (language of schooling, regional, minority, migration, foreign languages, etc.), the aim of which is the holistic, consistent and efficient learning of these languages and the building of a plurilingual repertoire;
- ▶ the possible development of specific, so-called “partial” competences in certain languages (for example, advanced written comprehension in a new language);
- ▶ the conscious use of inter-/translingual strategies;
- ▶ where the bi- or plurilingual teaching of other subjects is concerned, the mutual integration of the languages with one another and, at the same time, with these other subjects so as to take account of the function of languages as knowledge-building instruments.

### **3.9.2. Prototypical case of the teaching of regional and minority languages (ISCED 0-3)**

To form an accurate picture of the context and design curriculum scenarios to match this case, the following distinctions have to be made between regional languages:

- ▶ traditional languages unrelated to the country’s majority language, for example Basque in Spain and France, Irish in Ireland, and Scottish Gaelic and Welsh in the United Kingdom;
- ▶ languages that are considered prestigious and are related to the country’s majority language, for example Catalan in Spain;
- ▶ languages related to, and “collateral” with, the country’s majority language, for example Occitan in France;<sup>100</sup>
- ▶ languages related to major languages in neighbouring countries, for example Sorbian in Germany, or Catalan, Corsican and Alsatian in France;
- ▶ languages still regarded as dialects, for example Picard in France;
- ▶ non-territorial languages, for example those of Roma or Jewish communities (Romani and Yiddish).

In certain contexts, these languages may not have standard forms, whereas in others they may have rival standard forms (cf. the cases of Galicia, Brittany, Occitania, etc.). Their levels of development in linguistic and social usage terms may also vary. All these factors can affect their use in schools, especially as vehicles for teaching other subjects. On the other hand, their use in schools can contribute to their standardisation and enrichment.

Unlike minority languages, which may be the majority languages of other countries and are thus well regarded, regional languages may have to contend with negative prejudices (their proponents are accused of “living in the past”, the usefulness of learning them instead of the great international languages is questioned, etc.). However, public opinion now seems more favourable to regional languages<sup>101</sup> than in the past, when they were used on a much larger scale. Some of these languages, which are targeted for revival, are no longer really spoken by children and in these cases schools are not simply developing and improving a language already in the learner’s repertoire, but – in the fullest sense – transmitting it.

Two different situations must also be distinguished:

- ▶ heterogeneous situations, where the regional language may exist alongside other languages, and the number of people who speak it and/or the number of parents who want it taught are insufficient to justify the setting-up of a school or class to teach it or in it;
- ▶ fairly homogeneous and homolingual situations, where speakers of regional languages are in the majority, and large numbers of parents want these languages taught.

100. “A collateral language is a language in a minorised situation with another genetically close dominant language, such as Occitan with regard to French or Scots with English” (see the glossary of the EBP-ICI project, <http://ebp-ici.ecml.at>).

101. According to the Eurobarometer Special (2006) survey *Europeans and their languages*, 63% of the 28 694 citizens questioned thought that regional and minority languages should have received greater support. The questionnaire of the same survey conducted in 2012 no longer contained this question. The Eurydice report *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe* (2012: 12) states: “According to official guidelines, regional and minority languages can be learned in a significant number of countries ... even in those where such languages are not granted any official status such as in France ... Several regional and minority languages are also used as a language of instruction alongside the state language in around 20 countries.”

In general, from the point of view of a plurilingual and intercultural education, the teaching of regional languages in schools should not be confined to those who speak them but be a part of every learner's overall language education since they reflect and express the country's cultural wealth. That being so, literary texts in these languages (with or without translations, as appropriate) should feature in literature textbooks – not as witnesses to a lost heritage or memorials to an “atavistic” language, but as examples of living languages, used by real speakers, who ensure their survival in practice. This is why it is important for these languages to keep abreast of the times, not become vehicles for aggressive local patriotism, and form fertile relationships with languages of schooling – and indeed all languages used in and for education. The teaching of and lessons in regional and minority languages cannot ignore critical reflection on, and the need to raise awareness of, the power issues associated with languages and of the domination-based relationships, including of a symbolic nature, between languages and their speakers (critical language awareness).

Designing “curriculum scenarios” for a plurilingual and intercultural education involves total acceptance of the principle – championed by the Council of Europe, among others – that all languages are of equal value, regardless of their social and national status and weight. This means that the school's role – where regional languages and the people who speak them are concerned – is to inform parents of their children's language rights<sup>102</sup> and provide teaching of, or in, their languages. Practical constraints of various sorts often prevent schools from implementing the rights of regional language speakers fully, but they still have a duty to cater for their needs – and can find innovative ways, in keeping with their resources, of promoting these languages and using them in the curriculum. The basic principle here is that nothing substantial can be done in the field of plurilingual and intercultural education unless children's home languages are in some way recognised, accepted and taken seriously by schools.

The changes in the curriculum that these scenarios should envisage may:

- ▶ emphasise the part played by learning of/in a regional language in expanding the individual pupil's plurilingual and intercultural language repertoire: the role of competences already acquired in a regional language as a link and bridge to the learning of other languages; the role of the regional language's cultural aspects as a first step towards openness to other cultures; awareness of internal variability as a pedagogic aid to understanding the way in which languages change and develop over time;
- ▶ encourage learners to think about the regional language and its characteristics, including its proximity to/distance from the majority language and the foreign languages taught, its identity-forming dimension and its lesser status – all with a view to developing a sociolinguistic awareness of the factors that influence the power relationships between languages, and of positive and status-enhancing attitudes and reactions to all languages/cultures, particularly languages/cultures and their preservation;
- ▶ raise questions regarding the relationship between a regional language and knowledge building in the subjects studied at various stages in the schooling process, by determining how long teaching in the regional language should, and can, continue in different cases (presence or absence of languages suitable for this purpose v. danger of acquired knowledge being dissipated if their use ends suddenly; availability of suitable classroom materials; use of the language by the school as a tool).

Finally, these curriculum scenarios cannot ignore the vital questions raised by the link between the language of schooling and the regional language when the latter is used as a medium of instruction for other subjects.

One final remark is added concerning minority languages, for which no scenario will actually be offered, since situations are hugely variable and usually very “sensitive”.<sup>103</sup> The moment when, in certain countries and in accordance with certain school traditions, the balance tilts away from the minority towards the majority language can be difficult. This transition can also be a serious threat to learners and their success at school if it is made too sharply and has not been prepared for by “meta”-type language awareness and reflection activities. Such processes make them think about the dual dimensions of the minority language (as a subject and as a vehicle for other subjects), and encourage them to transfer knowledge and competences acquired in that language to the majority language.

In any case, other scenarios, particularly those for bilingual teaching (cf. 3.9.3) – including scenario 2 relating to this teaching in the case of more ambitious projects aimed at revitalising and developing the language – could, with the necessary adjustments, be made to fit both regional and minority languages.

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102. *Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education*, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Regional, minority and migration languages.

103. As evidenced by the reports on the implementation of the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages ([www.coe.int/minlang](http://www.coe.int/minlang)).

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Teaching of regional languages <sup>104</sup>	
SCENARIO 1 – Upgrading the regional language with the other repertoire languages in a heterogeneous sociolinguistic environment	SCENARIO 2 – School use of regional languages in a relatively homogeneous and monolingual environment
<p>This scenario illustrates <i>minimum measures</i> that should be taken in every context where regional languages are present to a greater or lesser degree. It has two aims: to accommodate and build on the repertoire of learners who speak regional languages and, at the same time, give all learners a comprehensive language education. This involves making them aware of the benefits of linguistic and cultural plurality and diversity and encouraging them to think about the power issues associated with language, the aim being to foster open and positive attitudes to otherness as well as a critical awareness of language questions.</p> <p>The profile aimed at corresponds to that of the first prototypical case (cf. 3.8.3). However, it includes openness to the range of different languages present in the class and an initial introduction to the idea that languages embody values and are equal in dignity, regardless of their status and power in the community, the starting point and main focus being the regional language spoken, together with the other languages in children's repertoires.</p>	<p>This is an ambitious scenario, insofar as it partly gives schools the task of preserving and developing linguistic and cultural diversity by teaching in, and of, regional languages. This presupposes a thorough knowledge of language rights, as well as committed acceptance by pupils' parents and, more generally, the community which speaks the <i>minority language</i>. This is one case, among others, in which the Council of Europe's European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages applies, with specific reference to the role of schools in preserving these languages</p> <p>The global profile aims at:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ for the <i>regional language</i>: very good competences in oral expression and reception and in oral and written comprehension; good writing skills and competences in reception and production when possible; positives attitudes to the <i>regional language</i>; in-depth and sound cultural knowledge;</li> <li>▶ for the <i>majority language</i>: thanks to knowledge and competences transferred from the <i>regional language</i>, competences equivalent, in all language activities, to those acquired by learners taught in the majority language;</li> <li>▶ for the <i>first and second foreign languages</i>: asymmetric but sound proficiency given the plurilingual context of the class.</li> </ul>
<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The <i>majority language</i> remains the common language used by the class in interacting and in the various activities.</p> <p>The aim is to strengthen the identity of the children as speakers of a regional and/or other languages, and make them think about linguistic and cultural diversity in class and the immediate environment, with the systematic inclusion of the regional language.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The <i>regional language</i> is used in all the daily activities (routines, classroom activities and projects) carried out by children under teacher supervision, special attention being paid to its cultural aspects (social usages, stories, fairy-tales, proverbs, etc.).</p> <p>The <i>language of schooling</i> is taught as a subject.</p> <p>The aim is to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ make children feel secure in their identity and enhance their status as speakers of a regional language;</li> <li>▶ strengthen and develop their competences in that language;</li> <li>▶ extend their repertoires through learning the language of schooling.</li> </ul>

ISCED 0

General description

104. The first scenario, which is the commonest today, could be used in any other prototypical case to develop all the languages and language varieties present in learners' repertoires.

**Methods**

Schools accommodate the repertoire of all pupils, including regional languages, via:

- ▶ “linguistic and cultural awareness”-type activities;
- ▶ direct contact – at school and outside – with speakers of the languages present in the class, the aim being to make pupils aware of the various languages and cultures that surround them;
- ▶ fairly systematic use of the regional language as an aid or springboard in helping children who speak it at home to acquire the language of schooling, following a line similar to that followed for other languages in the children’s repertoires;
- ▶ activities involving systematic comparison of the languages present in the class, including the regional language;
- ▶ the reading of legends, stories, poems and other fictional texts that refer to the regional language and culture, and to other languages and cultures represented in the class, care being taken to ensure that these texts do not simply convey a traditional, quaint and old-fashioned image of the regional culture, but present it in modern terms and cover modern themes as well;
- ▶ stories and fairy-tales told by story-tellers, parents of pupils or mediators who speak the regional or other languages;
- ▶ plurilingual posters in the classrooms, including posters in the regional language;
- ▶ systematic use of the new technologies in connection with the regional language and other languages in the children’s repertoires;
- ▶ songs, poems, counting rhymes, games, etc. in several languages, including the regional language;
- ▶ sporadic or fairly systematic use of the regional language in various activity fields.

**Methods**

Alongside the measures covered by scenario 1, systematic use of the regional language in the classroom and of activities designed to help learners acquire and develop it, with the help of materials suited to their age group. What the first prototypical case sets out to do (analysed in 3.8.3) in the case of the language of schooling may apply here to the regional language, with the establishment of convergences with the language of schooling as a school subject.

Linguistic and cultural awareness activities are used to focus children’s attention on the regional language’s closeness to/remoteness from (depending on the languages present) the language of schooling.



<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The aim here is less to develop competences in the regional language than to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ continue thinking seriously about it and, more generally, language phenomena, as part of a global language education;</li> <li>▶ use it as a bridge to thinking about other languages, and as a springboard for the acquisition of knowledge and competences in the language of schooling and the first foreign language;</li> <li>▶ develop positive attitudes to language diversity (openness to languages and cultures, greater curiosity concerning linguistic and cultural diversity);</li> <li>▶ acquire strategies for shifting from one language to another (willingness to take risks, flexibility and ease in using communication strategies, including easy switching from one language to another);</li> </ul> <p>In this scenario, the language of schooling contributes specifically to plurilingual and intercultural education by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ making learners aware, when it is taught as a subject, of its own internal diversity and plurality;</li> <li>▶ making them aware, when it is used to teach other subjects, of the many different ways in which the language dimension surfaces in various subject areas.</li> </ul> <p>A first foreign language is introduced.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Children can be taught simultaneously to read and write in the <i>majority language</i> and the <i>regional language</i>, if the latter possesses a graphic transcription system.</p> <p>Both are then used for reading and writing.</p> <p>The regional language introduces pupils to the various subject areas via interactive classroom activities, discussion of personal experiences and views, and conceptualisation.</p> <p>In the first years, teaching of the majority language serves the same purposes, and follows the same lines, as the language of schooling as a subject in the scenario described in 3.8.3. In the last years, it is gradually introduced alongside the regional language in lessons in the various subject areas.</p> <p>A <i>first foreign language</i> is introduced, but still in a play-oriented manner.</p> <p>Studying history and geography helps children to think about the relationships between language and power, language and territory, and language and mobility.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Regional languages are catered for by:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ using them in specific cases;</li> <li>▶ putting up posters in classrooms – written records, signs and languages;</li> <li>▶ again organising language awareness activities.</li> </ul> <p>When the first foreign language is introduced, language lessons are co-ordinated on the basis of languages in the children's repertoires (including the regional language) and their existing competences in the language of schooling.</p> <p>The approach diversifies, depending on whether the first foreign language belongs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ to the same language family as the language of schooling or certain languages in the children's repertoires, including the regional language;</li> <li>▶ to another language family.</li> </ul> <p>Schools may also provide optional courses, periods of intensive immersion in the regional language or other equivalent measures.</p>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Teaching of the three languages is co-ordinated.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ As in scenario 1, the regional and majority languages reposition themselves in relation to the first foreign language.</li> <li>▶ The ability to mediate between the regional and the majority language is gradually developed by reformulating in the various subject areas.</li> <li>▶ To accustom children to the concept of a <i>continuum</i>, activities focused on intercomprehension between languages belonging to the same family as the regional language are introduced on subject-related themes, with the help of structured materials (e.g. those proposed by the Euromania project, cf. Appendix V).</li> </ul>

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The language of schooling remains the language used in teaching other subjects. Teaching of the first foreign language continues, taking it further and putting more emphasis on written proficiency.</p> <p>A second foreign language is introduced.</p> <p>Developing mediation competences, problem-solving strategies and management of the plurilingual repertoire – accompanied by sociolinguistic and sociocultural awareness, focused in particular on the regional language and its relationships with other languages – are the special targets of this scenario at this stage in schooling.</p> <p>The aims are concerned with positive attitudes to languages (including regional languages) and language diversity.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The <i>regional language</i> and the <i>majority language</i> alternate in the teaching/learning of school subjects. The former also provides pupils with a basis for conceptualisation in subject classes and group work.</p> <p>The <i>first foreign language</i> is taught later alongside a <i>second foreign language</i>, building extensively on the knowledge developed in the regional and the majority language.</p> <p>Plurilingual and intercultural education becomes one of the aims of all language teaching, the purpose being to make learners feel comfortable with their languages and enable them to move confidently between them in managing their plurilingual repertoires.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Linguistic and cultural awareness activities foster sociolinguistic awareness, which extends to regional languages, by going more deeply into:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ language families;</li> <li>▶ possible family links and continuities between the languages present and taught in the school and other languages;</li> <li>▶ variability of languages and the factors that influence it;</li> <li>▶ the status of the languages present in the class, and the sociopolitical factors that determine it.</li> </ul> <p>Assessment covers the competences acquired in the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, but also mediation activities and, above all, openness to linguistic and cultural plurality.</p> <p>Co-ordination between teachers makes it easier to keep language teaching consistent.</p>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Where language use is concerned, the didactic contract provides for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ monolingual, and also bilingual or even plurilingual areas;</li> <li>▶ language alternation, if a “language breakdown” occurs in any of the above modes;</li> <li>▶ interlingual word-play, and also personal use of several languages.</li> </ul> <p>Virtual contacts between schools to start with, followed later by face-to-face discussion with learners of other regional languages within the same family, develop intercomprehension, and negotiation and interproduction strategies via oral interaction centred on shared tasks.</p> <p>The contributions made by other school subjects help learners to achieve a better understanding of the regional language’s history, and the ways in which it relates both to the majority language, and to other majority and collateral languages in the same family. A feeling for linguistic variation gradually develops, within which the regional language offers food for first reflection on the ways in which languages develop, and their status changes – and also serves as a bridge for learning other languages.</p>

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Teaching of regional language(s)

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Teaching of the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, continues in ever-greater depth.</p> <p>Sociolinguistic awareness increases, diversifies and becomes more complex as a result of the formative reflection that characterises plurilingual and intercultural education, taking something from all school subjects and extending to the regional language.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The <i>regional language</i> and the <i>majority language</i> are also used in various subject areas. Teaching of the first and the second foreign language continues.</p> <p>Apart from its educational aspects, this scenario encourages learners to preserve their regional languages in the future.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Depending on their resources, schools give learners various options, e.g.:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ in-depth comprehension courses, based on reading texts in languages related to the regional language;</li> <li>▶ the chance to spend varying periods of time abroad, <i>inter alia</i>, in regional language areas.</li> </ul> <p>Other disciplines (literature, history, geography, philosophy, comparative literature, art history, economics, law, human and language rights, rights of minorities, education, language policy, language-teaching policy, geography of languages, geopolitics, labour market, history of civilisations, etc.) offer various subject-related perspectives on regional languages.</p>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>The regional language is also used in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ studying its literary and cultural forms, and its more formal discourse genres;</li> <li>▶ going further into its linguistic history and development in relation to the majority language;</li> <li>▶ making comparisons with other situations, similar or different;</li> <li>▶ situations involving the intercomprehension of closely related languages.</li> </ul> <p>Reflection activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ are based on a more detailed comparison of all the languages on the curriculum;</li> <li>▶ enable learners to progress from specific situations they have themselves experienced to more general and varied ones;</li> <li>▶ develop and refine sociolinguistic and metalinguistic awareness;</li> <li>▶ give learners a broader and more subtle vision of languages.</li> </ul> <p>Depending on streams, the present situation and history of these languages are approached from the standpoint of various school subjects, as in scenario 1 opposite.</p>

### **3.9.3. Prototypical case of bilingual teaching (ISCED 0 to 3)**

This case covers forms of teaching in which one (or more than one) language other than the principal language of schooling is used to teach other subjects, and in which the usual areas of the language as a school subject are enhanced by content from the other disciplines. Two languages of schooling (at least) are thus present together, although one is normally more developed than the other.<sup>105</sup> The aims of this form of teaching may differ with the status of the languages (foreign, regional, minority, migration) and vary in terms of:

- ▶ the general educational aim (learning a foreign language better, benefiting from the formative aspects of an intercultural approach to languages and other school subjects, training for plurality and diversity of world views, catering for and recognising a regional, minority or migration language that is in the learners' repertoire);
- ▶ a specific project for the languages concerned (learning a foreign language in depth, improving the status of and/or preserving a regional, minority or migration language, reviving/maintaining a lesser used language, etc.);
- ▶ the balance between the various learning processes involved (improved language acquisition in the "weakest" language and/or more varied and beneficial approaches to the building of subject knowledge).

Thinking about curriculum changes in the case of bilingual teaching necessarily covers:

- ▶ the "language-as-subject" dimension for (at least) two languages of schooling and (at least) one foreign language;
- ▶ the "language in other subjects" dimension for the languages of schooling and possibly – but less demandingly – the first foreign language;
- ▶ awareness of the various scientific cultures that underlie the subjects taught in schools, and the various ways in which they are didactically transposed, depending on school cultures in the countries where the languages taught are spoken;
- ▶ the relationship between school subjects and the usefulness/use of their processes and products outside school;
- ▶ approaches to knowledge building in each subject area in relation to the cognitive and discursive processes involved;
- ▶ the discourse genres specific to each discipline, and the language competences needed for reception and for oral and written production of those genres;
- ▶ the specific academic genres generated by school subjects and cultures;
- ▶ the content of other subjects;
- ▶ managing contact between languages, and alternating the latter with a view to developing mediation competences;
- ▶ preparing teaching materials.

Approaches to organising this kind of teaching depend on the resources that school systems can command and the competences acquired and training received by teachers. At the same time, when planning curriculum scenarios it must be remembered that bilingual education can assume very different forms, ranging from the hugely ambitious (and costly) to the more modest (and less expensive). Some models for this type of teaching, which are highly regarded and very much in vogue, may give the wrong impression that bilingual teaching is an all-or-nothing business, and that there are no cheaper, less labour-intensive ways of providing it.

The institutional forms it can take include the following:

- ▶ immersion teaching, in which all learning – at least to start with or to a very high degree – takes place through the second language of schooling. This type of teaching, designed for the English-speaking

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105. The European Commission's Eurydice report *Key data on teaching languages at school in Europe* stressed that "[i]n the great majority of European countries, certain schools offer a form of provision in which pupils are taught in at least two different languages. It generally exists in primary and general secondary education but it is not widespread" ([http://ec.europa.eu/languages/policy/strategic-framework/documents/key-data-2012\\_en.pdf](http://ec.europa.eu/languages/policy/strategic-framework/documents/key-data-2012_en.pdf)). The same Eurydice survey for 2012 states: "For instance, non-language subjects can be taught through a state language and a foreign language, or they can be taught through a state language and a regional/minority language. However, the schools offering this kind of provision are very small in numbers . . . , except in Belgium (German-speaking Community), Luxembourg and Malta where all schools operate on a 'CLIL' basis. The scarcity of this provision might partly explain why only a dozen countries or regions within countries have issued specific guidelines on the qualifications required for teachers to work in CLIL-providing-schools."

minority in Quebec from the second half of the 20th century, was very much in vogue until recently but is now beginning to be criticised in the academic world because of the underlying monolingual theory and method (separation of languages, native language as the model, bilingualism as the sum of two languages and double monolingualism);

- ▶ two-way bilingual teaching, which brings together two groups of learners, one speaking the majority language, the other a minority/immigration language (for example, American English and Spanish in the United States or German and Turkish in Germany);
- ▶ one or more subjects taught in one language, and one or more different subjects taught in the other, with or without the possibility of alternating the two languages, as time goes on, in teaching the subject(s);
- ▶ teaching that uses the two languages alternately in one or more, or all, subjects;
- ▶ teaching the second language of schooling intensively in the first year, and using it in one or more subjects in subsequent years, either alternating it or not with the first language of schooling (model adopted, at least initially, by some Eastern European countries);
- ▶ forms of Content and Language Integrated Learning or Enseignement d'une Matière Intégrée à une Langue Etrangère (CLIL/EMILE), with activities varying in number and scope in one or more subjects;
- ▶ plurilingual interdisciplinary projects, using all the languages taught;
- ▶ using plurilingual aids connected with one or more subjects in teaching languages and/or the subject(s) concerned;

In designing a curriculum for bilingual teaching, special attention should be paid to:

- ▶ the broad range of contexts to which this approach can be applied, and their special features and requirements;
- ▶ the importance of not concentrating exclusively on the most strenuous immersive models, which often pursue the illusory aim of perfection in both languages – bilingualism seen as the sum of two monolingualisms;
- ▶ the necessity of opting for approaches that take a realistic view of bilingualism, and using more flexible and variable strategies, such as language alternation (translanguaging);
- ▶ the danger of teaching only English in this way, on the assumption that the better one knows English, the better equipped one is in language terms;
- ▶ the danger of promoting only CLIL/EMILE-type approaches to the more widely spoken languages, at the expense of the commoner type of plurilingualism exemplified in the diverse repertoires of learners whose languages might benefit greatly from those approaches.

In the perspective of giving everyone access to plurilingual and intercultural education, laying down formal admission requirements for this kind of schooling would give it an elitist character at odds with the values of the Council of Europe. All pupils should benefit from bilingual education, whatever languages they speak and learn.

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Bilingual teaching	
SCENARIO 1 – Bilingual education in the language of schooling and foreign languages	SCENARIO 2 – Bilingual education, alternating two languages of schooling
<p><b>General description</b></p> <p>This scenario sets out to present – somewhat unexpectedly – a bilingual/plurilingual learning process that can be introduced at modest cost, does not require all or some teachers to undergo complex training, and can serve as a first minimum basis and preparatory test for more ambitious scenarios (cf. scenario 2).</p> <p>Alongside the development of the language of schooling and the first and second foreign language, the profile also includes openness to the range of different languages and cultures as a foundation for lifelong plurilingual learning.</p>	<p>More ambitious and demanding, this scenario is based on language alternation, and requires a bigger training effort for language and other-subject teachers.</p> <p>It could be introduced very gradually, taking scenario 1 as a starting point.</p> <p>The profile envisages very advanced competences in the two languages of schooling – without targeting native-speaker proficiency as a model for the weaker language – providing excellent foundations for the subsequent (lifelong) development of the bi-/plurilingual repertoire if the learner so desires.</p>
<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Early education for language and plurality and diversity is the aim pursued at this stage in recognising children's repertoires.</p> <p>At the same time, the language of schooling remains the only language taught as a subject and used in all fields of activity.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>The aim is acquisition of two languages, based on situations in which children learn to use them in doing things (the action-based approach). By the end of ISCED 0, all children have a repertoire comprising at least two languages, which together give them the language tools they need to pursue their schooling.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Language awareness activities are used to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ make children realise, with the help of simple listening and observation exercises, the internal diversity of the language of schooling (accents, forms of greeting, registers, etc.);</li> <li>▶ make them aware of the existence, and positive nature, of plurality in the class and its environment;</li> <li>▶ whenever possible, provide for the more or less ad hoc use of learners' languages in activities and games (existing plurilingualism);</li> <li>▶ use posters as a visual reminder of those languages' presence in the class;</li> <li>▶ at the end of pre-primary schooling, use any suitable materials available to make children aware of the existence of other languages they have never encountered.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>The life of the class, its routines and games, meals, motor and artistic activities, concept-forming activities: from the start, the two languages of schooling alternate in all these areas, following rules that have been established by the teacher with the pupils and possibly including monolingual slots in either of the two languages or bilingual slots where the choice of language is left to the individual.</p> <p>Language acquisition does not progress symmetrically: most children continue to do better in the first language of schooling. However, the two languages are used from the outset for the development of personal expression.</p> <p>The alternation criteria are established on the basis of the children's overall development, their learning progress and interaction needs: alternation is a very effective means of supporting children's acquisition of language and conceptual skills.</p>
ISCED 0	

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Bilingual teaching

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>At this stage, the language of schooling helps to pave the way for bilingual education by continuing to highlight learners' repertoires and work on their internal plurality, while bringing in new dimensions (writing and its relationship with speech, use of the language in various subjects, with their specific genres and linguistic features).</p> <p>Quite early on, at a time that may vary according to the school system, a first foreign language is taught as a subject and helps to enrich the pupils' language repertoires by taking up, expanding and refining the work on plurality initiated in the language of schooling.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>On the basis of earlier acquisitions, primary schooling tackles the written word, by teaching reading and writing more or less simultaneously in both languages. Teaching of the two languages of schooling aims at ensuring linguistic progress in both (languages as subjects) and at building knowledge and competences effectively in other subjects (languages in other subjects), by gradually imparting linguistic knowledge and competences in a manner partly geared to the genres used in the various disciplines.</p> <p>Pupils consider and discuss the influence of cultures on knowledge, on the ways in which it is formulated and the ways in which it is acquired, and this helps them to develop intercultural and metacognitive competences.</p> <p>A first foreign language is introduced as a subject and builds on the skills already existing in the other languages.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>From the second year of teaching the foreign language, written and oral materials in that language embodying discourse genres specific to the various school subjects are gradually used in activities on an ad hoc basis. These materials:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ are redundant to start with, since their content has already been covered in the language of schooling;</li> <li>▶ later provide new information, the oral/written comprehension of which is the aim of the exercise;</li> <li>▶ are exploited using the language of schooling;</li> <li>▶ help learners to acquire mediation competences, switching easily from documents in the first foreign language to others in the language of schooling, and vice versa.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Teaching of the other subjects starts with: alternation of the two languages of schooling; systematic attempts to use the second language of schooling, sometimes orally, sometimes in writing; fostering learners' mediation competences by requiring them to reformulate precisely and accurately in both languages; more help from teachers with the second language of schooling.</p> <p>Using two languages in turn to acquire subject knowledge, and using textbooks and materials from other countries, bring pupils face to face with new ways of perceiving or describing events or phenomena.</p> <p>With a view to didactic consistency and cognitive efficiency, the two languages of schooling must ensure consistent and convergent treatment, parallel or staggered, of the "language-as-subject" dimension, making due allowance for the special features of each language, and work on the oral and written discourse genres used in various subject areas (tackled in turn in one of the two languages and taken up again, worked over and reused in the other). On the same lines, the first foreign language builds on the competences and strategies already acquired in the two languages of schooling.</p>

ISCED 1

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Bilingual teaching

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Plurilingual and intercultural education also focuses, to some extent, on subject content. <i>The first foreign language</i> already has document-based links with other subjects in the language class, and at times learners are also given oral and written exercises parallel to the work they are doing on subjects taught in the language of schooling. Depending on subject-teachers' command of the first foreign language, these activities may also feature in "non-language" classes.</p> <p>A second foreign language is introduced in the same spirit as the first in ISCED 1.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p><i>The two languages of schooling</i> continue to be used, alternately, in all subjects. <i>The first foreign language</i> can be used, in parallel, as a language for occasional or partial teaching of other subjects.</p> <p>A <i>second foreign language</i> could possibly be introduced as a subject.</p> <p>All language activities are undertaken in both languages of schooling, but special emphasis is placed on written production and mediation at this stage.</p> <p>The second language of schooling is less developed than the first, and reception gets more practice than production.</p> <p>The particular attention paid to cultural aspects fosters an awareness of perceptions of diversity and focuses on an intercultural education.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>The discursive and more broadly semiotic language dimensions of other subjects are the focus of joint reflection and planning by language and other-subject teachers.</p> <p>Intercomprehension sessions may be jointly organised by teachers of different languages: learners are taught to understand other, closely related languages, and possibly – with the help of study themes – to understand the discourse genres used in other subjects.</p> <p>Activities that teach learners how to use their existing language resources and interlinguistic competences also train them to manage the plurilingual repertoire they are acquiring.</p> <p>When the second foreign language is introduced, language teachers co-operate in devising approaches and formulating aims that are convergent, though variable in timing.</p>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>In order to avoid loss of motivation in learning the second language of schooling, presenting it in new ways (cf. 3.2) and keeping pupils strongly motivated to learn it are constant concerns. Alternating its use with that of the first foreign language in a given subject (possibly changing every year) may help to revive their interest.</p> <p>As for the cultural aspects, those that are subject- and language-related and were already introduced in ISCED 1 are covered in more detail; discussion periods help teachers to find out what learners think and feel about cultural difference; individual reflection (using aids like the <i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i>) and group discussion prepare learners for intercultural education.</p>

ISCED 2



PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Bilingual teaching

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Approaches based on language alternation are thought to make learners feel comfortable with languages and increase their cognitive flexibility.</p> <p>This integrated teaching of languages and other subjects is consonant with learners' career and life plans, and may give them further opportunities of expanding their linguistic and cultural repertoires.</p> <p>On completing upper secondary schooling, learners have a good – indeed, very good – asymmetric grounding in three codes (and three/four cultures) to help them in studying other subjects, and also the ability to switch very flexibly from language to language in those other subjects.</p> <p>Mediation is regarded as a central activity with a view, <i>inter alia</i>, to further study at university, e.g. summarising in one language texts read in another, in a given subject area.</p>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>These are the same as in ISCED 2 but allow for the fact that the <i>language of schooling</i> and <i>the two foreign languages</i>, which are taught as subjects at this level, equip learners – depending on their stream – either to enter the labour market directly or to pursue further studies, and they are centred more on the literary and cultural aspects of their education.</p> <p>Since the various subjects in each stream all use languages, semiotic means and discourse genres that are far more specific and precise than at earlier stages in schooling, the language of schooling and (at least partly) the two foreign languages are both used to make learners aware of them and give them the means and support they need to acquire them to varying degrees, depending on the languages.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>From year to year, languages may alternate in subjects, or subjects alternate between languages.</p> <p>Language provision diversifies to cater for the subjects in each stream and allow for learners' options. Depending on resources, schools may offer learners one or more possibilities of repertoire enrichment (classical language classes, optional classes in other languages, which are particularly important for subjects specific to the various streams, intercomprehension classes, etc.) or diversified training methods (self-training in language or documentation centres, study periods abroad, attendance at a similar school in another country for a period of up to a year, etc.). Very intensive co-operation between teaching teams is required to ensure a broadly interdisciplinary approach.</p>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Towards the end of ISCED 3, the first foreign language may no longer be taught, but be used instead to teach another subject, alternating with the language of schooling.</p> <p>Oral and written aids in the second foreign language start to be used – for the various subjects in each stream – in language and also, when possible, other-subject classes.</p> <p>Co-operation between language teachers makes for better teaching of each language, encourages cross-linking, and helps to activate inter-language transfer strategies. Their co-operation with teachers of other subjects enables didactic bridges to be built between the subject and language dimensions of each stream (cf. also, for more detailed treatment of these questions, the scenario for vocational training, short course).</p>

ISCED 3

### **3.9.4. Prototypical case – Language teaching in secondary vocational education, short course (ISCED 3)**

Vocational education differs in many respects from one country to another. In some countries, this type of education has attained a high status and competes with general courses, that is, on the same level in terms of opportunities for entering the labour market, the value of the learning process involved and possibilities for entering further education. Here, the choice has been made to refer to situations still very commonly found in some European countries in which vocational education is neither a choice nor a route to the future. Until proper solutions are found to these situations, which are particularly problematical in a period of economic crisis and widespread youth unemployment, the choice has been made to address them here by suggesting how a plurilingual and intercultural education could contribute to enhancing the status of this form of education.

“Curriculum scenarios” for language teaching in this area should endeavour to:

- ▶ find ways of reviving students’ interest in learning languages, and the language of schooling in particular. It may be necessary to work on their sometimes “bruised” self-image, and use teacher–pupil relations and dialogue to give them confidence in their own talents, and pride in the trade they are learning, emphasising that this will make them members of a community of competences (including discursive and cultural competences) and making them aware of its inherent dignity and usefulness in and for society;
- ▶ emphasise the vocational and practical relevance of language teaching, whose methods and aims should be linked to occupational requirements, using concepts that tie vocational competences as closely as possible to the language competences that are part of them;
- ▶ avoid the two opposite dangers that may arise in this context: that of giving language teaching as a whole a hyper-vocational bias, and that of teaching languages (chiefly, but not only, foreign languages) in “standard” ways that fail to motivate learners or meet their vital needs.

The two outline scenarios produced for this prototypical case show another possibility of using the scenario-based approach: production of two scenarios in which the second can be described as a further development of the first.

PROTOTYPICAL CASE – Language teaching at secondary vocational level (short course) <sup>106</sup>	
SCENARIO 1 – Building plurilingual and intercultural competence in the context of a vocational culture	SCENARIO 2 – Management of a repertoire of plural linguistic and cultural resources in preparation for entry into the labour market
<p style="text-align: right; color: #c00000; font-weight: bold;">General description</p> <p>This first scenario sets out to forge strong links between the linguistic dimension of all the languages taught and a) the various aspects of overall personal development, b) the vocational culture that is being generated via the subjects taught in the various streams.</p> <p>The general profile of competences that the school gives learners of the three languages includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ in the language of schooling, the level of proficiency they need to organise their adult lives to optimum effect and operate as skilled professionals, whose skills extend to languages;</li> <li>▶ competences that vary between the two foreign languages, and also within each of them, depending on language activities, and also the occupation concerned;</li> <li>▶ official recognition and certification, valid for starting work, of competences acquired in the foreign languages;</li> <li>▶ differential emphasis, in the various streams, on speaking and writing competences, the first usually being seen as more important, although the second must be taken further for discourse genres needed in specific occupations;</li> <li>▶ some degree of language specialisation geared to a given occupation, but leaving scope for retraining;</li> <li>▶ acquisition of a learning culture, i.e. the ability to use learning resources outside the school, plus the ability to develop independent learning competences, which then contribute to empowerment;</li> <li>▶ intercultural competences and flexibility, as assets for starting work, and for working in an international and/or multicultural environment.<sup>107</sup></li> </ul>	<p>This second scenario includes the first, but integrates certain aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education more fully – particularly judicious development of a plural repertoire of linguistic and cultural resources. The language of schooling plays a crucial part here.</p> <p>The final profile aimed at in this scenario differs from the first less in competences than in:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ greater and deeper awareness of the potential of the individual's plurilingual and pluricultural repertoire;</li> <li>▶ increased strategic competence;</li> <li>▶ the ability to use languages in a wider range of situations;</li> <li>▶ increased intercultural competence.</li> </ul>

106. The first scenario described here assumes that learners already have some command of a first foreign language, plus the rudiments of a second. The second assumes that the first – which serves as a kind of “base scenario” – has been implemented.

107. Many firms are multicultural because they operate internationally, and the same is true of graduates of vocational schools and institutes.

<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>Since learners in this category are often insecure, and sometimes use non-standard language varieties which are frowned on at school, the priority aim is to boost their self-image and self-confidence, and, more generally, give them a stronger sense of identity. Language is – above all and largely – the instrument used to do this.</p> <p>In addition to fulfilling the aims detailed in the first scenario, all language teaching in this scenario sets out to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ give learners linguistic confidence and security;</li> <li>▶ teach them to manage their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoire with the help of appropriate strategies, transfers being one of them;</li> <li>▶ make them aware of this repertoire and equip them to enlarge it on their own;</li> <li>▶ give them the opportunity to experience and analyse diversity and otherness in a work environment, both in their own country and abroad.</li> </ul>	<p><b>Aims</b></p> <p>In the language of schooling, language competences are linked – as an integral part of vocational culture – to descriptive lists of the vocational competences required in each stream.</p> <p>This approach, which is also valid for <i>the two foreign languages</i> – but to different extents, depending on the total hours allocated to each – also takes account, from an intercultural standpoint, of issues connected both with mobility and the diversity of vocational cultures in other countries.<sup>108</sup></p> <p>In all the languages taught, encouraging pupils to read books, newspapers and magazines, etc. is seen as a key to lifelong learning, which makes it particularly important for learners in this category. This means that choosing texts and books that match their personal requirements and interests, as well as interests sparked at school, is crucial – as is developing effective reading strategies.</p>
<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>The practical methods used in this scenario involve:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ taking the various occupations as a context for “meta”-type reflection – discursive, pragmatic and sociolinguistic – aimed at making learners aware of language issues at individual, societal and vocational level and teaching them to take a critical and informed view of the power relationships which language issues generate in society</li> <li>▶ giving them, in the language of schooling and the foreign languages, linguistic mediation competences that allow them to switch easily from one discourse genre to another (from participating in discussion at a work meeting to drafting a report on that same meeting; from speaking at a trade union meeting to producing a press release; from reports in one language to summaries in another, etc.) and also intercultural mediation competences (conflict resolution, explaining different ethical positions, etc.).</li> </ul> <p>To motivate students to learn languages on their own, schools provide various options, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ occupation-gearred international projects, which involve using all their repertoire languages, plus various media;</li> </ul>	<p><b>Methods</b></p> <p>Communication competences, in the language of schooling and in foreign languages as well as in other subjects, can be consolidated and expanded in various ways, depending on the school's and the learners' possibilities and options, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ the project-based approach, which is strongly linked to learners' life and career plans;</li> <li>▶ global simulation exercises, which can be used to create virtual environments reasonably close to future work situations;</li> <li>▶ virtual and/or real exchanges with vocational schools in countries whose languages have been studied, or in others, using the three languages in rotation;</li> <li>▶ in connection with these exchanges, intercultural reflection activities, using instruments such as the <i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i>.</li> </ul> <p>Teaching of the language of schooling, and the first and second foreign languages, is based on co-ordination, which includes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ taking account of variability/variation of languages, including those in learners' repertoires;</li> <li>▶ making learners aware of the varieties they employ, with the help of materials (oral, written, video, etc.) that use them for literary and artistic purposes;</li> <li>▶ extending learners' repertoires to include more formal oral and written expression modes relevant to their future occupations;</li> </ul>

108. See [www.incaproject.eu](http://www.incaproject.eu).

- ▶ devising strategies to maintain proficiency in the languages that they know better, and help them to transfer knowledge and competences between languages;
- ▶ striking a balance between communication and (meta)reflective activities;
- ▶ selecting the activities likeliest to stimulate the (meta)linguistic and (meta)cultural development of learners in this category.

In areas relevant to learners' future occupations, teachers of the various languages co-ordinate their work with one another, and with teachers of vocational subjects, dividing tasks with a view to:

- ▶ making learners aware of the importance of the language and discourse dimensions in their future occupations, and of their future language needs when they are exercising those occupations;
- ▶ making learners aware of the importance of the intercultural dimensions in their future occupations, which may require international mobility;
- ▶ systematically using, analysing and making learners produce, in the three languages, the discourse genres appropriate to their occupations, in a manner consistent with subject curricula.

- ▶ preparation and monitoring (making contacts, writing e-mails, getting in touch by telephone, negotiating the programme, report, etc.) of work-study courses, varying greatly in length, as decided by learners, in firms in countries where the foreign languages they are taught are spoken, or in other countries where their various languages can be used in rotation as the language of communication (linguistic, cultural and vocational immersion periods).

Instead of merely co-ordinating lessons in the three languages, this scenario sets out to integrate them fully, both with one another and with vocational courses, the result being that they all coalesce and reinforce one another via:

- ▶ linking of languages in respect of:
  - aims, some of which are shared, while others are specific to each one;
  - the type of literacy aimed at, and approaches preferred, for learners in this category;
  - the type of (meta)reflection on languages and cultures to be pursued with learners, and with the vocational culture which is to be developed.
- ▶ linking of languages and specific subjects in respect of:
  - the linguistic and discursive dimension of exercising various occupations;
  - (inter)cultural aspects of the vocational culture;
  - development of a learning culture (learning to learn);
  - the presence in the same workplace of representatives of several cultures.

## Conclusion

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**T**he three chapters in this text describe, from different and complementary angles, the conditions essential to implementing plurilingual and intercultural education in curricula, and the practical consequences of doing that.

Without claiming to be exhaustive, they contain numerous recommendations and suggestions, whose vision of language teaching may seem a long way from the realities implied by existing curricula, current practices and dominant perceptions. This does not mean, however, that the gap cannot be bridged – or that our only choice is to leave things as they are.

The central aim of everything we say in these three chapters is to define plurilingual and intercultural education as precisely as possible, and so make it easier to take the right action in specific contexts. The arguments we develop help to pinpoint specific aims for new, improved curricula – as well as aspects which existing curricula cover already. Some sections of our text contain long lists of possible initiatives. Obviously, they do not list the conditions essential to making any change in curricula. In concrete and sometimes detailed terms they set out to illustrate, explain and make credible an educational objective which too many people may still see as easy to accept in theory – but hard to realise in practice.

As this text itself says more than once, rewriting the curriculum to take fuller account of the general aim of plurilingual and intercultural education is far likelier to be a step-by-step than an all-or-nothing process. The first essential is to look closely at the context concerned – its requirements, possibilities and constraints – and also the extent to which the existing curriculum actually covers those factors. After that, the recommendations we make and the approaches we suggest can easily be used to identify the most effective ways of moving ahead in that context.

The present text is intended as an aid to action – at national/regional, local and even school and class level. To serve that purpose fully, it needs to be backed by case studies and examples of initiatives actually taken with learners. The Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education<sup>109</sup> on the Council of Europe website makes a substantial contribution to that pooling of experience.

We have not been able to explore some of the aspects mentioned here (teacher training, evaluation of plurilingual and intercultural competence, etc.) in detail. Readers can again consult the Platform for linked studies – studies which express the authors' views alone, but discuss those aspects in more detail and with broader perspective.

Finally, we need to remember that plurilingual and intercultural education involves learners actively. It develops their ability to reflect on what they are doing, assess themselves and study independently, and it makes them aware of their language repertoire and its value. Although we have said relatively little about the *European Language Portfolio* and the *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters*, or similar pedagogic approaches, they are by their nature useful supports in this process.

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109. [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform).



# Appendices

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**Appendix I** – Outline for a survey on social perceptions of languages and how they are dealt with in the curriculum

**Appendix II** – Outline for a local language survey

**Appendix III** – Outline for specification of teachers' competences with a view to plurilingual and intercultural education

**Appendix IV** – Instruments and resources for developing and implementing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

- ▶ Language education policies
- ▶ The intercultural dimension
- ▶ Reference frameworks
- ▶ Evaluation, examinations and tests in foreign languages
- ▶ Evaluation of cross-cutting competences and resources and intercultural competences
- ▶ Learner self-assessment and self-development
- ▶ The language(s) of schooling
- ▶ Public information and awareness
- ▶ Training for foreign language teachers
- ▶ Training for all teachers in a cross-cutting perspective and plurilingual and intercultural education
- ▶ Self-assessment of language abilities in a foreign language

**Appendix V** – Learning methods and activities

**Appendix VI** – Taking into account the linguistic and cultural repertoire of allophone pupils



## Appendix I

# Outline for a survey on social perceptions of languages and how they are dealt with in the curriculum

**T**he following protocol is suggested as a basis for drawing up ad hoc surveys that can be adapted to suit the particular context.

See also Beacco J.-C. and Byram M. (2007), *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe – From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education*, main version, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg: Chapter 3 “The development of language education policies: social factors in decision making” (in particular 3.1. Public opinion and languages and 5.3. Disseminating plurilingualism: creating social consensus).

<i>Knowing how public opinion perceives the different languages and variants, plurilingualism and interculturality</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ What languages are specifically requested by families, pupils and public opinion? For what purposes?</li><li>▶ Which language choices are influenced by social aspirations? By the need to be recognised and valued? By cultural factors? By fashion? By deep-rooted traditions?</li><li>▶ What opinions and perceptions are found with regard to:<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>– the languages and variants present in society, including regional, minority and immigrant languages?</li><li>– the language(s) of schooling?</li><li>– the languages taught at school?</li><li>– plurilingual and intercultural education?</li><li>– bilingual/plurilingual people?</li><li>– the presence of different cultures?</li></ul></li><li>▶ What is the position of families speaking a minority, regional or immigrant language on the use of those languages in the home? The teaching of those languages at school?</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul>
<i>Analysing learners' language needs</i>	<p>What languages meet</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ learners' educational needs as individuals and as citizens?</li><li>▶ learners' current needs and learning motivation?</li><li>▶ their foreseeable needs for the future? Specific needs related to their future careers?</li><li>▶ possible, currently unforeseeable, needs, which may correspond to future resources?</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul>
<i>Analysing context-driven language needs</i>	<p>What languages would be useful for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ social cohesion and inclusion?</li><li>▶ the needs of society, the economy and the employment market?</li><li>▶ relations between countries or cross-border regions?</li><li>▶ cultural needs and the promotion of (inter)cultural values?</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul>

<p><i>Ascertaining the degree to which international policies on linguistic rights are reflected in existing curricula</i></p>	<p>What steps have been taken or are planned to implement:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ the European Charter for Regional or Minority Languages</li> <li>▶ the Council of Europe Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities</li> <li>▶ the Hague Recommendations regarding the education rights of national minorities</li> <li>▶ the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights (supported by UNESCO)</li> <li>▶ Resolution (69) 2, and Recommendations No. R (82) 18 and (98) 6 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states on modern languages</li> <li>▶ the Council of Europe concept paper on “The linguistic and educational integration of children and adolescents from migrant backgrounds”</li> <li>▶ Recommendation No. R (2000) 4 of the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe to member states on the education of Roma/Gypsy children in Europe</li> <li>▶ ...</li> </ul>
<p><i>Analysing existing language curricula and current language provision in schools and other institutions</i></p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ What languages are provided on a continuous basis in schools from ISCED 0 to ISCED 3 <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– language(s) of schooling: one, two, three?</li> <li>– foreign languages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• how many foreign languages can a learner learn?</li> <li>• is provision highly varied or is it limited to a few languages?</li> <li>• which levels and courses offer more languages, and which offer fewer languages? What are the reasons for this?</li> </ul> </li> <li>– classical languages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• how many languages are on offer?</li> <li>• for all learners?</li> <li>• at what levels and on what courses?</li> </ul> </li> <li>– regional, minority and immigrant languages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• are they taught as a subject and/or as the language of other subjects for learners whose first language they are?</li> <li>• if so, is this a transitional measure?</li> <li>• if so, when does teaching of them start? When does it end?</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> <li>▶ To what extent do current curricula meet the needs highlighted by the analysis? What are the strengths to be retained and built on? What are the weaknesses and shortcomings to be gradually eliminated?</li> <li>▶ Do institutions other than the state school system offer language teaching? Which ones?</li> <li>▶ Is out-of-school support provided for regional, minority and immigrant languages?</li> <li>▶ ...</li> </ul>

## Appendix II

# Outline for a local language survey

See also Beacco J.-C. and Byram M. (2007), *Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe – From linguistic diversity to plurilingual education*, main version, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg: Chapter 3 “The development of language education policies: social factors in decision making”, in particular 3.2 European societies and languages: assisting and anticipating change.

<i>Identifying and describing learner categories</i>	<p><i>Number and percentage:</i></p> <p>Totals for</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ pupils belonging to a minority</li><li>▶ newly arrived pupils</li><li>▶ among these, pupils who have already attended school and those who have not</li><li>▶ pupils speaking variants of the language of schooling</li><li>▶ pupils from disadvantaged backgrounds</li><li>▶ pupils with handicaps related to languages and language</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul> <p><i>Languages and language competences:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ languages spoken at home (official or majority, regional, minority, immigrant)</li><li>▶ only understood at home (official or majority, regional, minority, immigrant)</li><li>▶ initial competences in the language of schooling</li><li>▶ initial competences in foreign languages</li><li>▶ language “wishes” on the part of learners and their reasons for wishing to learn them</li><li>▶ languages “encountered” on holiday, through travel or other experiences</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul> <p><i>Factors which may influence language learning:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ age and level of cognitive development</li><li>▶ relationship with languages according to age, gender, origins, sociocultural group, etc.</li><li>▶ the images conveyed by languages among young people/in society</li><li>▶ parental, social and public perceptions regarding “languages of high status and power”</li><li>▶ stereotypes about languages (easy/simple v. difficult/complex, pleasant v. unpleasant, musical, rigid/logical, etc.)</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul> <p><i>Knowledge of other cultures:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ contacts, however frequent, with people of other cultures</li><li>▶ tourism</li><li>▶ trips to the country of origin</li><li>▶ contacts and meetings with emigrant relatives</li><li>▶ reading novels, books or other documents</li><li>▶ reports and features in the media (TV, radio, Internet, newspapers, magazines, etc.)</li><li>▶ ...</li></ul>
<i>Specifying the context in which languages are used</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>▶ the fields in which they are used</li><li>▶ the situations</li><li>▶ the conditions and constraints</li></ul>

## Appendix III

# Outline for specification of teachers' competences with a view to plurilingual and intercultural education

**A** plurilingual and intercultural education perspective requires teachers, and in the first instance language teachers, to possess in addition to the usual competences:

### A plurilingual repertoire and language competences

- ▶ a language competence specific to the teaching profession: in foreign languages, the ability to provide teaching focused on communication and content; in the language of schooling or migration/regional languages, the ability to teach subject content in all subjects;
- ▶ an ability to think about languages and the development of plurilingual repertoires, i.e. metalinguistic and cross-cutting competences, particularly as regards bridge building between languages and with the language of schooling;
- ▶ some degree of expertise in plurilingualism: use of existing resources, management of plurilingual situations, awareness and use of the internal variability of any language, etc.
- ▶ ...

### *Decisions to be taken*

- ▶ What standard should teachers be expected and enabled to achieve in modern languages, migration/regional languages and the languages of schooling:
  - for in-depth teaching of a modern foreign language?
  - to teach subject content in that language?
  - simply to use plurilingual materials?
  - to develop intercomprehension between related languages?
- ▶ How can that standard be guaranteed, monitored and measured, and which body would be responsible for that?
- ▶ ...

### Training in interculturality and its values

- ▶ knowledge of the relationship between languages and cultures;
- ▶ a range of knowledge, skills and attitudes with regard to intercultural dialogue;
- ▶ experience of how to conduct classwork on interculturality which is not confined to anecdotal or picturesque aspects but activates the following among learners:
  - the ability to move away from their own viewpoint;
  - an ability to respect and/or take on another person's viewpoint;
  - openness and curiosity about the diversity and wealth of cultures;
  - the ability to observe and describe, with an attitude of reflexivity, one's own behaviour and that of the other person in an intercultural encounter;
  - a benevolent attitude towards people of other cultures;
  - ...

### **A responsible professional commitment**

- ▶ an appropriate view of the learner:
  - as a social player;
  - as an informed party with his or her own personality;
  - as the main figure in his or her own learning;
  - ...
- ▶ an ethical attitude involving respect for and use of the knowledge, feelings and experiences of all learners, and especially their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires, regardless of their origins and the group they belong to;
- ▶ taking responsibility for motivating all learners to develop their plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires;
- ▶ awareness of the duty to guarantee all learners plurilingual and intercultural education as an integral part of a quality education;
- ▶ a commitment to finding varied paths enabling each learner to acquire the key competences and achieve the standards set;
- ▶ ...

### **For the teaching of foreign languages, teaching skills relating to:**

- ▶ the incorporation of methodologies for communication-based teaching, the competence-based approach, an actional approach and a mediation-based approach;
- ▶ the incorporation of reflexive approaches (grammar, strategies, etc.);
- ▶ methodologies related specifically to the development of plurilingualism and interculturality (EOLE, intercomprehension, etc.);
- ▶ bilingual teaching;
- ▶ modern assessment techniques;
- ▶ working with a portfolio (e.g. the *European Language Portfolio*);
- ▶ ...

### **Training common to all teachers (of foreign languages, languages of schooling and other subjects)**

- ▶ exploration of the language and discourse dimension of the various subjects;
- ▶ identification of areas of co-operation:
  - convergences;
  - plural and/or partial approaches;
  - learning through intercultural encounters;
  - integrated language teaching;
  - CLIL/EMILE/integration of languages and subject content;
  - ...
- ▶ development of plurilingual materials for subjects;
- ▶ choice of appropriate teaching methodologies and strategies;
- ▶ classroom experiments based on action-research approaches;
- ▶ identification of cognitive and language gains from integrated teaching of languages and content;
- ▶ development of independent and lifelong learning;
- ▶ training in co-operation and interdisciplinarity;
- ▶ ...

### **Organisation of training schemes**

- ▶ What kinds of training should be offered to meet teachers' needs and constraints, from among the following:

#### *Training outside school*

- ▶ traineeships in the countries where the target language is spoken;
- ▶ local training courses;
- ▶ distance or combined distance and face-to-face training;
- ▶ participation in international projects;
- ▶ ...

#### *Training in school and in the classroom*

- ▶ action-research projects;
- ▶ observation sessions in the classroom and reflective practice outside the classroom;
- ▶ on-site traineeships;
- ▶ ...

## Appendix IV

# Instruments and resources for developing and implementing curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education

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**H**owever complex it may appear to be and whatever the level, the work of curriculum development can draw on instruments framed and approaches experimented with at European level. Subject to the adjustments which are always necessary, these can be used and applied in any context.

### European instruments

Various instruments have been framed by the Council of Europe over the years in line with its principles and values in the field of human rights protection.

These include:

- ▶ documents setting out policies inspired by those principles and values in the field of education and language teaching;
- ▶ more technical instruments for implementing the language education policies advocated by the Council of Europe.

A small number of documents and instruments have been selected here which seem particularly relevant to curricular reflection on plurilingual and intercultural education; many other tools are also available, particularly from the European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML) in Graz, an institution set up by the Council of Europe to “encourage excellence and innovation in language teaching and to help Europeans learn languages more efficiently” and “to act as a catalyst for reform in the teaching and learning of languages”<sup>110</sup>

For each document or instrument listed, the table gives a brief description and indicates the target groups, how it might be used with a view to curriculum development and, where available, the direct links on the websites of the Council of Europe’s Language Policy Division, the ECML and the European Commission.

This presentation starts with the more general documents and projects on language policies and ends with the more operational tools and instruments.

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<sup>110</sup>. Cf. ECML website: [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → About us. The centre’s documents and instruments, which are directly accessible online, are the result of projects carried out by international teams: [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → Resources.

## Language education policies

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURLINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Guide for the development of language education policies in Europe</i> (2007) and the 21 reference studies providing in-depth analysis of various issues relating to languages and language policies (social representations, role of English, <i>educazione linguistica</i>, etc.)</p>	<p>Underlining the need to develop language education policies to combat social exclusion and strengthen democratic citizenship in Europe, the <i>Guide</i> identifies procedures, methodologies and instruments for implementing such policies in order to preserve the linguistic diversity of European societies and develop plurilingual and intercultural competence.</p>	<p>All decision makers responsible for framing language education policies.</p> <p><i>Main version:</i> those who decide language education policies</p> <p><i>Executive version:</i> decision makers involved in language education policies but who may have no specialist knowledge of technical matters in the field.</p>	<p>Framework document providing an overview of decisions to be taken in the field of language education policy.</p> <p>In particular, the whole of Part III in both versions – entitled “Organisational forms of plurilingual education” – and the two chapters into which it is divided:</p> <p>5. “The creation of a culture of plurilingualism” and</p> <p>6. “Organising plurilingual education”</p> <p>abound in very practical, almost operational, ideas and suggestions for developing and implementing a plurilingual and intercultural curriculum.</p> <p>The <i>Guide</i> also presents and comments on the founding texts of the Council of Europe concerning plurilingualism and language policies (paragraph 2.2.1, pp. 34–5).</p> <p>The glossary (Appendix 2) of the main version, which defines the key concepts of language education policy, can be very useful for establishing a common language.</p>	<p><i>Guide</i> and studies: <a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Policy instruments</p>
<p>Language Education Policy Profiles (2002)</p>	<p>This is a process of reflection by representatives of the bodies concerned (authorities and members of civil society) on their language education policy, which offers them the opportunity to undertake a self-evaluation in a spirit of dialogue with Council of Europe experts. It is a forward-looking approach focusing on policy developments in a country, region or city, with the Council of Europe experts acting as catalysts in this process.</p>	<p>Council of Europe member states, European cities and regions.</p>	<p>This is a useful process at any time, but especially before any reform of the language curriculum: the profile process helps the various local players to become more aware of the characteristics of the sociocultural environment and of language teaching, including at school, and thus encourages consideration of them.</p>	<p>Profiles: <a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Policy instruments</p>



## The intercultural dimension

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue "Living together as equals in dignity"</i> (2008)</p>	<p>Launched in 2008 (European Year of Intercultural Dialogue) by the Ministers for Foreign Affairs of the 47 Council of Europe member states, the White Paper sets various guidelines for the promotion of intercultural dialogue and mutual respect and understanding based on the Organisation's core values.</p>	<p>Various stakeholders in European countries: policy makers and practitioners in the intercultural field.</p>	<p>The White Paper is of particular value for reflecting on the intercultural aspects of plurilingual and intercultural education during the process of curriculum development.</p> <p>It is conceived as a "significant pan-European contribution to an international discussion steadily gaining momentum".</p> <p>Chapter 4 – "Five policy approaches to the promotion of intercultural dialogue" – has a section 4.3 devoted to the theme "Learning and teaching intercultural competences".</p> <p>Chapter 5 – "Recommendations and policy orientation for future action: the shared responsibility of the core actors" – details in section 5.3 of the recommendations for "Learning and teaching intercultural competences".</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/dialogue">www.coe.int/dialogue</a></p>
<p><i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i> (AIE) + various supporting documents (2009) and <i>Images of Others: an Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media</i> (AIEVM) (2014)</p>	<p>The <i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i> (AIE) and <i>Images of Others: an Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media</i> (AIEVM) were designed to follow up the recommendations of the Council of Europe's White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue "Living together as equals in dignity", section 5.3.</p> <p>"Learning and teaching intercultural competences" (White Paper, paragraph 152) is an example of those "complementary tools [which] should be developed to encourage students to exercise independent critical faculties including to reflect critically on their own responses and attitudes to experiences of other cultures" (ibid.).</p>	<p>All learners. There are two versions of the <i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i>: a standard version and a version for younger learners.</p>	<p>Tools designed to encourage people to think about intercultural competences in the context of plurilingual and intercultural education, the AIE and the AIEVM also offer a useful approach to thinking about the goals of intercultural education and their evaluation. An intercultural event experienced at first hand or through visual media is analysed through the answers to a questionnaire, which gradually lead the learner to become aware of his/her cultural reflexes and to take on the other person's viewpoint.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-autobiography">www.coe.int/lang-autobiography</a></p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Developing intercultural competence through education</i> (2014)</p>	<p>This third book in the Pestalozzi series, intended as a reference document, “takes one step further on the way to fully integrating intercultural competences as a key competence. It seeks to offer an educational rationale and conceptual framework for the development of intercultural competence as well as describe the constitutive elements of intercultural competence to be developed in and through education in formal, non-formal and informal contexts”.</p>	<p>Anyone holding responsibilities relating to the acquisition of intercultural competence: teachers and teacher trainers, but also parents and guardians, counsellors and coaches, textbook writers and decision makers in the fields of informal, non-formal and formal education.</p>	<p>“This document discusses the development of intercultural competence through education. It does so by describing in detail the nature of intercultural competence and its components, namely the specific attitudes, knowledge, understanding, skills and actions which together enable individuals to understand themselves and others in a context of diversity, and to interact and communicate with those who are perceived to have different cultural affiliations from their own. This document also offers a rationale for the systematic development of this competence, and describes a range of pedagogical and methodological approaches which are appropriate for its development in different educational contexts.”</p> <p>It “takes full account of research and achievements in this field, including those of other international organisations, and bases itself on the fundamental principles and values of the Council of Europe”.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/pestaalozzi">www.coe.int/pestaalozzi</a></p>
<p>Intercultural Calendar for Early Multilingual Learning</p>	<p>The project has developed materials for teaching languages, its main aim being to motivate early learners to “foreign language learning and to improve intercultural understanding and multilingual comprehension”. These learning tools, which are innovative both from the linguistic standpoint and in terms of the discovery and understanding of other cultures, refer to different language groups (Greek, Romance, Germanic, Slavic and Uralic).</p> <p>The interactive intercultural calendar enables children to familiarise themselves with the different linguistic and cultural environments of the seven European countries participating in the project (EL, FR, ES, UK, DE, EE, CZ).</p>	<p>Teachers and learners in pre-primary and primary education (age 5-7).</p>	<p>The project is based on the ideas of “co-operation of cultures” and intercultural understanding. Children aged 5-7 will be able to acquire basic listening, comprehension, speaking and writing skills in one of the seven language versions available.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.incaproject.eu">www.incaproject.eu</a></p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p>A Framework of Reference for Competences for a Culture of Democracy</p>	<p>The Council of Europe's Education Department is currently developing a Framework of Competences for a Culture of Democracy. It is overseen by the Council of Europe's Steering Committee for Educational Policy and Practice (CDPPE).</p> <p>From an education point of view, the starting point for this project is the assertion that preparation for life as active citizens in democratic societies is one of the major purposes of education. To make this a reality, European education systems need to be able to specify what students at different levels should know, understand and be able to do in this respect, and what attitudes they should develop.</p> <p>The project does not start entirely from scratch. It is based on other Council of Europe work, in particular the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The Council of Europe's work on Education for Democratic Citizenship and Human Rights Education, and in particular the EDC/HRE Charter, is an important part of the background for this project. It also takes into account national frameworks developed by the member states.</p> <p>The aim is to cover all the education domains at all levels. Therefore, the ad hoc group includes experts from all major policy areas covered by the Council of Europe's Education programme. The publication of the framework, which will include a model of competences, descriptors and several tools to support its implementation, is planned for 2017.</p>	<p>The main target group for the project is education policy makers and practitioners, including ministries, schools and universities, teachers, teacher educators and curriculum developers.</p>	<p>"It is important to link expected learning outcomes as concerns democracy and intercultural dialogue to different levels of formal education. The project aims to describe the main competences citizens require in order to participate effectively in democratic society and in intercultural dialogue. The competences and their descriptors (i.e. indicators) are intended as guidelines or references for member states, which will be able to use and adapt them in their own education system, at all levels of education, as they see fit."</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/competences">www.coe.int/competences</a></p>

## Reference frameworks

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURLINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment</i> (CEFR) (2001)</p> <p>Bank of CEFR-related descriptors</p> <p>Guide for Users</p>	<p>This is an instrument which describes as comprehensively as possible:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ all language skills;</li> <li>▶ all the knowledge required to develop them;</li> <li>▶ all the situations and fields in which one may be called on to use a foreign language to communicate socially.</li> </ul> <p>The CEFR has developed a description of the process of mastering a language by type of competence and sub-competence, using descriptors for each competence or sub-competence. The progressive mastery of each competence is graded on a six-level scale (A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2).</p>	<p>Teachers,<sup>111</sup> examiners, curriculum and syllabus designers, textbook writers, teacher trainers, administrators and everyone involved in language teaching and the testing of language skills.</p>	<p>This is a reference tool for the development of foreign language curricula.</p> <p>It facilitates a clear definition of teaching and learning objectives and methods and provides the necessary tools for assessment of proficiency.</p> <p>The competence levels are described without reference to any specific language. They can be used to describe learners' competence profiles and to harmonise their assessment.</p> <p>Additional CEFR descriptors will be published on the Council of Europe website in 2016.</p> <p>The text is also important for its principles. Chapter 8 – "Linguistic diversification and the curriculum" – focuses on curricular issues in the context of plurilingual and intercultural education.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR">www.coe.int/lang-CEFR</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR">www.coe.int/lang-CEFR</a> → Data bank of descriptors</p> <p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR">www.coe.int/lang-CEFR</a> → Supporting material and publications → Guide for Users</p>
<p>Illustrations of levels of language proficiency</p>	<p>Material illustrating the CEFR reference levels in different languages is available on the Council of Europe website: samples of oral production illustrating the six levels are available on DVDs and online; some samples of written production are also available online. Items and tasks for testing <i>reading</i> and <i>listening</i> skills in several languages are available on CD-ROM; more will be available online in 2016.</p>	<p>Professionals in the field of languages.</p>	<p>This material facilitates a common interpretation of the CEFR reference levels. It can be used by language teachers (not necessarily teachers of the same language) to gain practice at jointly defining language competences. It could thus serve, along with the CEFR, to create a common language for teachers at the same school and enable them to base their assessments on common criteria.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-CEFR">www.coe.int/lang-CEFR</a> → Illustrations of levels of language proficiency</p>

111. For use of the CEFR by a teacher, see Goullier F. (2006), *Council of Europe tools for language teaching – Common framework of reference and portfolios*, Didier, Paris, p. 128. Part 1 and Part 2 ([www.coe.int/lang](http://www.coe.int/lang) → Resources/Publications → Publications on the CEFR).

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Framework of reference for early second language acquisition</i>, under the auspices of Nederlandse Taalunie (2009)</p>	<p>This <i>Framework of reference for early second language acquisition</i> concerns the language of schooling of the host country of immigrant pre-school children, but its aims are equally relevant to children whose mother tongue is the same as the language of schooling.</p>	<p>This document is aimed at:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ teachers of pre-school children and their hierarchy, as a tool for scrutinising their language teaching and establishing a language policy;</li> <li>▶ materials developers, inspectors;</li> <li>▶ teaching assistants, teacher trainers;</li> <li>▶ educationalists and researchers;</li> <li>▶ those responsible for policies for promoting the teaching of second languages test developers.</li> </ul>	<p>This document can be a useful tool in developing a curriculum for the language of schooling at pre-school level, for immigrant and other children.</p> <p>The <i>Framework</i> contains minimum objectives defining what children should already be able to do with the language of schooling when entering primary education to avoid falling behind very quickly. The aim is to ensure that all pre-school children have the resources to continue their schooling successfully.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-Platform">www.coe.int/lang-Platform</a> → Language(s) of schooling</p>
<p>A <i>curriculum framework for Romani</i> (CFR), developed in co-operation with the European Roma and Travellers Forum (CFR) (2008)</p> <p>Original versions in English and Romani, versions in Czech, German, Lovari, North Central Romani and Serbian</p>	<p>A <i>curriculum framework for Romani</i> is based on the CFR and:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ covers the first four levels of the CEFR (A1, A2, B1, B2);</li> <li>▶ concerns three age groups: 3-6 years; 6-10 years; 10-14/15 years;</li> <li>▶ addresses 11 themes.</li> </ul> <p>Roma culture ('Romanipe') is treated as a dimension cutting across the 11 themes. The CFR also offers checklists for self-assessment.</p> <p>Two models of portfolios have been developed for primary and secondary, as well as a Handbook for teachers.</p>	<p>The same as for the CEFR (see above), but confined to the Romani language.</p>	<p>Can be used to develop curricula for three categories of learners:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ those for whom Romani is also the language of schooling;</li> <li>▶ those who only have receptive competence in Romani;</li> <li>▶ those for whom Romani is not the language spoken in the home.</li> </ul>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-Romani">www.coe.int/lang-Romani</a> →</p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURLINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p>A <i>framework of reference for pluralistic approaches to languages and cultures</i> (FREPA) – ECML</p>	<p>The FREPA is a reference instrument developed by the ECML. It focuses on knowledge, attitudes and skills whose acquisition can be facilitated more or less exclusively by pluralistic approaches.</p>	<p>All those involved in the education and training system.</p>	<p>The FREPA can be useful in developing language curricula, in order to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ foster progress in the knowledge, attitudes and skills involved in pluralistic approaches,</li> <li>▶ link these approaches together and link them with the learning of language competences in a specific language and with input from non-linguistic subjects.</li> </ul>	<p>www.ecml.at → Resources → FREPA</p>
<p><i>Multilingualism Curriculum /Curriculum Mehrsprachigkeit</i> (ÖSZ) – Krumm H.-J. and Reich H. H. (2010) (in English and German)</p>	<p>The document proposes aims, content and practical methods for guiding and implementing a plurilingual perspective in education. It structures the approach to language around four areas: perceiving and managing multilingual situations, comparing languages, analysis of social and cultural aspects of languages, and acquisition of language learning strategies.</p>	<p>Professionals in the field of languages/plurilingualism.</p>	<p>The <i>Multilingualism Curriculum</i> provides a sound basis for integrated curriculum development and plurilingualism in general. It aims to help decision makers in the field of languages move towards real recognition of all pupils' plurilingual resources.  (See also below the <i>Framework model for basic competences for language education for all teaching staff</i>, based on the <i>Multilingualism Curriculum</i>.)</p>	<p>www.oesz.at</p>

### Evaluation, examinations and tests in foreign languages<sup>112</sup>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Manual for relating language examinations to the Common European Framework for Languages</i> (CEFR) (2009)</p>	<p>Its primary aim is to help:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ apply transparent, practical procedures in order to situate examinations in relation to the CEFR;</li> <li>▶ report on them in a cumulative process of continuing improvement.</li> </ul>	<p>Those responsible for examinations.<sup>113</sup></p>	<p>The <i>Manual</i> could be useful, among other things, at the stage where, after competence profiles have been established for the key levels of the school system based on the CEFR and the reference descriptions, thought is given to the types of examination, centralised or not, that pupils should be required to take. In this process, attention will need to be focused on all the languages taught at school and on how to evaluate the competences specific to plurilingual and intercultural education.</p>	<p>www.coe.int/lang-CEFR → The CEFR and language examinations: a toolkit</p>
<p><i>Forms for detailed analysis of examinations or tests</i> (2009)</p>	<p>Forms and tables for each of the Communicative Language Activities (CEFR, 4.4) and for the Aspects of Communicative Language Competence (CEFR, 5.2). In most of the forms, a short description, reference and/or justification is asked for.</p>	<p>Examination designers; teachers.</p>	<p>The type of analysis proposed may be appropriate when assessing the relevance of existing examinations and tests and their consistency with the principles adopted in new curricula. The forms can be used to analyse examinations and tests in detail and relate them to the CEFR sub-scales.</p>	<p>www.coe.int/lang-CEFR → The CEFR and language examinations: a toolkit</p>
<p>Reference supplement to the manual for relating language examinations to the CEFR</p>	<p>This supplement to the <i>Manual for relating language examinations to the CEFR</i> contains three main components: quantitative and qualitative considerations in relating certificates and diplomas to the CEFR and different approaches in standard setting.</p>	<p>Users of the <i>Manual</i> (examination designers, teachers).</p>	<p>Its aim is to provide the users of the <i>Manual</i> with additional information which will help them in their efforts to relate their certificates and diplomas to the CEFR.</p>	<p>www.coe.int/lang-CEFR → The CEFR and language examinations: a toolkit</p>

112. Eurydice: *Languages in secondary education: an overview of national tests in Europe – 2014/15* (most countries claim that their examinations are linked to the CEFR).

113. For use of the CEFR in evaluative practices in education, see also: Tagliante C. (2005), *L'évaluation et le Cadre européen commun*, Clé internationale, Paris.

### ***Evaluation of cross-cutting competences and resources and intercultural competences***

For a discussion of ways of assessing cross-cutting competences and resources (including interculturality) and the related challenges, refer to the study:

- ▶ “Assessment in plurilingual and intercultural education” (Lenz P. and Berthele R. 2010), [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Curricula and Evaluation

For further discussion in connection with the assessment of intercultural competences, see also:

- ▶ “Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching” (Byram, Grybkova and Starkey 2002), [www.coe.int/lang/](http://www.coe.int/lang/) → Publications and documents
- ▶ *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* and *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media*, [www.coe.int/lang-autobiography](http://www.coe.int/lang-autobiography)
- ▶ “Living together as equals in culturally diverse democratic societies: a model of the competences required for democratic culture”, [www.coe.int/competences](http://www.coe.int/competences)
- ▶ “Developing intercultural competence through education: [www.coe.int/pestalozzi](http://www.coe.int/pestalozzi) (for further details, see appendices)
- ▶ Zarate G. (2003), *Cultural mediation in language learning and teaching*, Available at [http://archive.ecml.at/documents/pub122E2004\\_Zarate.pdf](http://archive.ecml.at/documents/pub122E2004_Zarate.pdf), accessed on 17 March 2016.



### Learner self-assessment and self-development

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<i>European Language Portfolio</i> (ELP)	The ELP is a personal document which encourages learners to analyse, evaluate and build on their school and out-of-school language learning and their cultural experiences.	Learners and their language teachers. There are different versions adapted to the particular educational context and age group.	Competence scales, a language biography and a dossier used to keep samples of personal work enable each learner to establish his/her own language and cultural profile, monitor its development throughout the learning process and reflect on his/her own learning.  The descriptors used in the portfolios already produced can be a source of inspiration to curriculum designers.  The self-assessment approach used in the portfolios could be proposed as an integral part of the assessment process.	<a href="http://www.coe.int/portfolio">www.coe.int/portfolio</a>

NB: The *Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters* (AIE) (2009) and *Images of Others: an Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media* (AIEMV) (2014) (see above in *The intercultural dimension*) also figure among the self-assessment tools promoting learner self-development.

### The language(s) of schooling

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<i>Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education</i> (2009)	This is an instrument enabling member states to develop curricula for languages of schooling and all language teaching by drawing on the experience and expertise of other member states.  The concept of plurilingual and intercultural education, based on a comprehensive and integrated approach to languages in education (learners' language and cultural repertoires) and for education (all languages taught or learned), provides a unifying framework for reflection and for curriculum development.	People in the member states involved, at various levels of responsibility, in framing language education policies and developing curricula covering all languages in and for education.	The <i>Platform</i> offers reference tools that can be used to analyse and construct curricula for languages: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ taught at school as subjects in their own right;</li> <li>▶ used for the teaching of other subjects.</li> </ul> It is an open and dynamic resource, with a system of definitions, points of reference, descriptions and descriptors, studies and good practices which member states can use in support of their policy to promote equal access to quality education according to their particular needs, resources and educational culture.	<a href="http://www.coe.int/language-platform">www.coe.int/language-platform</a>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p>Studies on</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ The language(s) of schooling as subject</li> <li>▶ Language(s) in other subjects</li> </ul> <p>on the</p> <p><i>Platform of resources and references for plurilingual and intercultural education</i></p> <p>Council of Europe, Strasbourg</p>	<p>Two papers providing an introduction to the issues:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Byram M. (2006), "Languages and identities";</li> <li>▶ Vollmer H. (2009), "Language in other subjects".</li> </ul> <p>A paper providing a kind of general protocol for defining the linguistic dimensions of school subjects:</p> <p>Beacco J.-C., Coste D., van de Ven, P.-H. and Vollmer H. (2010), "Language and school subjects – Linguistic dimensions of knowledge building in school subjects".</p> <p>Four studies putting the protocol into practice for four school subjects: "Items for a description of linguistic competence in the language of schooling necessary for teaching/learning [a school subject] (end of obligatory education) – An approach with reference points":</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Beacco J.-C., (2010): <i>History</i></li> <li>▶ Vollmer H. (2010): <i>Science</i></li> <li>▶ Pieper I. (2011): <i>Literature</i></li> <li>▶ Linneweber-Lammerskitten H. (2012): <i>Mathematics</i></li> </ul>	<p>People in the member states involved, at various levels of responsibility, in framing language education policies and developing curricula for the language(s) of schooling as subject and in other subjects.</p>	<p>It will be possible to use these studies at the different stages of curriculum development to bring out the language dimensions of school subjects other than languages. They will also be useful in bilingual teaching or where foreign languages are used in school subjects.</p>	<p>www.coe.int/lang-platform/  → Language(s) in other subjects  → Language as a subject</p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>The language dimension in all subjects – A Handbook for curriculum development and teacher training</i></p>	<p>The <i>Handbook</i> is a policy/working document that seeks to co-ordinate the approach to language education in schools through convergences in the linguistic dimensions of the various subjects.</p> <p>It proposes measures for making explicit, in curricula, pedagogic material and teacher training, the specific linguistic norms and competences which learners must be able to master in individual school subjects, as well as the learning modalities that should allow all learners, and in particular the most vulnerable among them, to be exposed to diversified language-learning situations to develop their cognitive and linguistic capacities.</p>	<p>People in the member states involved, at various levels of responsibility, in framing language education policies, developing curricula and ensuring teacher training for all subjects.</p>		<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-platform/">www.coe.int/lang-platform/</a> → Language(s) in other subjects</p>

### Public information and awareness

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p>European Day of Languages (EDL) (2001)</p>	<p>The European Day of Languages was declared by the Council of Europe at the end of the European Year of Languages (2001) as an event held every year on 26 September. It is recommended that “the Day be organised in a decentralised and flexible manner according to the wishes and resources of member states, which would thus enable them to better define their own approaches”.</p>	<p>All citizens:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ the general public</li> <li>▶ schools</li> <li>▶ policy makers</li> <li>▶ the voluntary sector</li> </ul>	<p>The European Day of Languages is to be used as a means of educating, informing and raising awareness among the public at large about plurilingual and intercultural education issues. Its aims are to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ alert the public to the importance of language learning and diversifying the range of languages learned in order to increase plurilingualism and intercultural understanding;</li> <li>▶ promote the rich linguistic and cultural diversity of Europe, which must be preserved and fostered;</li> <li>▶ encourage lifelong language learning in and out of school, whether for study purposes, for professional needs, for the purposes of mobility or just for pleasure and exchanges.</li> </ul>	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/edl">www.coe.int/edl</a></p>

## Training for foreign language teachers

The chapters of this document have already presented initial and in-service teacher training as a crucial element in the successful implementation of a curriculum for plurilingual and intercultural education. Some documents which can serve as aids to reflection on this theme are listed here.

The table below offers some aids to thinking about teacher training. Some are European Commission documents. The dimensions of plurilingual and intercultural education as proposed by the Council of Europe are taken into account in them, albeit partially. These documents nevertheless form an essential basis for rethinking teacher training.

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>The training of teachers of a foreign language: developments in Europe</i> – Main report – revised August 2002</p> <p>Report to the European Commission – Directorate General for Education and Culture</p> <p>by Michael Kelly, Michael Grenfell, Angela Gallagher-Brett, Diana Jones, Laurence Richard and Amanda Hilmansson-Dunn</p>	<p>This study:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ examines the initial and in-service training of teachers of a foreign language in Europe;</li> <li>▶ summarises developments in this field over the last few years in 32 countries, including the patterns of language teaching in pre-school, in compulsory schooling and in the post-compulsory sectors;</li> <li>▶ presents 15 case studies from various countries on training for primary and secondary education;</li> <li>▶ makes recommendations on how good practice and innovation can be spread more widely across Europe, with reference to three areas:               <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– building a European infrastructure for training language teachers;</li> <li>– the European language teacher of tomorrow;</li> <li>– areas for further study;</li> <li>– an initial sample profile of the European language teachers of the 21st century (included).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>Policy makers, those responsible for training at all levels (universities, training institutes, schools, professional organisations providing training etc.), teacher trainers.</p>	<p>This wide-ranging and detailed study sets out numerous discussion points and practical proposals concerning both initial and in-service teacher training.</p>	<p><a href="http://p21208.ty-po3server.info/fileadmin/content/assets/eu_language_policy/key_documents/student_executive_summary_full_en.pdf">http://p21208.ty-po3server.info/fileadmin/content/assets/eu_language_policy/key_documents/student_executive_summary_full_en.pdf</a></p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>European profile for language teacher education – A frame of reference – Final report</i></p> <p>A report to the European Commission Directorate General of Education and Culture – September 2004</p> <p>by Michael Kelly, Michael Grenfell, Rebecca Allan, Christine Kriza and William McEvoy – University of Southampton, UK</p>	<p>This European study, which follows on from the previous one, outlines the key elements in language teacher education in 21st-century Europe. It consists of five parts:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Contexts for developing a European profile for language teacher education</li> <li>▶ European profile for language teacher education – a frame of reference</li> <li>▶ Overview of case studies</li> <li>▶ Overview of the Delphi study</li> <li>▶ Glossary</li> </ul> <p>Three appendices set out in detail:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ The 11 case studies conducted</li> <li>▶ Quality assurance and enhancement guidelines</li> <li>▶ The report's methodology</li> </ul> <p>The profile was conceived as a frame of reference which could be used as an essential "checklist" for all those participating in theoretical and practical language teacher education.</p> <p>The profile is based on:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ detailed research throughout the European Union;</li> <li>▶ the opinions of specialists;</li> <li>▶ numerous case studies;</li> </ul> <p>and proposes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ examples of good practice;</li> <li>▶ a practical guide to implementation.</li> </ul>	<p>As above.</p>	<p>The study can be used in establishing:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ the structure of teacher education courses;</li> <li>▶ the knowledge and understanding central to language teaching;</li> <li>▶ language teaching strategies and skills;</li> <li>▶ the values which language teaching should encourage and promote.</li> </ul>	<p><a href="http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/report/MainReport.rtf">www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/report/MainReport.rtf</a></p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURLINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>European profile for language teacher education – A frame of reference</i> (undated)</p> <p>by Michael Kelly and Michael Grenfell – University of Southampton</p>	<p>This document is based on the 2002 report (see above) and offers a comprehensive guide to the 2004 final report (see above). It describes each component of the profile in detail and outlines a series of strategies for its implementation and practical application.</p> <p>It presents a toolkit of 40 items which could be included in a teacher education programme. Its aims are to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ equip foreign language teachers with the necessary skills and knowledge and other professional competences;</li> <li>▶ enhance their professional development;</li> <li>▶ increase the transparency and portability of qualifications.</li> </ul>	<p>As above.</p>	<p>As above.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/index.html">www.lang.soton.ac.uk/profile/index.html</a></p>
<p><i>European portfolio for student teachers of languages</i> (EPOSTL) ECML – 2007</p> <p>A reflection tool for language teacher education</p> <p>by David Newby, Rebecca Allan, Anne-Brit Fenner, Barry Jones, Hanna Kormowska and Kristine Soghikyan</p>	<p>This document contains:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ an outline of the EPOSTL;</li> <li>▶ a “personal statement” section to help student teachers to reflect on general questions relating to teaching;</li> <li>▶ a “self-assessment” section consisting of 193 “can do” descriptors to facilitate reflection and self-assessment by student teachers;</li> <li>▶ a dossier allowing student teachers to make the outcome of their self-assessment transparent, provide evidence of their progress and record examples of work relevant to teaching;</li> <li>▶ a glossary of the most important terms used in the EPOSTL;</li> <li>▶ an index of terms used in the descriptors;</li> <li>▶ a users’ guide.</li> </ul>	<p>Students undergoing initial teacher education.</p>	<p>The 193 “can do” descriptors can be used as a basis for rethinking language teachers’ professional competences in a plurilingual and intercultural education perspective.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.ecml.at">www.ecml.at</a> → Resources → ECML Publications</p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>European portfolio for student teachers of pre-primary education</i> (PEPELINO) ECML – 2015 by Francis Goullier, Catherine Carré-Karlinger, Natalia Orlova, Maria Roussi</p>	<p>A tool for reflective practice in initial teacher training, targeting professional competences and attitudes of teachers of 3- to 6-year-olds with regard to languages and cultures. The tool is based, among other documents, on the ECML publication <i>European portfolio for student teachers of languages</i> (EPOSTL, see above) and on FREPA.</p>	<p>Pre-primary teachers and teacher trainers at that level; primary teachers.</p>	<p>A number of areas of competence are defined, together with descriptors, with the aim of equipping, supporting and guiding student teachers in their process of reflection and (self-)training on the plurilingual and intercultural language dimensions in pre-primary education.</p>	<p>www.ecml.at → Resources → ECML Publications</p>
<p><i>European framework for CLIL teacher education</i> ECML – 2011 by María Jesús Frigols Martín, David Marsh, Peeter Mehisto, Dieter Wolff</p>	<p>This document, based on a pan-European consultation process, aims to provide guidelines for designing CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) professional development curricula. It proposes:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ a list of competences needed to teach subjects in another language;</li> <li>▶ professional development modules designed to help European training designers and managers to develop professional training pathways specific to CLIL.</li> </ul> <p>It does not propose a single, common training pathway for all Council of Europe member states, but presents itself as a general tool for reflection (a “macro” tool that can be adapted to the specific needs of trainers in very different national and regional contexts).</p>	<p>Researchers, decision makers, language teachers, language experts, policy makers/politicians at national, regional or local level.</p>	<p>The framework includes a list of “target professional competences” which teachers are expected to acquire or further develop in the course of the training programme:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ personal reflection;</li> <li>▶ CLIL fundamentals;</li> <li>▶ content and language awareness;</li> <li>▶ methodology and assessment;</li> <li>▶ research and evaluation;</li> <li>▶ learning resources and environments;</li> <li>▶ classroom management;</li> <li>▶ CLIL management.</li> </ul> <p>It also proposes professional development modules geared to the following aspects:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ approaching CLIL;</li> <li>▶ implementing CLIL;</li> <li>▶ consolidating CLIL.</li> </ul>	<p>www.ecml.at → Resources → ECML Publications</p>

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Career-specific language skill profiles for foreign language teachers</i> Swiss Conference of Rectors of Universities of Teacher Education, Federal Office for Culture – 2014</p> <p>by Wilfrid Kuster, Mirjam Egli Cuenat, Peter Klee, Thomas Roderer, Brigitte Forster-Vosicki, Daniela Zappatore, Daniela Kappler, Gé Stoks, Peter Lenz</p> <p>Original version in German. Versions in French, Italian and English.</p>	<p>This document describes the language skills needed for foreign language teaching geared to communication and content, language learning strategies and interculturalism, in line with the aims of foreign language teaching in Swiss state schools (primary and lower secondary). Developed on the basis of a systematic analysis of needs, it includes a range of sources, such as national and international reference documents (e.g. EPOSTL and FREPA).</p> <p>The profiles contain descriptions of career-specific language skills in the following areas:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ preparing lessons;</li> <li>▶ conducting lessons;</li> <li>▶ assessment, feedback and advice;</li> <li>▶ establishing outside contacts;</li> <li>▶ acquiring training and supplementing one's in-service training.</li> </ul>	<p>School curriculum managers, trainers responsible for the initial and in-service training of language teachers, (student) teachers in initial or in-service training.</p>	<p>The career-specific language skill profile provides a framework to guide the training and in-service training of foreign language teachers at primary level.</p> <p>These skill profiles can be used as a basis for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ setting language goals for basic and in-service teacher training;</li> <li>▶ creating career-specific language courses;</li> <li>▶ assessment and self-assessment of teachers' training and in-service training needs;</li> <li>▶ establishing a language skills certificate, e.g. in combination with international language diplomas.</li> </ul>	<p>Institut Fachdidaktik Sprachen, Pädagogische Hochschule St. Gallen, Switzerland → <a href="http://www.phsg.ch/web/forschung/institut-fuer-fachdidaktik-sprachen.aspx">www.phsg.ch/web/forschung/institut-fuer-fachdidaktik-sprachen.aspx</a></p>



### Training for all teachers in a cross-cutting perspective and in plurilingual and intercultural education

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
<p><i>Framework model for basic competences for language education for all teaching staff</i></p> <p>Rahmenmodell Basiskompetenzen Sprachliche Bildung für alle Lehrpersonen</p>	<p>This document is based on the Austrian <i>Multilingualism Curriculum (Curriculum Mehrsprachigkeit</i>; Krumm and Reich 2011), see above. It provides Austrian teacher training institutions with references competencies in the form of a common core aimed at teachers of all subjects. The competency goals identified are knowledge about language acquisition, multilingualism and the cultural dimension, methods of diagnosis and assessment, language-sensitive subject teaching and targeted encouragement of vulnerable groups.</p>	<p>Decision makers in charge of teacher training in all subjects; teacher trainers.</p>	<p>This curriculum in modular form is concerned both with the transmission of knowledge and skills and with work on representations to support teachers in their activities in classes which are increasingly diverse in social, cultural and linguistic terms.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.oesz.at">www.oesz.at</a> → Materialien und Service</p>
<p><i>European Core Curriculum for Inclusive Academic Language Teaching (EUCIM-TE)</i> (undated)</p> <p>European Commission</p> <p>by Hans-Joachim Roth and Joana Duarte and partners.</p> <p>Original version in English, adaptation in German.</p>	<p>This document offers a competence-based core curriculum for pre- and in-service teacher training designed to help teachers provide immigrant children with an “inclusive” education incorporating the language of schooling as a second language. The curriculum focuses on academic language (<i>Bildungssprache</i>) and covers not only language as subject but also other subjects. It is the first document of this kind at European level.</p>	<p>Decision makers in charge of teacher training and teachers of all subjects.</p>	<p>Inclusive and integrated teaching of the language of schooling as a second language calls for significant changes to teacher training in all subjects.</p> <p>The aim of the document is to provide a basis for pre- and in-service training of all teachers with a view to their work in the language of schooling with immigrant/ethnic minority pupils.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.eucim-te.eu">www.eucim-te.eu</a></p>

### Self-assessment of language abilities in a foreign language

INSTRUMENTS	DESCRIPTION	TARGET GROUPS	USEFULNESS IN DEVELOPING A CURRICULUM FOR PLURILINGUAL AND INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	INTERNET SITES
DIALANG	This is a site where everyone can test their own language abilities according to the skill levels of the CEFR in five areas: reading, writing, listening, grammar and vocabulary. 14 foreign languages are offered (Danish, Dutch, English, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Icelandic, Irish Gaelic, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Spanish and Swedish).	Anyone wishing to test their language abilities against the skill levels of the CEFR.	Related to teacher training, although this tool is not specifically concerned with the language abilities required to work as a language teacher at the various levels of education. It could enable language teachers to establish their overall level in a language and the work required to improve it.	www.lancs.ac.uk → Research and Enterprise Services

## Appendix V

# Learning methods and activities

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**T**his appendix contains a list – which does not claim to be exhaustive – of approaches and activities which may help to implement plurilingual and intercultural education. These approaches, often described as “plural”, are not inconsistent with the individual methods used for teaching each language according to its specific features. Instead, they complement them and are designed to help strengthen each language in learners’ diverse repertoires. Essentially, they fall into three main categories:

- ▶ Approaches which are demanding and complex in terms of language learning aims and use, and also teacher training. These approaches are normally applied to only a few languages, in which they set out to give learners a thorough command of the competences they need to carry out numerous language activities in various areas. Bilingual teaching and integrated language learning are examples of such approaches.
- ▶ Approaches applied to a large, or indeed very large, number of languages, depending on options, and focused on developing, together or separately:
  - intercultural competences;
  - cross-cutting strategies;
  - a global and all-embracing language education;
  - partial competences which may be (very) highly developed.

Intercomprehension and activities designed to spark language awareness and openness to other cultures are examples.

- ▶ Far simpler approaches or activities, which are recommended as a problem-free entry to plurilingual and intercultural education, for example the minimum curriculum, plurilingual activities and the use of plurilingual aids, but also certain one-off activities focused on language awareness and intercomprehension.

Types 2 and 3 make far lighter demands on teacher training than type 1.

Taken together, these approaches and activities – plus those used in teaching the language of schooling – and their linking in the curriculum help to create something new: a plurilingual pedagogy, for which plurilingual and intercultural education provides an integrating framework.

Each approach involves some activities which are specific to it, and others which are cross-cutting and used in other approaches as well. Their variety and diversity can help to diversify learners’ learning experiences (cf. 3.1).

Approaches are not mutually exclusive, and the dividing lines between them may sometimes blur, or even disappear. For example, an approach focused on skills acquisition in one or two foreign languages may explicitly include cross-cutting and intercultural skills among its aims as well. Similarly, intercomprehension, a type 2 skill, is also legitimate in type 1 tuition.

The following table gives a summary picture of various approaches and/or activities, attempting to describe them in very broad outline: the links can be used to access further information or find classroom activities and materials.

Choosing one or more approaches may depend on various factors:

- ▶ general and specific aims;
- ▶ the needs of a school, class or specific group of learners;
- ▶ funds available, particularly for the more costly approaches;
- ▶ teacher training and, above all, teachers' positive attitudes to innovative approaches;
- ▶ availability of teaching aids facilitating implementation in the class;
- ▶ etc.

For a few suggestions on using some of the approaches described above to link the language of schooling and other languages taught in schools presented below, see:

Coste D. (ed.), Cavalli M., Crişan A. and van de Ven P.-H. (2007), *A European reference document for languages of education?* Council of Europe, Strasbourg, [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Languages of schooling → Conference 2007.

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
<p>Immersion</p> <p>Dual language education, bilingual or even trilingual teaching</p> <p>CLIL/EMILE</p> <p>Language across the curriculum</p>	<p>The pedagogical status of “language in other subjects” (as compared with languages taught as subjects) is the dimension emphasised in these approaches, which differ enormously in respect of:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ the subjects concerned (one, several, all);</li> <li>▶ exposure to, and use of, the language taught, which may provide for <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>– almost total exclusion of the learners’ first language;</li> <li>– use of a second or foreign language in essentially ad hoc fashion in activities or projects connected with other subjects (CLIL/EMILE);<sup>14</sup></li> <li>– alternation of languages in teaching/learning a given subject, or throughout the curriculum;</li> <li>– successive use of languages in teaching the various subjects over time.</li> </ul> </li> </ul>	<p>The aim is to teach and learn the second or foreign language by using it in studying other subjects. Depending on the model adopted, such use may be more or less extensive, and there may, or may not, be parallel teaching/learning of the second or foreign language as a subject.</p> <p>Immersive models – which use the monolingual mode to achieve bilingualism – are increasingly called into question in research on bi- and multilingualism, where the current trend is to prioritise the bi- or even plurilingual mode of repertoire management for the purpose of language and other-subject learning.</p> <p>All of these approaches aim at thorough, parallel and integrated acquisition of the languages and subjects concerned. However, depending on the line followed, the balance struck between acquisition of language competences and acquisition of subject content may vary. One danger with these projects is that of seeing the other subjects merely as a means of acquiring proficiency in the second or foreign language.</p>	<p>The two or three taught languages used in teaching/learning one or more other subjects.</p>	<p>Dual language</p> <p><a href="http://www.cal.org/twi">www.cal.org/twi</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.lindholm-leary.com">www.lindholm-leary.com</a></p> <p>CLIL</p> <p><a href="http://www.ticilil.org">www.ticilil.org</a></p> <p><a href="http://clil-cdecml.at/">http://clil-cdecml.at/</a></p> <p>EMILE</p> <p><a href="http://www.emilanguages.education.fr">www.emilanguages.education.fr</a></p>

114. The two acronyms refer – with slight differences – to the same types of approach in an English-speaking (CLIL = Content and language integrated learning) and French-speaking (EMILE = Enseignement d’une matière intégré à une langue étrangère) context. EMILE reportedly focuses more than CLIL on the acquisition of subject content.

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
<p>Integrated language didactics (ILD)</p> <p>Integrated language pedagogy</p>	<p>This is an approach which “can facilitate the formulation and implementation of a unified language curriculum designed and projected as a whole. It is based on a fair balance between taking account of the differences between the L1, L2 or LE acquisition processes and the realisation that these processes display major psycho-linguistic affinities.”<sup>115</sup></p> <p>This type of approach can also accommodate the pedagogy of third languages, i.e. those which come after the language of schooling and the first foreign language.</p>	<p>ILD has two objectives, in addition to the aforementioned dual streamlining goals (cognitive and pedagogic):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ facilitating learning of the different language systems from the angle of reciprocal reinforcement by taking advantage, in educational terms, of their shared foundations (common functional system and/or underlying competence);</li> <li>▶ encouraging, anticipating in time, alerting and making systematic and automatic by means of efficient pedagogical support the “interlinguistic” mental processes which may or may not take place, spontaneously and unconsciously, in the learners’ minds.</li> </ul> <p>The aim is in-depth, consistent and conscious acquisition of the languages concerned.</p>	<p>In a diversified, but systematic manner, this approach should be applied to all the languages taught. When possible, it may also, perhaps, be applied – in a more ad hoc manner – to the languages in learners’ repertoires.</p>	

115. Quotations in this table are from Coste D. (ed.) (2007), *A European reference document for languages of education?*, Council of Europe Language Policy Division, Strasbourg.

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
<p>Language awareness or Language awakening (UK)</p> <p><i>Eveil aux langues</i> (FR)</p> <p><i>Eveil et Ouverture aux Langues à l'Ecole</i> (EOLE) (CH)</p> <p><i>Ouverture aux langues à l'école: vers des compétences plurilingues et pluriculturelles</i> (Lu)</p> <p>Critical language awareness</p>	<p>This approach allows learners to think about languages, their similarities and differences, and also the nature of human language, with the help of written and audio aids relating to all the languages taught and known, but also to other languages which the school does not intend to teach.</p> <p>More specifically, critical language awareness proposes that thinking about languages should include a critical dimension in relation to issues of domination and power connected with languages.</p>	<p>“This approach is both inclusive and intercultural, since it can focus pupils’ attention on the languages (language varieties) they actually speak – no longer seen just as everyday ‘tools’, but as something ‘worth thinking about’. In school, this gives those languages and varieties a visibility and legitimacy which genuinely raise their status. Gradually, reflection becomes broader, richer, more diverse and more complex, extending to a wider range of languages, and also to codes (icons, gestures, braille, sign language, language of animals, etc.) and alphabets which are new to pupils, going further into the distinctive features of the various forms of human communication (differences between the written and the spoken word, between registers, text modes, etc.) and giving them positive attitudes and greater sensitivity to language, languages and language learning. At primary and primary level, this may generate a first awareness of plurilingualism as it exists in the class. The aim is not language ‘learning’ in the conventional sense of the term, but education for language and languages, through language and languages. It is thus important to start educating children for linguistic and cultural diversity at a very early stage by showing them that it is ‘normal’.<sup>116</sup></p> <p>This is an approach whose aims cover both the acquisition of intercultural competences and the development of competences, attitudes and strategies which facilitate the development of plurilingualism. The intention is to make learners aware of the benefits of plurilingualism, and plurality and diversity of languages, and enhance the value of their own repertoires.</p>	<p>This approach can be applied, in one way or another, to all the children’s repertoire languages (also with the help of suitable materials, when these are available), the languages taught in the school, and other languages which are not yet taught, and are not known by either pupils or teachers. Plurilingual materials, with innovative suggestions for activities, are needed for this purpose (e.g. the Swiss EOLE materials, which suggest activities for over 60 different languages).</p>	<p><a href="http://www.elodil.com/">www.elodil.com/</a></p> <p><a href="http://edilbase.univ-lemans.fr/index.php">http://edilbase.univ-lemans.fr/index.php</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.ecml.at">www.ecml.at</a> → Resources → Project JaLing</p> <p><a href="http://www.languageawareness.org">www.languageawareness.org</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.unige.ch/fapse/SSE/teachers/perregau/rech_creole_jou.html">www.unige.ch/fapse/SSE/teachers/perregau/rech_creole_jou.html</a></p> <p><a href="http://div.univ-lemans.fr/">http://div.univ-lemans.fr/</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.ecml.at">www.ecml.at</a> → Resources → Project Language Awareness – Carl James</p> <p><a href="http://www.irdp.ch/eole">www.irdp.ch/eole</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.men.public.lu">www.men.public.lu</a> → Ouverture aux langues à l'école : vers des compétences plurilingues et pluriculturelles</p> <p><a href="http://www.oesz.at">www.oesz.at</a> → Materialien und Service</p>

116. Ibid., 3.5.4.1, Linguistic and cultural awareness.

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
<p>Intercomprehension</p>	<p>This approach obliges learners to exploit their language repertoires fully and devise strategies for understanding written or spoken languages belonging to the same or even other language families.</p> <p>"This is an interesting, original and 'economical' approach to diversifying language learning supply in the area of plurilingual education ... This makes it particularly well-suited to minority contexts in which ... language supply, which is much broader than in other contexts, may be experienced by some students and their families as an 'imposed' programme which leaves no room for their personal tastes .... This one tool is based on the transfer of knowledge items and strategies."<sup>117</sup></p>	<p>"It targets partial competences in several languages, e.g. exclusively oral or written understanding of several languages belonging to the same family (e.g. Romance or Germanic languages). It exploits the foundations provided by certain components of the students' repertoires, including the language of schooling ... It has the great advantage of making it possible, at little cost and using existing plurilingual resources, to broaden learners' language horizons by making them aware of other languages, which they can later learn better on their own outside school, depending on their personal, professional, cultural or other needs.</p> <p>The target is acquisition – in greater or lesser depth, depending on the options – of one or two language activities (oral and/or written reception) in several languages."<sup>118</sup></p>	<p>Languages in the same language group:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ Romance languages</li> <li>▶ Germanic languages</li> <li>▶ Slav languages</li> <li>▶ Scandinavian languages</li> <li>▶ etc.</li> </ul> <p>Increasingly, the aim is also intercomprehension between languages belonging to different linguistic groups and, alongside that, interproduction.</p>	<p><a href="http://www.aidentligne-francais-universite.auf.org/spip.php?article1147">www.aidentligne-francais-universite.auf.org/spip.php?article1147</a></p> <p><a href="http://galatea.u-grenoble3.fr/">http://galatea.u-grenoble3.fr/</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.eurocomprehension.eu">www.eurocomprehension.eu</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.culturecommunication.gouv.fr">www.culturecommunication.gouv.fr</a> → Politiques ministérielles → Langue française et langues de France → Politiques de la langue → Multilinguisme</p> <p><a href="http://www.eurom5.com/bi-envenue">www.eurom5.com/bi-envenue</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.unilat.org">www.unilat.org</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.hum.uit.no/a/svenonius/lingua/index.html">www.hum.uit.no/a/svenonius/lingua/index.html</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.eu-intercomprehension.eu">www.eu-intercomprehension.eu</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.silviaklein.de/Europint/kurs/esquisse.pdf">www.silviaklein.de/Europint/kurs/esquisse.pdf</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.redinter.eu/web">www.redinter.eu/web</a></p>

117. Ibid., 3.5.4.4, Mutual understanding (Intercomprehension) among closely-related languages.

118. Ibid.



APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
				<p>www.ecml.at → Resources → Franz-Joseph Meissner – <i>Modelling plurilingual processing and language growth between intercultural and intercomprehensive languages</i></p> <p>www.coe.int/lang → Publications and Documents → Peter Doyé – <i>Intercomprehension</i></p> <p>www.ecml.at → Resources → PLURIMOBIL project</p>
Encounter pedagogy	<p>This approach is based on joint projects carried out by classes in different countries or regions who speak different languages. Its underlying principles are reciprocity and partnership.</p>	<p>It aims at developing the attitudes and competences needed in contacts with other peoples and cultures, at broader socialisation allowing for differences/similarities between learners' own and others' values, and at an authentic experience which teaches learners to become independent.</p> <p>This is the ideal activity to develop both intercultural and language competences.</p>	<p>The languages taught in school or closely related languages in the same language family.</p>	
Virtual mobility	<p>As above, but at a distance, using ICT. This may be one, or indeed – if direct contact is impossible – the only means of liaising on implementation of joint projects (cf. above).</p>	<p>As above, but allowing for the special features of virtual communication.</p>	<p>The languages taught in school or closely related languages in the same language family.</p>	<p>www.etwinning.net</p>

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
Intercultural approach	The intercultural approach seeks to deconstruct exaggerated stereotypes of certain cultures, with a view to revealing their complexity and initiating real intercultural dialogue, based on awareness of learners' own reference framework, the ability to see others' viewpoint, and the development of intercultural negotiating competences.	This type of approach sets out to give learners the ability to step outside themselves, which is one aspect of the ability to abandon, momentarily, one's own world view and identify with those of other cultures; and to learn new ways of feeling, apprehending reality, thinking and acting. A deeper knowledge of other cultures helps learners to develop intercultural receptivity, as well as competences connected with the cultural dimensions.	All languages and subjects.	<p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang">www.coe.int/lang</a> → Publications and documents → <i>Developing the intercultural dimension in language teaching – A practical introduction for teachers</i>, Byram, M. (ed.), Gribkova B. and Starkey H. (2002)</p> <p><i>Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters</i> (2009)</p> <p>and</p> <p><i>Images of Others: An Autobiography of Intercultural Encounters through Visual Media</i> (AIEVM) (2014)</p> <p><a href="http://www.coe.int/lang-autobiography">www.coe.int/lang-autobiography</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.ecml.at">www.ecml.at</a> → Resources →</p> <p><i>How strange. The use of anecdotes in the development of intercultural competence</i>, Grima-Camilleri A. (2002)</p> <p>INCA Project (Intercultural Calendar for Early Multilingual Learning) <a href="http://www.incaproject.eu">www.incaproject.eu</a></p> <p><a href="http://www.italianosubito.ch">www.italianosubito.ch</a></p>
Minimum curriculum (one week)	This is a curriculum – for one language and one culture which are not taught – covering just one week.	The aim is to put learners in touch with that language and culture, building on what they know of them and trying to help them develop some minimum communication competences.	For the least taught languages.	

APPROACHES	BRIEF DESCRIPTION	AIMS	TYPE AND NUMBER OF LANGUAGES INVOLVED	SOME LINKS
Plurilingual activities	<p>These are all activities which are implemented using intercomprehension strategies and aids in more than one language, sometimes via different channels, for example:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▶ watching a film in English with Chinese subtitles, and summarising it in German;</li> <li>▶ reading a story in a bilingual edition, listening to a recording of it in a third language, and retelling it in writing in the language of schooling;</li> <li>▶ watching a cartoon film in a language closely related to one's own, with subtitles in another closely related language, and telling the story in writing in a foreign language.</li> </ul> <p>These activities can also take the form of exercises in thematic units devoted to learning other subjects (cf. Euromania project).</p>	<p>The aim is to proceed in such a way that learners train themselves, and learn to mobilise all their language resources, take risks and deploy success strategies in carrying out a linguistic and cognitive task.</p>	All the languages taught in the school, and languages belonging to the same families.	<a href="http://www.euro-mania.eu">www.euro-mania.eu</a>
Use of plurilingual aids in other-subject courses	<p>More than an approach, this is a habit which teachers should acquire and impart to learners – that of using plurilingual, authentic and content-rich sources and documents to build up subject knowledge.</p>	<p>Accustoming pupils to the presence of several languages outside language classes enables them to see those languages in a new light, as varied sources of information, but also as cultural viewpoints – different or similar – on the same subject-related theme.</p>	The languages taught, languages close to the language of schooling, or others close to the foreign languages studied.	

## Appendix VI

# Taking into account the linguistic and cultural repertoire of allophone pupils

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**C**onsideration of every pupil's initial repertoire is a key factor in achieving his or her educational and social inclusion. Given the importance of the first language in every individual's identity-building process, taking it into account and attaching value to it at school means effectively accepting the pupil in his or her primary identity. Such acceptance is at the same time a message, along with other more explicit ones, conveyed directly to parents about the school's open attitude and the readiness of its protagonists to engage in dialogue. These are basic preconditions for establishing a secure climate of co-operation at various levels (pupils–teachers, pupils among themselves, school–family) intended to facilitate learning.

But meeting these basic conditions is not enough in itself to ensure the academic success of allophone pupils, whose extreme diversity has already been emphasised (cf. 3.7.2): teaching goals and activities also need to be defined so that recognition of their initial repertoires can be used as a means towards basic learning of the language of schooling and the foreign languages offered by the school. This focus on the first language is also a means of bringing out the knowledge and competences in various fields which the pupils have built up in their family environment or possibly already in another school environment. Some pupils may thus be given the opportunity to conceptualise in their first language while respecting the level of cognitive maturity already attained. The subsequent transition to the language of schooling may be guided by other pupils speaking the same first language or by mediators, or even by means of automatic translation resources.

School has every interest in regarding the resources in allophone pupils' repertoires as assets which can be used as a springboard towards the learning of other languages and cultures: bi-/plurilingualism offers real advantages which can always be put to use if school adopts the appropriate teaching methods.

If this is to happen, the following important requirements need to be met.

- ▶ The school as a whole should adopt an appropriate attitude towards bi-/plurilingual repertoires and an open-minded language policy (for example, allow pupils to use their first language among themselves at school in informal situations or in group exercises).
- ▶ The school should encourage pupils – when using their first languages in communication among themselves – to explore the potential for intercomprehension between related languages (for example between Polish, Czech and Ukrainian or between Romanian, French and Italian): this would have the dual advantage of adding yet another dimension to the cognitive process and increasing language sensitivity.
- ▶ The school should encourage parents of allophone pupils to speak the family language at home and, if appropriate, provide support classes in that language or advise families to ensure attendance at those offered by other bodies.
- ▶ Activities to raise awareness of linguistic and cultural diversity and plurality should be organised for all the languages and cultures present in the classroom (see Appendix V for suggestions regarding possible teaching methods).

- ▶ Specific teaching activities should be devised so that allophone pupils can use their first language and their prior knowledge and experience to approach and successfully complete school tasks in the language of schooling.
- ▶ To guarantee the fairness of the assessment process, it should be tailored – in terms of the required levels of proficiency – to each allophone pupil's actual circumstances.

These are measures which, although intended to support allophone pupils, nevertheless contribute to the plurilingual and intercultural education of the whole class. In particular, they must also be applied to pupils speaking minority languages and to those whose first language is a variety of the language of schooling which enjoys less legitimacy at school. The latter situation is particularly delicate because it is important to help the pupils to progress in the language of schooling without stigmatising their first language. Lastly, any monolingual pupil in a multilingual class will derive benefit from teaching which is open to linguistic and cultural diversity and will be more motivated to learn languages and cultures.

There is currently an abundance of projects, activities and studies on ways of catering for allophone pupils and helping them to succeed. Innovatory approaches are emerging in Europe and elsewhere. A few indications are given below – with absolutely no claim to exhaustiveness – regarding publications and websites which might usefully guide the work of schools towards good practices for the inclusion of allophone pupils.

## **1. Council of Europe publications and resources**

### **1.1. Council of Europe Parliamentary Assembly document and recommendation on the mother tongue**

Doc. 10837 – 7 February 2006 – The place of mother tongue in school education – Report by the Committee on Culture, Science and Education – Rapporteur: Mr Jacques Legendre, France, Group of the European People's Party.

Recommendation 1740 (2006), The place of mother tongue in school education.

### **1.2. Language Policy Unit**

NB: The documents below are downloadable on the Council of Europe website: [www.coe.int/lang-platform](http://www.coe.int/lang-platform) → Language(s) of schooling.

#### **Concept paper**

Little D. (2010), *The linguistic and educational integration of children and adolescents from migrant backgrounds*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

#### **Studies and resources**

No. 1: Lengyel D. (2010), *Language diagnostics in multilingual settings with respect to continuous procedures as accompaniment of individualized learning and teaching*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

No. 2: Thürman E., Vollmer H. and Pieper I. (2010), *Languages of schooling: focusing on vulnerable learners*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

No. 3: Bertucci M.-M. (2010), *Migrant pupils and formal mastery of the language of schooling: variations and representations*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

No. 4: Castellotti V. and Moore D. (2010), *Capitalising on, activating and developing plurilingual and pluricultural repertoires for better school integration*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

No. 5: Anderson J., Hélot C., McPake J. and Obied V. (2010), *Professional development for staff working in multilingual schools*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

No. 6: Bainski C., Kaseric T., Michel U., McPake J. and Thompson A. (2010), *Co-operation, management and networking: effective ways to promote the linguistic and educational integration of children and adolescents from migrant backgrounds*, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

#### **Other studies**

Gogolin I. (2002), *Linguistic diversity and new minorities in Europe*, Reference study, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

Jariene R. and Razmantiene A. (2006), *The influence of pupils' socio-economic background on achievements in reading and writing skills*, Preliminary study, Languages of Education, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

Van Avermaet P. (2006), *Socially disadvantaged learners and languages of education*, Preliminary study, Languages of Education, Language Policy Division, Council of Europe, Strasbourg.

## Adult migrants

The Language Policy Unit has a website dedicated to adult migrants – Linguistic Integration of Adult Migrants (LIAM) – which can be consulted at the following address: [www.coe.int/lang-migrants](http://www.coe.int/lang-migrants).

### 1.3. ECML projects on pupils from migrant backgrounds

The ECML has launched a number of projects on the question of allophone pupils. These provide not only guidelines but also teaching aids which can be used directly or adapted to teachers' work settings. The following projects and their products are available on [www.ecml.at](http://www.ecml.at) → Resources.

- ▶ The MARILLE project – Majority language in multilingual settings – focused on how allophone pupils' repertoires can be integrated into teaching of the language of schooling. The materials offered concern one-off activities (such as planning lessons on a specific grammatical point) covering all the languages spoken in the classroom, as well as more comprehensive strategic approaches involving school principals or parents.
- ▶ The MALEDIVE project – Embracing diversity within the language of schooling – Study materials for teacher development, which is a follow-up to the previous project, focuses on the training of teachers of the language of schooling. It aims to provide access to plurilingual and intercultural approaches so that teachers can address and build on linguistic and cultural diversity in classrooms. The project will also promote collaboration between teachers.
- ▶ The EDUCOMIGRANTS project – Collaborative community approach to migrant education – explores new ways to enhance young migrants' education by developing links between schools, the home and local partners in education. The aim is to develop the learners' skills in the language of schooling and their plurilingual competences.
- ▶ The LANGUAGE DESCRIPTORS project – Language descriptors for migrant and minority learners' success in compulsory education – focused on the language competence required in the language of schooling in order to achieve educational success. Eliciting language requirements in curriculum subjects and linking these to CEFR levels will raise educators' awareness of what migrant and minority language learners need to perform successfully in compulsory education.

All these projects offer online resources and accompanying documents.

See also the project relating to adult migrants: Developing migrants' language competences at work.

## 2. Bibliography

### 2.1. Bi-/plurilingualism and bi-/plurilingual people

The following publications are valuable for in-depth study of perceptions of bi-/plurilingualism as an individual phenomenon and the cognitive and discursive functioning of bi-/plurilingual people. Such study is all the more important because, while many pupils are already bi-/plurilingual, all other pupils are bi-/plurilinguals in the making.

Grosjean F. (1982), *Life with two languages: an introduction to bilingualism*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts and London, England.

Grosjean F. (2010), *Bilingual: life and reality*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts and London, England.

Grosjean F. (2015), *Parler plusieurs langues: le monde des bilingues*, Albin Michel, Paris.

Lüdi G. and Py B. (2002), *Etre bilingue*, Peter Lang, Berne (1st edn 1986).

### 2.2. Teaching theory and methods in multilingual and multicultural classes

The following publications offer a range of methods, approaches and experiences based on research in different contexts which may provide the inspiration for projects and activities benefiting allophone pupils.

- Blackledge A. and Creese A. (eds) (2014), *Heteroglossia as practice and pedagogy*, Springer, New York.
- Budach G., Erfurt J. and Kunkel M. (eds) (2008) *Écoles plurilingues – Multilingual schools: Konzepte, Institutionen und Akteure*, Internationale Perspektiven, Peter Lang, Frankfurt.
- Canagarajah S. (ed.) (2013), *Literacy as translingual practice: between communities and classrooms* (1st edn), Routledge, New York.
- Cummins J. and Early M. (eds) (2011), *Identity texts: the collaborative creation of power in multilingual schools*, Trentham Books, Stoke on Trent and Sterling, VA.
- Garcia O. and Kleifgen J. A. (2010), *Educating emergent bilinguals: policies, programs, and practices for English language learners*, Teachers College Press, New York.
- Hélot C. and Laoire M. Ó. (eds) (2011), *Language policy for the multilingual classroom: pedagogy of the possible*, Multilingual Matters, Bristol, Buffalo and Toronto.
- Little D., Leung C. and Van Avermaet P. (eds) (2013), *Managing diversity in education: languages, policies, pedagogies*, Multilingual Matters, Bristol, Buffalo and Toronto.
- Lotherington H. (2011), *Pedagogy of multiliteracies: rewriting Goldilocks*, Routledge, New York.
- May S. (ed.), *The multilingual turn: implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education*, Routledge, New York.
- Wei L. and Garcia O. (2013), *Translanguaging: language, bilingualism and education*, Palgrave Pivot, Basingstoke.

### **3. Research and experiments**

Attention is drawn to the following examples of activities combining research and fieldwork, for the quality of the proposals made.

- ▶ In France, the project “Comparons nos langues”, launched and co-ordinated by Nathalie Auger of the University of Montpellier, whose DVD, an excellent documentation tool, can currently be found on the Web ([www.youtube.com/watch?v=\\_ZiBiAoMTBo](http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=_ZiBiAoMTBo)).
- ▶ Cf. also Auger N. (2013), “Exploring the use of migrant language to support learning in mainstream classrooms in France”, in Little D., Leung C. and Van Avermaet P. (eds), *Managing diversity in education: languages, policies, pedagogies*, Multilingual Matters, Bristol, Buffalo and Toronto.
- ▶ In Ireland, the school Scoil Bhríde Cailíní in Blanchardstown ([www.scoilbhridec.ie](http://www.scoilbhridec.ie)), for its activities and projects focusing on linguistic diversity and the development of pupils’ plurilingual repertoires, described in the following publications:

Kirwan D. (2013), “From English language support to plurilingual awareness”, in Little D., Leung C. and Van Avermaet P. (eds), *Managing diversity in education: languages, policies, pedagogies*, Multilingual Matters, Bristol, Buffalo and Toronto.

Little D. and Kirwan D. (forthcoming), “From plurilingual repertoires to language awareness: developing primary pupils’ proficiency in the language of schooling”, in Frijns C., Van Gorp K., Hélot C. and Sierens S. (eds), *Language awareness in multilingual classrooms in Europe*, Mouton de Gruyter, Berlin.

Little D. and Kirwan D. (forthcoming), “Translanguaging as a key to educational success: the experience of one Irish primary school”, in Maryns K., Slembrouck S., Sierens S., Van Avermaet P. and Van Gorp K. (eds), *The multilingual edge of education*, Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke.

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This guide is intended to facilitate improved implementation of the values and principles of plurilingual and intercultural education in the teaching of all languages – foreign, regional or minority, classical and language(s) of schooling.

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